DISCOURSE AND LANGUAGE EDUCATION. Evelyn Hatch. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1992. 333 pp.

One of the 1992 additions to the Cambridge Language Teaching Library is Evelyn Hatch's Discourse and Language Education. It is a welcome contribution to the growing collection of introductory books on discourse analysis. Yet it suffers, as all of them seem to, from not being fully successful in making this difficult field readily accessible to the majority of students in undergraduate or graduate linguistics courses, nor to professionals who want to acquire quickly some background in this increasingly important field. The reason for this has much to do with the field: discourse analysis is a collection of analytic approaches for looking at language above the sentence or utterance level. What happens is similar to what occurs when trying to do close-up photography: one part is in focus and the other parts are not. If you shift and bring a different part into focus, the others get fuzzy. This analogy seems useful for explaining discourse analysis: the various approaches are overlapping and interdependent and even when the purpose is explaining the field to others, it is very difficult to achieve the clarity, that is, provide some of the black and white categories, that readers seek.

Hatch points out in her introduction that she has two goals for *Discourse* and Language Education. The first is to enable the reader to recognize that there is system to the ways in which language is used for the purpose of communication. All too often linguistics examines the notion of system only with reference to phonology, morphology, and syntax, while the related areas of semantics, pragmatics, and language as a form of social action are viewed as messy and incapable of description, with no attempt to find pattern or system. Hatch wants to correct that view and, as her secondary goal, she wishes to convince her reader that "much of what we call language 'use' is part of language, part of the system of arbitrary symbols" (p. 1).

A major problem arises, however, as mentioned above, as there is no one agreed-upon system nor method of analysis. For example, if one wants to look at turn-taking in interactions, one engages in conversational analysis, whereas if the focus of interest is the cultural values embedded in a spoken text, then it makes sense to do an ethnography of communication. The overall intention—analyzing discourse—is shared by all those involved in discourse analysis, but the specific focus will engage them in different analytic procedures.

Hatch copes with the multiplicity of analytic procedures by using a hierarchical organization. Chapter 1 starts with the macro level of the structure of communication systems, specifically system constraints, viewed as being universal. Examples of universal system constraints are opening and closing conversations, turn-taking signals, repair work, and topic introduction. The basic notion here is that all languages and forms of communication are subject to these universal requirements; however, exactly how the constraints are met may vary with the individual language and the communication channel. Turn-taking signals, for example, may not be the same or may be weighted differently in different languages: eye contact may be less salient in Japanese interactions than it is in Anglo-American conversations.

Chapter 2 looks at ritual constraints, that is, the culture-specific, socially preferred ways of engaging in interactions. Again, we are dealing with universals: all cultures, it seems, have socially sanctioned constraints which mark individuals as competent members of that language community. Yet how politeness, to give one example, is shown in one culture differs from how it is shown in another. In this chapter, Hatch shows how ignorance of ritual constraints can have serious negative social consequences.

In Chapter 3, Hatch explores the contribution of the more cognitive side of linguistic inquiry to discourse analysis, specifically the concept of scripts and how scripts are located in our memories, providing "stereotypic event sequences" (p. 85). One reason for the interest in scripts is that they can give us insights into how humans process language. If comprehension is related to the ability to predict the sequence of events in a particular interaction (say, going grocery shopping), then if both the speaker and the listener share the same script for the speech event "grocery shopping," comprehension will be facilitated. By identifying the structural units—the actors, the action, and so forth—of a stereotypical script, the discourse analyst can use this analytic procedure as a heuristic to gain insights into some aspects of how language is used in communication. In addition, Hatch discusses the role of scripts in artificial intelligence and the use of computers in natural speech processing. The goal is to show systematicity in the way in which cognition operates in organizing content in comprehension and production of language.

Content is also dealt with in Chapter 4, though here the focus is more on sociolinguistic aspects of text. The first part of the chapter is concerned with speech acts, and Hatch chooses to present Searle's classification system. Speech event analysis is then suggested as an answer to one of the criticisms

of speech act theory, as it provides a means to investigate extended text rather than decontextualized single utterances. This preferred form of analysis enables us to see the structure of, for example, a compliment interaction and thus understand better the cross-culturally sensitive area of accepting, acknowledging, or refusing a compliment, and how each is done.

With Chapter 5, Hatch begins to address more specific linguistic devices, moving into what we might call the more micro levels of analysis. Chapter 6 is concerned with rhetorical genre analysis of mostly monologic texts, especially of narratives and argumentation. Coherence, cohesion, and deixis (use of words like *here* that indicate relation to the speaker) are the focus of Chapter 7, where Hatch examines the connection between grammar and discourse phenomena. In the previous chapters, the author attempted to show how coherence of a text is achieved through system and ritual constraints, scripts, and even rhetorical genre features. Here, she is addressing the role of formal cohesive ties.

In Chapter 7, still concerned with the role of syntax in providing structure, Hatch examines the dichotomy of oral versus written language, and the various approaches which have been used to account for the differences between these discourse modes. In particular, the author looks at the way in which syntactic choices can enable the speaker to carry out intended, pragmatic meanings.

Continuing in the area of speaker intent, in Chapter 8 Hatch is concerned with how meaning—speaker meaning—is conveyed through the use of a specific structure in context. These concerns are within the domain of pragmatics and contextual analysis, a form of analysis which seeks to provide insights into the questions of how and when a speaker uses particular linguistic forms in context. There is a short section on how prosody, specifically intonation, can be important in carrying out pragmatic functions when contextualized.

In the final chapter, Chapter 9, Hatch provides a summary of the "layers of discourse analysis." She calls them "templates" and suggests we engage in layered analyses of text in order to achieve as comprehensive a picture as possible of what goes on in spoken and written texts.

In addition, at the end of each section, there are Practice Exercises, with numerous suggestions for tasks. Then at the end of each chapter, there is a Research and Application section in which the author both briefly summarizes

some current research in discourse analysis and makes suggestions for more substantial research projects. There are also references at the end of each chapter and a list of relevant periodicals in the Appendix. The Practice section would be very useful if this text were to be used for a university course on discourse analysis. Another very useful feature throughout the book is the large number of examples of speech from both native speakers and language learners.

As suggested at the beginning of this review, there is a definite feel of this being an introductory text on discourse analysis for American university students studying for MA degrees in linguistics. Indeed, this Cambridge book grew out of a manual for an introductory linguistics course at the University of California at Los Angeles and it has maintained that cachet. This is not a criticism, but rather an attempt to contextualize Hatch's contribution. In spite of the fact that it is an introduction, it is not an easy text, as it presupposes motivated, interested students who ideally already have some basic knowledge of linguistics. It provides an impressive summary of a continually growing body of knowledge.

The reader needs to be aware as well that Discourse and Language Education reflects an American point of view on the subject. Hatch does not bring in work that has been done in the UK as much as one might want. Furthermore, she spends some time on "contextual analysis," which seems to be what is called "pragmatics" in the UK. Another case of reinventing the wheel? Michael McCarthy's recent Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers might be read as a companion volume to get an idea of what is happening in Britain.

As for readers interested in the application of discourse analysis to language teaching, Hatch does honor the second part of her title regularly throughout the text. However, attention to the application side is more in the form of developing the awareness of teachers, helping them to become more informed about language use, than in providing ideas for direct use in the classroom. The McCarthy book cited above is much better if one is interested in applications to teaching, although Hatch's is to be preferred as a source of information on the field. [Editor's note: The McCarthy book is reviewed next.]

The main criticism I have of *Discourse and Language Education* is that it is too easy to lose track of the overall organization of the book; there are too few introductory, transitional, or summarizing paragraphs along the way, signaling the underlying structure for the reader. In addition, there are sections

which seem choppy as the author tends to bring in anecdotal examples, comments, and digressions without making explicit connections to the more abstract preceding and/or following concepts. Both of these related problems may reflect insufficient editing, although given the nature of the field of discourse analysis, one must recognize how difficult it is to have a clear argument, transparent to all readers. Because discourse analysis is, as Hatch indicates, a multifaceted approach, it is difficult not to overlap and make digressions into other related areas when one is attempting to make one concept clear.

This is a book anyone interested in discourse analysis needs to read. Hatch is a respected linguist and has made a formidable effort to bring together the threads that get interwoven in this fascinating field.

Reviewed by Virginia LoCastro, International Christian University

Reference

McCarthy, Michael. (1991). Discourse analysis for language teachers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS FOR LANGUAGE TEACHERS. Michael McCarthy. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1991. 213 pp.

As Michael McCarthy states in the preface, this book is not the first introduction to discourse analysis. It is, however, the "first to attempt to mediate selectively a wide range of research specifically for the practical needs of language teachers" (p. 1). It does this most successfully and with the utmost respect for the work and accomplishments of the classroom teacher.

The book is well-organized into six chapters which cover a brief historical overview and a definition of discourse analysis, the dimension discourse analysis plays in the teaching of grammar, vocabulary, and phonology, and how the discourse function is manifested in spoken and written language. Terms are well-explained and illustrated with clear examples. McCarthy points out problem areas, both for general and particular linguistic backgrounds in language teaching, and how discourse analysis can explain, or, at least, throw some light upon these areas. Reader Activities punctuate the book at points where just enough material for the reader to analyze, manipulate, and digest has been presented. Complete explanations to the Reader Activities are given in the final section, Guidance for Reader Activities. Each chapter concludes with an annotated bibliography amplifying the aspects of discourse analysis introduced in that section. The book ends with a bibliography of almost three hundred writings on language.

McCarthy defines discourse analysis as being as concerned with what people are doing with the language as with what they are saying. For example, the inverted grammatical form, "Have we got a show for you!" can be interpreted as an exclamation, or as a question, "Have we got a show for them?" This depends on the linguistic and situational factors (such as intonation) present in the text. Continuing, he contrasts discourse analysis with the functional-notional school, which states that in most contexts, a certain utterance, for example, is heard as "X." Discourse analysts say that in this particular context the utterance is heard as "X" because it is contextualized in a text which has certain situational key features.

Next, the writer discusses how a discourse approach to grammar suggests a need for educators to reconsider what is taught about reference, ellipsis, conjunction, theme, rheme, tense, and aspect. To give an example, McCarthy points out that a sentence's most important component, the *theme* or topic, is

placed in the front of the sentence (in most languages). The *rheme* consists of the rest of the sentence following the theme; it comments about the theme. For example, "She reads *The Guardian*, Joyce," is telling us that *The Guardian* is what this sentence is about. But, "Joyce, she reads *The Guardian*," tells us about Joyce. ("She" and "Joyce" are the respective themes of the two sentences.)

Vocabulary is the largest single element the learner must master in a language. What are the implications and resulting difficulties for teaching vocabulary that discourse analysis has discovered? Material writers, for instance, must be careful in simplifying texts that an unnatural amount of repetition does not result, because a certain variation between repetition and reiteration is found in natural texts. Another problem is that in many conversation classes the topics are pre-set and could, thus, actually hamper dialogue development. In spoken language, speakers reiterate their own and take up one another's vocabulary selections as a way to expand a topic already introduced, or to advance the conversation along a relevant sub-topic. Perhaps teachers should not fret, therefore, if students' dialogues go off in unpredictable directions.

In the chapter on phonology, McCarthy concentrates on intonation, where the most important discoveries challenge how educators have taught it up to the present. A case in point, one approach to intonation today defines it as being concerned with tone groups or information units. In natural data they correspond most frequently with grammatical clauses often followed by a slight pause. Tone groups can serve as a framework for having lower level students practice prominence. Another point of view, however, thinks intonation is not only concerned with isolating tone groups, but also with how speakers manage long stretches of interaction in terms of turn-taking, topic-signaling, and the use of pitch. Although the latter approach is complex, it may help more advanced students analyze speech in greater depth.

Unfortunately for language educators, little research has been done so far on different types of everyday speech. Also, many teachers have been overly influenced by the grammar rules of written language. If educators would design activities that encourage interactive dialogue, they might succeed in leading their students away from producing the typical journalistic questions they offer their partner to answer, or the too blunt, the too formal, or the unelaborated exchange. The characteristics of natural speech, such as backchanneling, vocalizations, (mmm, ah-ah, yeah, etc.), overlaps, and utterance-

completion are some qualities that encourage an interactive exchange, yet have been neglected in the classroom.

Of special interest in the area of written language is the topic "Culture and Rhetoric." Educators ask whether there are established norms of writing in other cultures and, if so, do these patterns cause interference. What research shows is that a student poor at organizing a text is also often not competent at the lexico-grammatical level. Just as we see the case of an Italian learner in this book writing an incomplete general-specific pattern, so we find the example of a Japanese student having the same problem. Cultural interference is certainly not the only factor involved.

In conclusion, Michael McCarthy states that discourse analysis is not a method. It is also true that not everything described by discourse analysts is applicable to language teaching. Nonetheless, the more we as educators understand how language really works, the more authentic materials we can create and the more natural speech and writing our students, hopefully, can produce.

Reviewed by Jane Hoelker, Kinran Women's Junior College

ABOUT TRANSLATION. Peter Newmark. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, 1991. 184 pp.

Translation is back on the academic agenda. As the study of language becomes ever more interdisciplinary and broadens its scope to take in semiotics, pragmatics, and information processing theories, and as the world grows ever more international, there is a felt need for a new perspective on translation (understood both as activity and product) and for a re-evaluation of the status of the translator

In After Babel, Steiner (1975) made a general claim for the importance of translation that few writers on the subject since have been able to ignore: "In short: inside or between languages, human communication equals translation. A study of translation is a study of language" (italics in original, p.47)

Since then, translation studies as a discipline has been building up momentum. Recent books use different theories to tease out different aspects, and whether practically or theoretically oriented, take us a long way from the hermeneutical tradition of translations of the Bible so well established by Nida. One of the best is Basnett-McGuire's introductory book. She focuses on the familiar areas of the history of translation theory and the problems of literary translation, but contextualizes them in a discussion of the central issues of language and culture and problems of equivalence. Her approach is straightforward and practical, as she says herself: "It is essential for those working in the field to bring their practical experience to theoretical discussion, as it is for increased theoretical perceptiveness to be put to use in the translation of texts" (1980, p.7).

Hatim and Mason (1990) do just that by incorporating research into sociolinguistics, discourse studies, pragmatics, and semiotics with a host of practical illustrations in a book which gives status to the translator as mediator, through an exploration of the social and individual motivations for a particular translation choice. Robinson (1991), another translator and teacher of translation, re-examines the theoretical validity of the term "equivalence," and sets out to broaden the definition of translation and move away from normative rules and prescribed choices. Bell (1991) seems to be affected by his definition of translation as "the most complex type of event yet produced in the evolution of the cosmos" into writing a very complex book. Worried about the way translation theorists and linguists ignore each others' work, he uses insights from psycholinguistics and human information processing to establish a

model of how we construct and interpret texts. In this way we obtain a set of descriptive rules which help us understand the process, not evaluate the product.

Clearly, translation studies have not escaped the fashionable "-isms" nor the desire to coin new terminology. But these recent publications, with their mix of theory—with the inevitable models and diagrams—and practice—with plentiful references to actual texts and specific translation problems—give credence to the way that translation is becoming both a discipline and a profession.

Professor Newmark is in his 75th year. He is a professional translator and teacher of translation who has published extensively in all areas of translation practice and translation studies. His second book, A Textbook of Translation (1988), expanded and developed the ideas of the earlier Approaches to Translation (1981), so now, About Translation (1991), a selection of papers he has published over the past 23 years, allows the reader to see what he has to say on a wide variety of topics. Approaches, like the books mentioned above, makes it clear that translation theory is pointless and sterile if it does not arise from the problems of translation practice. Newmark is in a good position to analyze the current perspective, as well as new elements, such as the emphasis on readership and the increase in the variety of text formats. Here he also gives us the introduction that About Translation sorely lacks, and in it we learn that he is "somewhat of a literalist" and that he prefers not to see himself as a scholar. His writing is refreshingly straightforward and the book clearly would serve other teachers beside himself as a syllabus for a translation course. The basic message in Approaches, as in A Textbook of Translation, is that translation is a problem-solving activity and you have to know what choices are available.

About Translation, because of its very nature, is not so well organized nor so coherent; the breadth of interest is still there, and Newmark's main contentions (for instance, the distinction between semantic and communicative methods of translation, the importance of the training of translators, and so on) are re-examined, but we do not know enough about the setting and the readership of these 13 papers to make complete sense of them. He starts with a stirring assertion: "Translation is concerned with moral and factual truth. This truth can be effectively rendered only if it is grasped by the reader, and that is the purpose and end of translation" (p.1). The papers are presented as chapters, and a closer look at two of them will perhaps show up the strengths and weaknesses of this collection.

Chapter 3 is entitled "Translation Today: The Wider Aspects of Translation" and is a survey article written in 1988. It treats familiar themes in short disconnected sections, yet still manages to impress us with the author's intellectual sincerity as he expounds his ideas on the purposes of translation: political, technological, cultural, literary, and pedagogical. There are two very down-to-earth sections, on translation as a profession, and on translation and language teaching, then a very brief look at machine translation, and finally a wide-ranging section on recent literature in which he gently pulls to pieces four books published between 1984 and 1985 whose focus is, in the main, free translation. He reserves his unstinting praise for Bettleheim's (1983) more literalist approach in *Freud and Man's Soul*, a book that he sees as initiating the important discipline of translation criticism: "He [Bettleheim] goes beyond neutrality when he insists on the translator's respect for the original, on values beyond culturally and socially-bound translation norms, on a respect for the 'literal truth'" (p.59).

Chapter 5 was a contribution for a Festschrift for Michael Halliday and is entitled "The Use of Systemic Linguistics in Translation." Here, while openly admitting that he is being discursive, Newmark once again gives us a mixture of down-to-earth observations, such as "Examining connectives is an essential part of revision" (p.69), and reiterations of his personal credo: "their [translators'] function is to enlighten, their loyalty is to material, visible truth as well as moral truth of the ever expanding human rights documents" (p.74).

Other interesting papers are the four closely based on actual translations. There are chapters on teaching and translation, and teaching about translation, and the reasons for the growing international importance of translation. Finally, Newmark insists on the distinction between cultural and universal aspects of language, and sees translation as a critical and sometimes cruelly truthful weapon in exposing language and culture and literature.

What comes across most strikingly is Newmark's knowledge of the linguistic systems of English, French, German, and Italian, and his ability to take a new look and find new expressions for ideas he has already developed. Unfortunately, he is not well served by the Multilingual Matters series, nor by the editor. (A review in the last issue of *JALT Journal* of another book in the series made the same point.) There is the briefest of introductions by the author, and not all the papers are attributed or even dated. This is ironic in a book by a man who wants to emphasize the importance of the readership and the setting of a piece of writing. Compared to Newmark's earlier books, *About*

Translation is slightly disappointing anyway, maybe because the short sections make the writing lack cohesion and elegance. However, it is still intelligent, sincere, and thought provoking.

What all Newmark's books do effectively is to insist on the importance of translation/translating as a profession and on the need to give translators confidence by according them a higher status. As he points out, the quantity and importance of non-literary texts has grown enormously, thus creating a need for more translations, and as more translators pass through universities and polytechnics, the impact of linguistics, sociolinguistics, and translation on their training will become apparent.

In the Japanese English language teaching context this renewed respectability conferred on translation comes just as schools and universities are adopting a more communicative approach. Grammar too, in the form of consciousness-raising activities, is being accorded an important place in the west, where the communicative approach is now seen as less than satisfactory. Reading Newmark's books—and perhaps A Textbook of Translation would be a better place to start than About Translation—provides a stimulating way to rethink the connections between two languages.

Reviewed by Katie Gray, St Catherine's College (University of Oxford) and Kobe Institute

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REVIEW OF ELT: LANGUAGE TESTING IN THE 1990s. (Eds.) J. Charles Alderson and Brian North. Macmillan Publishers, 1991. 256 pp. £12.

Language Testing in the 1990s is a collection of papers presented in 1989 at the IATEFL Language Testing Symposium entitled Language Testing in the 1990s: The Communicative Legacy. The intended audience would not be the classroom teacher trying to produce tests for students, but rather people in charge of producing testing instruments for use on a wider scale. Some of the papers present work done for commercial language schools, while others present work done for entire countries. The reader should be somewhat conversant with testing concepts since the authors discuss controversies in the field with little hand-holding. Technical (i.e., statistical) exposition is quite minimal. Those who are trying to develop tests that provide the basis for sound judgments about students' abilities will find much in this book to aid them in their endeavors.

Overview

The book is comprised of two parts: theory and practice. The authors in the first part, all recognized experts in the British language teaching world, discuss the theoretical issues that testers are presently grappling with as they develop better tests. The authors in the second part explain the ways in which they have actually applied theory to real, and in many cases less than ideal, conditions in order to construct useable tests.

Part 1

The theoretical issues brought out in this part can be divided into two areas: (a) defining language ability and (b) measuring that ability. Before one can do any measuring one first has to have an idea about what one is measuring. For these authors, language ability has come to mean communicative ability. However, when operationalizing this concept, a problem arises: The tester has to decide if communicative ability means "assessing the linguistic behavior of the student in an imitation of a real life setting, or assessing the skills which are considered essential for this kind of behavior" (p. 97). Some of the authors in this collection opt for making behavior the basis of their tests, while others opt for making enabling skills the basis. Both views can be supported by evidence.

The second set of theoretical issues revolves around considerations of a test as a measuring instrument. An outcome of characterizing a test as a measuring

instrument is that it "must possess the basic characteristics of measurement—and . . . it must be *shown* to possess them" (p. 29). Therefore, the tester must examine tests from the perspective of validity and reliability. It is here that the expositions become somewhat technical.

Let's look closer at the first set of issues. Communicative ability is a concept that has been evolving over recent years. Several of the authors in this collection view positively the emergence of the framework proposed by Bachman (1990). What makes this framework more attractive than the widely used framework developed by Canale (Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980), is its more comprehensive nature as well as its empirical basis. The framework is comprised of three parts: trait factors (competences), skill factors, and method factors. Trait factors include what was referred to as enabling skills above, while skill factors pertain to actual behavior. Method factors make explicit what is usually left implicit. That is, test scores about ability usually leave unstated the manner that those scores were arrived at. Therefore, this last factor includes such considerations as the language use situation, the amount of context, the distribution of information, the type of information from a test, and the response mode of the test (oral, written, etc.).

While the authors discuss a number of thorny measuring issues, let us look at one. Don Porter's paper, "Affective Factors in Language Testing," provides one very good example of difficulties encountered in measuring communicative ability. He points out that affect represents one area of instability in measuring. The instability arises when students fail to perform up to their true ability on the test. Such a failure might be due to illness, to a family dispute, or merely to an "off" day. Testing experts have been pointing out these trouble spots for years. However, Porter also cites one unexpected source of instability in interview-style testing: the gender of the person conducting the interview. His colleague, Christine Locker, showed that men rate performance during interviews statistically significantly higher than women do. He himself subsequently carried out experiments which produced the same results.

Brendan Carroll carries the matter further in his paper, "Response to Don Porter's Paper: 'Affective factors in language testing." He conducted experiments similar to Porter and Locker, but varied the form in which the test takers' performance was presented to raters. One group of raters received interviews recorded on video tape, another received interviews recorded on audio tape, and yet another received essays written by the test subjects. Carroll found the same results as Porter only for the video format. The other two produced no significant differences among the groups of test takers.

Finally, some papers try to tie up the two sets of issues. Alastair Pollitt in his contribution, "Giving Students a Sporting Chance: Assessment by Counting and by Judging," looks at measurement in sporting events and asks if there is not something for language testers to learn. Measurement in some sports involves nothing more than adding up something. The prototypical counting sport would be the high jump. As long as the athlete gets over the bar, it makes no difference how he or she does it; form counts for naught. In contrast, measurement in some sports seems to involve judging something. The prototypical judging sport would be figure skating: form is everything. Not that judges do not themselves have highly developed judging skills. They need training just as much as athletes so that they will "not be too easily impressed by mere 'communicative' skating' (p.55).

The analogy does break down when one thinks that in sports the measurement must above all else appear fair; it matters little whether it measures anything of consequence. In education, however, one usually takes care so as to measure something important. Otherwise, the tests will be no more related to actual ability in language use than chess is related to ability in warfare.

Part 2

Just how one sets about putting the theory of Part 1 into practice is the subject matter of Part 2. The second paper in this section is perhaps the most useful for Japan. It details the testing program that was developed for Eurocentre Bournemouth in England.

The purpose in developing a new testing program was the need to relate grades granted at graduation with the entry tests as well as the progress tests given at the end of each unit. They needed to have an "anchor" which would form the basis of interconnecting all these tests. Assuming that more than one testing procedure would be desirable, they developed a tool using both oral interaction and a battery of C-tests. A C-test is a modified cloze test in which not words but letters are deleted (for details, see Klein-Braley, 1985). By using the two types of approaches to testing, the test developers hoped to capture both ends of such continua as objective (C-test)—subjective (oral interaction); indirect (C-test)—direct (oral interaction); knowledge (C-test)—performance (oral interaction); written (C-test)—spoken (oral interaction); and passive (C-test)—active (oral interaction). The project seems to have produced a tool which allows the school to compare various tests of student progress.

Other papers in this part present work done in Australia, Israel, Zambia, Benin, and Sri Lanka. In addition, the final two papers present work with

testing using computers. Computers hold promise for various reasons. One significant one is that they can give test makers feedback on the process of test taking. Examining the process of test taking would allow judgments based not on product, but on process.

Conclusion

Developing a large-scale testing program presents many problems. Many teachers tend to underplay the difficulties involved. I find refreshing Pollitt's disparaging comments about judges who are impressed by "communicative" skating. Language Testing in the 1990s shows how to balance theoretical issues of a concept of communicative ability with measuring difficulties. It illustrates how to solve many of the problems encountered, but also illustrates that compromise is unavoidable.

Reviewed by Scott Petersen, Nagoya Meitoku Junior College References

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INTERNATIONAL MEDICAL COMMUNICATION IN ENG-LISH. John C. Maher. Edinburgh University Press, 1990. 200 pp.

International Medical Communication in English is not a formal textbook for classroom teaching, but rather a reference book and a "do-it-yourself" guide to the subject, and is aimed at students and professionals in the medical world whose first language is not English. The book covers the broad spectrum of English usage that is encountered in the medical world: the language needed to participate in medical meetings, how to write research papers and professional letters, conversational English likely to be used in doctor-patient relationships, medical terminology, and so forth. There is also a list of useful addresses for professional organizations and examination administration bodies.

In the sections dealing with conferences, the numerous signals that can be employed to indicate different stages of a presentation are outlined: opening remarks, moving to a new point, elaboration, and so on. Each list is detailed enough to permit the use of a variety of strategies within a presentation, but not so long as to create confusion. Besides the actual presentations, a number of language strategies for conference and seminar discussion are also outlined. In addition, there is a useful section on the type of English that is used in the social situations that occur at meetings and conferences, both formal and informal, and for meetings with both acquaintances and strangers. Researchers are usually aware of the need to be able to competently handle the specialized English required for professional discussions, but often overlook the language needed for socializing. As it could be argued that what happens during informal get-togethers is almost as important as the scientific sessions themselves, this is an extremely important oversight that may not be apparent to the researcher until he or she is placed in such a situation. It is typical of the thoroughness with which this book has been prepared that such matters have received due consideration.

International Medical Communication comprehensively covers the English required for writing medical papers. The various stages of a paper (e.g., introduction, method, results, discussion, and abstract) are discussed and a wide range of examples of language use are provided in the form of expressions and simple sentences that could serve as valuable models. The choosing of titles and labeling of diagrams is included. The book also describes the various language functions and notions employed in medical writing (e.g., cause and result, possibility, comparison, generalization, etc.). As one who has had to correct the same types of errors over and over again when proofreading and

editing medical papers by non-native speakers, I can vouch for the usefulness of this information.

A further section presents numerous clear, easy-to-understand samples of letters that medical professionals may be required to write: applications, subscriptions to journals, referrals, acknowledgments, and even Christmas cards. Last but not least, there is an outline of how a curriculum vitae and letters of introduction should be written. Such writing is often overlooked despite the importance of the consequences for the person involved. It is particularly beneficial for professionals whose approach to such documents is quite different in their native tongue (Japanese being a good example). As well as written communications, telephone conversations are also covered.

How to avoid sexism in medical writing is also dealt with in this book. Professional journals are increasingly becoming sensitive to this issue, and even native speakers are not always sure of how to respond when confronted with this issue. It follows that non-native speakers can soon become perplexed, especially as the topic is generally ignored in most textbooks.

With regard to clinical practice, there is a listing of the expressions likely to be needed during consultations with patients. Sample conversations are also presented. An extremely valuable section deals with colloquial language that patients may well use. Many medical professionals are often competent in the technical terms and jargon related to their own specialty, but frequently fail to comprehend that the average layman may not understand a word of it, even when that layman is a native speaker of English. In addition, a lot of expressions (such as, "My ears are bunged up.") are not commonly included in standard English language textbooks, and thus non-native speakers of English are unlikely to have exposure to such language. Foreign doctors wishing to do clinical practice in the United States are required to pass examinations in both medical and English usage. Often the Japanese (and this would most probably apply to other nationalities as well) are able to pass the medical section of this examination but fail on the English language test, due in no small part to inexperience with the type of idiomatic language covered in this book. The expressions presented are divided into various categories according to the part of the body concerned, thus making them easy to locate.

There is a listing of the word parts, such as prefixes, suffixes, etc., that are the building blocks of medical terminology. If any criticism is to be made of this book, it is that the list is not sufficiently extensive. However, the question

of which terms should be omitted is a difficult one to answer. Certainly the most important ones are included here, and the interested person would easily be able to find exhaustive lists elsewhere. In order to aid self-study, a long checklist of vocabulary is included.

Besides technical terms, there is also an extensive list of widely used abbreviations, together with a warning of how usage may vary between countries, or even within one country, as well as how usage can frequently change. As if to illustrate how quickly this can happen, Maher gives the abbreviation for computed axial tomography as "CAT," whereas the term "CT scan" is perhaps now most common. But again, this is almost criticism for the sake of criticism.

The book concludes by providing a list of addresses of the professional organizations in Europe and English-speaking countries, as well as addresses of interest to those wishing to take examinations in medical or general English.

To summarize, International Medical Communication in English is a reference manual par excellence. It contains the whole spectrum of language and language use that would be of value to the medical professional whose first language is not English. The material is presented concisely and in a format that is easy to use. Even its size is compact enough to allow people to easily carry it to conferences, hospitals, and so on. Many medical schools give a list of required books to their students: This book deserves immediate inclusion on all such lists, and indeed its purchase should be made mandatory for any non-native speaker who wishes to use English in a medical situation.

Reviewed by Brian Harrison, Chuo University

THE TAPESTRY OF LANGUAGE LEARNING: THE INDI-VIDUAL IN THE COMMUNICATIVE CLASSROOM. Robin C. Scarcella and Rebecca L. Oxford. Boston: Heinle & Heinle, 1992. 229 pp.

In *The Tapestry of Language Learning*, Scarcella and Oxford bring together the best of recent theory and practice in teaching English as a second language. It will be especially useful for those teaching intermediate and higher level classes, though the usefulness of the approach at lower levels is also apparent. The book is firmly based in current practices of ESL teaching and lays a groundwork for the creation of a coherent set of communicative materials. Using the metaphor of tapestry weaving, the authors stress the ways the learner creates and controls inputs, including those from the teacher, from text materials, and from outside the class.

The tapestry Scarcella and Oxford would have learners create is based, first, on individual learner differences. Their approach emphasizes the variety of backgrounds, learning styles, and strategies each learner brings to the classroom. In the classroom, the *Tapestry* approach emphasizes the ways skills relate with each other to create a totality in actual communication. The approach is task-based, to allow learning around realistic tasks, and themebased, to encourage relevant and natural use of language.

The book has three parts. Part One outlines the principles for developing materials and testing in the *Tapestry* approach. The authors emphasize the ways teachers and learners share responsibility in the classroom, and shape each others' expectations, goals, and achievements.

Part Two describes learners and their language development. Chapter Two notes the socio-economic characteristics (gender, age, ethnicity, class, etc.) of learners that can affect language learning and that teachers must adapt themselves to. Chapter Three adapts Vygotsky's notion of language assistance to analyze effective teacher input, student output, and their classroom interaction. Chapter Four focuses on the characteristics of individual learners—the ways their styles, strategies, and motivations shape a responsive communicative classroom. Chapter Five rounds out this theoretical part of the book as the authors define communicative competence in terms of its parts (grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic) and the individual learner. This part of the book is extremely rich in definitions, categories, descriptive lists, and reviews of related literature. As such, it nicely summarizes current thinking

on the issues addressed and outlines a *Tapestry* approach to communicative competence and the individual learner. However, its very richness and journalistic chopping of arguments into sound-bite sized paragraphs make it hard to see some of the connections it posits.

Part Three deals with the separate language skills and suggests a way to integrate teaching them. Chapter Six outlines the rationale for the need to integrate skills, and for the integration to be unequal and dependent on the nature of the content and tasks at hand. Chapter Seven, on reading, emphasizes the importance of meaning, extensive reading, and strategy development. In Chapter Eight the authors stress the importance of a process approach to writing. Chapter Nine addresses listening and communicative competence. Chapter Ten outlines the connection between speaking proficiency and communicative competence, lists factors affecting the development of speaking abilities, and offers some activities designed to develop speaking skills. With the four skills addressed, Scarcella and Oxford focus in Chapter 11 on specific forms of grammar instruction appropriate to a communicative classroom. This, they suggest in the Epilogue, could be a model for thinking about materials for vocabulary, pronunciation, and other specific aspects of language acquisition. The final chapter, Chapter 12, focuses on culture and the ways culture influences language learning and cross-cultural experiences.

This is a lot of material to cover in a short space and Scarcella and Oxford do it well. In each chapter they lay out goals, mark sections and subsections, and clearly set out principles for the development of communicative materials in the *Tapestry* approach. They head each chapter with preview questions and close them with activities and discussion questions. Each chapter has a short annotated list of suggested readings—all of them current, all of them pertinent to the issues at hand. The book provides a solid groundwork for a promising set of materials.

My cavil with the book is that, in fact, I want more than a background of promise. I would also like some of the ethnographic description, some of the grounding to this background that the preface suggests they have. This would give more depth to the discussion and, to return to the dominant tapestry metaphor, would add richness, vibrancy, and texture to the patterns they lay out. This may only reveal my own limitations and training in anthropology—a discipline based in the thick description of ethnography, but I feel a good book would be better with its inclusion.

Or perhaps, just different. For as it stands, *The Tapestry of Language Learning* does what it sets out to do: It provides a background for the development of an individual-oriented, task and content-based communicative classroom. Anyone interested in the issues involved in this—theoretical or practical—will profit by reading this book.

Reviewed by Thomas Hardy, Tamagawa University

INTERCHANGE 1-3. Jack Richards with Jonathan Hull and Susan Proctor. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1990-91. Student's Book 1-3, pp. xi-134. ¥1,880. Teacher's Manual 1-3, (1) viii-189 pp., (2) viii-200 pp., (3) viii-200 pp., ¥2,850.

Interchange 1-3 is a 3-level course, each text intended to cover between 60 to 90 hours of classroom instruction for young adult and adult ESL/EFL learners. The course covers all four language skills, with particular emphasis placed on listening and speaking.

Aims and Objectives

The aim of the course, according to the authors, is to teach communicative competence, that is, the ability to communicate in English according to the situation, purpose, and roles of the learners. The course content reflects the fact that English is not limited to any one country, region, or culture. This, I think, is particularly valid at this time when English is the major means of international communication, and more conversations in English take place between non-native speakers than between native ones. The objectives are not defined in behavioral terms, but it is clear that every element is geared toward the stated aim.

Syllabus

The syllabus can best be described as hybrid, integrated, and multi-skilled. It is a hybrid in the sense that it is a mixture of Type A and Type B syllabuses (see White, 1988). Controlled, accuracy-based activities (Type A) lead to fluency-based, communicative practice (Type B). It is integrated in that the separate strands or components of these two syllabus types are interwoven, so that they constitute a single, coherent syllabus. It is multi-skilled in that it attempts to draw together different ways of specifying learning content. The organizing principle of the syllabus is grammatical, and woven around this grammatical core are various structures, functions, topics, and skills.

The grammar is graded and presented cyclically in such a way that Book 1 covers basics, Book 2 reviews these basics and then presents more complex structures, and Book 3 builds on and extends the foundations for accurate and fluent communication established in the previous two levels. Grading seems to be based on grammatical complexity, which is not quite as straightforward a measurement as it might seem.

Functions (e.g., asking for and giving directions, complaining and apologizing, and describing problems) are linked to the grammar points and topics,

and each unit presents several key functions.

Topics, which can serve as a basis for interesting activities of cross-cultural comparison, are not only adult and contemporary, but also stimulating and enjoyable. Nevertheless, some of the show biz tidbits presented (e.g., Cyndi Lauper, Madonna, *Star Wars*, and *ET*), while very contemporary, may risk soon becoming dated.

Language Skills

Interchange provides various components to enhance the four language skills (i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing) with pronunciation and vocabulary practice being integral parts of oral and written proficiency.

In terms of listening, both top-down and bottom-up processing skills are presented. Top-down processing requires students to use their background knowledge, the situation, and the context to attain comprehension through using key words and predicting. Bottom-up processing requires them to enact a decoding process, deciphering individual words in the message to derive meaning. Tasks such as listening for gist, listening for details, and inferring meaning from context are included. Exercises seem to be based on real-world sources with minimal adaptation (see Porter & Roberts, 1981). They usually contain a task that helps learners identify the purpose for listening, something which is often lacking in ordinary listening exercises (Ur, 1984). Pre-listening activities are provided in the form of questions about the topic, making predictions, and through making use of visual aids. One criticism, however, is that although the listening materials contain a high degree of authenticity, ingenuity, and some very good listening texts, the sound quality of the tapes could be better.

The focal point of the course, however, is speaking, and an extensive array of pair work exercises, small group activities, role plays, and information-gap activities are provided. Many of these activities seem well-suited to learners of diverse cultural backgrounds, and will certainly stimulate a great deal of learner-generated communication. One drawback I might point out, however, is that many of the **conversation** activities, which aim at introducing new grammar points and key functions in situational contexts, are actually deadend. They do not provide learners with a real information exchange situation and thus do not inspire much interaction.

The readings provided, which demonstrate a variety of text types, can be treated either as a source of information or as materials for practicing the

development of such reading skills as guessing words from context, reading for main ideas, skimming, scanning, and making inferences. One problem with the readings is that many of them require too much time for the readers to digest, partly because some of them contain too much information, and partly because some of them are so culturally-oriented that they inevitably require detailed explanations from the teacher (e.g., "Touchy topics," "The dating game," "Tip or not to tip," "Unusual customs," and "Culture shock"). Discretion and a balanced knowledge of different cultures is called for by teachers here.

Writing activities, which are often presented as a basis for other activities, such as information-gap exercises, small group work, and discussions, focus on different forms of writing (e.g., recipes, directions, letters, and reviews). The process approach is recommended by the authors and detailed notes on teaching suggestions are provided in the Teacher's Manual.

Pronunciation exercises focus mainly on suprasegmental features, including stress, rhythm, intonation, reduction, linking sounds, and sound contrasts.

Vocabulary (Word Power) is presented in two ways: productive vocabulary is introduced either through a variety of exercises, or in the speaking and grammar activities; receptive vocabulary is presented in the reading and writing exercises. What is interesting and probably of great use here, is that the authors try to help learners build semantic networks by providing words in semantically related sets or categories.

Special Features

There are two main features in which *Interchange* differs markedly from other structuralist course books. First, although grammatical accuracy is treated as an integral part of proficiency (i.e., communicative competence), it is used as a means to an end, rather than an end in itself. Most exercises are constructed in such a manner that they provide an opportunity for meaningful communication. The second feature of interest is the task continuity achieved in each sequence of components. Each component in this course is linked, in that one exercise serves as the basis or preparation for the next. Although a high degree of task continuity might pose some difficulty in a class where there are a lot of late-comers (as in company classes), these interlinked sets of activities, where succeeding steps are dependent on preceding content and skills, will ensure coherence and consistency for an ordinary classroom program.

Conclusion

Personally, I have some reservations as to the validity of an integrated syllabus. While the purpose of a task-based syllabus (Type B) is to promote meaningful communication, learners will not always succeed if their attention is focused on the formal features of the language. Perhaps it would be better to have parallel syllabuses and keep Type A and Type B work separate, rather that integrating and interweaving them. The underlying assumption of an integrated syllabus is that the synthesis or integration is done by the teacher or institution. I wonder if any real integration that takes place does not have to be done by the learner. Nonetheless, I feel that the authors' ambitious attempt to integrate so many different elements in drawing up this elaborate syllabus is commendable, despite some inevitable artificiality. Whether on not teachers decide to use *Interchange 1-3* as course books, they should certainly have them on their shelves as a rich set of resource materials that they can turn to in times of need.

Reviewed by Hiroto Nagata, Overseas Training Center at National Panasonic

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GENRE ANALYSIS: ENGLISH IN ACADEMIC AND RE-SEARCH SETTINGS. John M. Swales. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1990. 260 pp.

John M. Swales, along with other researchers such as Ann Johns, Charles Bazerman, and the late Daniel Horowitz, has been publishing in the areas of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) for well over a decade. This impressive volume, which should be considered a significant contribution to both the practical pedagogy of ESP/EAP instruction as well as to the field of applied linguistics (especially discourse analysis and sociolinguistics), continues Swales' previous research work.

Swales begins by introducing the aims and purposes of his book. Since ESP/EAP instruction has been marginalized within most institutional settings—often regarded as mere "remedial" work—he seeks to establish its significance for the major international endeavor and important national policy planning issue that it clearly represents. Given that applied linguistics research in the field of ESP/EAP has become more complex in recent decades, Swales also seeks to explore further the specific determinants—the communicative character—of academic discourse. Such research trends brought ESP/EAP studies in closer contact with current work in the area of L1 composition instruction which itself has come to emphasize the social nature of academic writing. To achieve his aims, Swales adopts a genre-based approach. Genre analysis is to be defined here not only in terms of explicit textual analyses but also in terms of the broader areas of applied sociolinguistics, psychology, and ethnography.

Swales' approach makes use of three central concepts: discourse community, genre itself, and language-learning task. The first of these indicates that all written language operates within social groups, academic or otherwise. The discourse community is socio-rhetorical, that is, group members join together to pursue common goals and the functional pursuit of these goals determines its sense of solidarity and maintains its discoursal characteristics. Swales gives the SIG or Specific Interest Group as an example of an archetypal socio-rhetorical discourse community. He distinguishes this from the common sociolinguistic notion of a speech community in which language behavior is determined by social, rather than functional, factors. Speakers of Black English, for example, would define a distinct speech community.

A typical discourse community has a number of identifying characteristics: (a) an agreed-upon set of common goals (e.g., study and furtherance of the teaching of English to speakers of other languages); (b) mechanisms of intercommunication among members (e.g., newsletters and regional/national conventions); (c) participatory mechanisms to provide information and feedback (e.g., book reviews or journals with reader forums); (d) one or more genres in the communicative furtherance of its aims (e.g., the "review and research" article or the "experimental study" article); (e) some specific lexis (e.g., abbreviations, such as JALT, TESOL, EAP, or L1/L2); (f) a threshold level of members who possess a suitable degree of expertise with regard to both the content and the discourse conventions of the group (e.g., a reasonable ratio between novices and experts or graduate students and professors).

For those trained in literary studies, genre means the three forms of the drama, the lyric, and the epic. However, Swales approaches it in its broadest sense: any discourse type, spoken or written, which has certain distinctive linguistic features. He first examines the meaning of the term in several disciplines—folklore studies, literary studies, linguistics, and rhetoric—and then proposes a working definition suitable to his purposes. Genre comprises: (a) a specific class of communicative events (both linguistic and paralinguistic); (b) a shared set of communicative purposes (e.g., the MLA Job List advertises available employment positions); (c) variation in prototypicality among individual instances of genre (e.g., academic lectures may vary in terms of format of presentation and arrangement of details but share a [Wittgensteinian] "family resemblance" that would define a prototypical "lecture"); (d) a rationale which establishes constraints on contributions in terms of content. positioning, and form (commonly acknowledged purposes define a rationale which in turn gives rise to restraining conventions); (e) a nomenclature which provides insight into the purposes and functioning of the particular discourse community (terms such as "lecture," "book review," or "tutorial" are preemptive; that is, they generate expectations of the kinds of purposes to be achieved and the activities which will take place). Genres have universal features that identify them as such but there are also language and culturespecific differences: genres of English expository prose sometimes differ markedly from those of Arabic, Asian, or the Romance languages.

Swales' third concept, language-learning task, brings his discussion closer to the realm of pedagogical practice. Just as discourse communities have communicative goals and genres have communicative purposes, a task-driven

ESP/EAP methodology has communicative outcomes; that is, it emphasizes rhetorical action and communicative effectiveness. Language-learning tasks are goal-directed activities which pose problems that are differentiated and can be sequenced so that learners can be led gradually to genre acquisition. Swales gives an example from an EAP course he taught on dissertation, proposal, and prospectus writing for non-native speakers (NNS). One task—one of a four part sequence—would be for students to draft letters requesting a copy of a research article from a professor, paying special attention to the use of would and could as previously presented in a model text. Also relevant to successful genre acquisition is the issue of schemata or prior experience with both the content and formal-rhetorical characteristics of typical academic text types. Individual tasks designated to facilitate schema-building among students need to be included in the curriculum.

Swales devotes the third part of his book to the most fundamental and today most common—especially in the international context—academic genre: the English language research article (RA) in the physical sciences, math, and medicine. Using a case study, he discusses the rhetorical constructing of a typical "hard science" RA: the long process of drafts and revisions from initial lab notes to the final published paper. In most situations, genre-specific conventions constrain and shape to a great degree the account of what actually occurred in the laboratory. Swales also notes that popularized versions of scientific research (e.g., Scientific American or Omni) are quite different from the original RAs from which they were adapted; hence the pedagogic use of such material is not especially helpful in teaching actual academic genre conventions to future NNS researchers. A number of researchers in applied linguistics have studied the various textual features as well as the conceptual macrostructure of the RA. The latter typically follows the IMRD (Introduction-Methods-Results-Discussion) model or some variant thereof. Swales devotes extensive discussion to each of these individual RA sections. In the so-called "exact or hard sciences," conventions have become well-established and specific genres highly articulated. Within the humanities, differences among particular genres (articles, books, reviews) tend to be less pronounced.

There are a number of other genres fundamentally related to the RA: theses/dissertations, books/monographs, abstracts, reprint requests, grant proposals, and oral presentations at professional conferences. Swales presents observations on several of these, most of which have been little researched by discourse analysts. Since the majority of RAs are prefaced by a brief summary (usually one paragraph) of the article itself, the genre of the abstract is

obviously one of distillation and is characterized by use of abbreviations, incomplete sentences, and active verbs. Oral presentations in the physical sciences are often marked by high use of the narrative past as well as considerable stylistic shifts (formally written introductions/summaries and informal commentary/anecdotes when slides or overheads are used). The thesis/dissertation tends to make greater use of metadiscoursal features—writing about the text rather than the subject of the text—which guide the reader through the arguments of the thesis. Another RA related genre is the reprint request. This is a simple (and in the sciences, highly institutionalized) format often produced in the form of a pre-printed card and sometimes written in several languages.

The last part of Swales' book is devoted to the practical pedagogical applications of the preceding discussions. He first presents several case studies which illustrate the kinds of genre acquisition problems faced by NNS students. Then he discusses class activities that would serve to raise the rhetorical consciousness of the students. This becomes especially difficult when the class is composed of graduate students from several disciplines; Swales suggests, however, a number of tasks that, in part, circumvent this largely managerial difficulty.

This book appears in the highly respected Cambridge Applied Linguistics series and it certainly fulfilled this reader's expectations. The volume is to be recommended to anyone seriously involved in ESP/EAP instruction. In the area of applied linguistics, it presents a highly detailed and rigorously argued examination of the communicative character of the discourse conventions in a highly specific discourse community. It is an informative, stimulating, and fascinating book. The extended discussion of a prototypical "discourse community"—the Hong Kong Study Circle, a small international group devoted to the historical study of Hong Kong postage issues (of which Professor Swales is an actively participating member)—even makes rather entertaining reading.

Reviewed by Thomas F. Barry, Himeji Dokkyo University