Reviews

Review Essay: The Place of Literature in English Language Study

Literature and Language Teaching. Christopher J. Brumfit & Ronald A. Carter. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1986. xii + 289 pp.

Literature in the Language Classroom: A Resource Book of Ideas and Activities. Joanne Collie & Stephen Slater. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1987 (Cambridge Handbooks for Language Teachers series). 266 pp.

Teaching Literature. Ronald Carter & Michael N. Long. Harlow, England: Longman, 1991 (Longman Handbooks for Language Teachers series). viii + 200 pp.

Literature and Language Teaching: A Guide for Teachers and Trainers. Gillian Lazar. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press, 1993 (Cambridge Teacher Training and Development series). xiv + 267 pp.

Reviewed by
Charles B. Wordell
Nanzan University

The goal of language study in the Western tradition of education was, for centuries, the ability to understand and translate the literature of other cultures, initially the classics of Greece and Rome, and later the great works written in non-European and modern European languages. A shift occurred after World War II, however, initiated by the behaviorists who had developed intensive language programs during the war, and continued by adherents of the communicative school of language instruction. Presently, English for communication and for specific purposes are the two most common forms of instruction practiced by those trained in EFL techniques. Rivers (1981, rev. of 1968 1st ed.) states that, if the educational goal is instruction in culture, students are better advised to read works of literature in translation. The grammar-translation method falls short with ordinary students, she writes, because it neglects communication skills such as accurate pronunciation and intonation: "Average students have to work hard at what they consider laborious and monotonous chores...without much feeling of progress in the mastery of the language and with very little opportunity to express them-

selves through it" (p. 31). Blatchford's 1972 article expressed this theme succinctly in its title—"ESOL and Literature: A Negative View."

Simultaneously in Britain, a tradition developed which used linguistic analysis to deal with literature, based to a large extent on Leech (1969), *A Linguistic Guide to English Poetry.* This approach, termed stylistics, was broadened by Widdowson (1975) to encompass EFL instruction in *Stylistics and the Teaching of Literature.* American authors also contributed landmark works, such as Marckwardt's 1978 volume, *The Place of Literature in the Teaching of English as a Second or Foreign Language*; however there are few signs that American research has penetrated to British scholars, as is evidenced by an examination of the bibliographies of the four books under consideration in this review. (This may not be parochialism. During the past decade, only a handful of articles on literature instruction have appeared in *TESOL Quarterly.*)

Brumfit and Carter's (1986) *Literature and Language Teaching* fits distinctly into this tradition, and subsequent to its publication a large number of practical and theoretical books have appeared whose titles contain combinations of the key words "literature" and "language." It has a pivotal position and is cited and quoted in the three practical works under review; thus it is included here, although published eight years ago. The review will discuss those articles which bear most on the teacher handbooks.

Literature is a subspecies of EFL instruction, and in Brumfit and Carter's work it is a speculative one. Because many of the articles are theoretical, the book is instructive rather than satisfying. These are works in progress, prologues to teaching literature rather than prescriptions. As the editors point out in the preface, "[C]lassroom developments cannot proceed before key theoretical and practical issues are identified and debated" (ix). The editors do just that, dividing the book into four sections: introduction, theoretical issues, literature in the classroom, and the intensive/extensive reading debate.

The first of two introductory essays, English Literature and English Language, makes four theoretical points, establishing them as guidelines which most of the subsequent articles adhere to and which may be used to judge other writing in the field. Point one is that stylistic analysis should underlie both the creation of activities for the EFL literature classroom and the analytical tools given to students. The second is that "literary language" is not a distinct variety of English. The third point raised has to do with the nature of literary discourse. Ordinary discourse usually serves a practical function, refers to objects in the real world, is unambiguous, uses appropriate syntax, and does not

call attention to the text, which serves as background. The function of literary discourse, however, is delight. It refers to objects in the literary text itself, is often ambiguous, places no limits on syntax, and often calls attention to the way the text is constructed. When literary discourse is representational, it is so in the way a painting is—the object of literature gives writers opportunity to employ their art. The final theoretical point is that literature cannot be divorced from culture, so the "norms and expectations" of a culture have to be taught if they are to be used in making sense of literature.

The second half of the introduction discusses the place of literature in the language classroom. In a well-reasoned discussion, the editors advise that the literary syllabus have two stages: "The first stage will be concerned with enabling students to 'experience' literature; the second will enable them to describe, explain, or otherwise 'account for' the experience" (p. 31). The main implications are that students must be trained in reading, and teachers must select texts which will maximize opportunities for student response. The introduction concludes with the assertion that literature is literature: it should be taught for itself and not for the purpose of instruction in either language or culture.

Part One of the book, Literature and Language, begins with Michael N. Long's, A Feeling for Language, in which he gives a method of reading and discussing literature in class which employs intensive questioning as an "aid to response": "[T]he questions are not random, and are not formulated merely to practise structure...but to assist the reader towards a simple evaluation of the reason for a particular combination of words, and an appreciation of their special quality" (p. 45). Long, who collaborated with Carter to produce one of the practical books under review, gives a good model lesson plan which can easily be adapted to other fiction for in-class use. A schematic figure showing the relative responsibilities of student and teacher (p. 55) indicates that teacher preparation time will be quite long. Students go through a process which leads to a "creative response": first they answer questions in a "verbal response," then undertake a group "activity response," and finally experience an "individual response to the text" (p. 57).

The next article, Graham Trengrove's, What Is Robert Graves Playing at?, discusses registers—language varieties found, for example, in prayers, political speeches, corporate reports, and congratulatory statements. Poetry, he states, gives good examples, and knowledge of registers contributes to the reading of poetry. Continuing this theme of sensitivity to language, Walter Nash's, The Possibilities of Paraphrase, argues that paraphrases of proverbs and poems can: (a) explicate, (b)

demonstrate the achievement of literature, and (c) be used as a basis for the discussion of literature. Unfortunately, Nash does not make it clear whether he has tested these recommendations in the classroom.

On the other hand, Michael H. Short and Christopher Candlin's article, Teaching Study Skills for English Literature, does report actual practice. It describes a series of courses they gave for college teachers of EFL and EFL literature which focused on stylistic analysis, reading, and curriculum design. Short and Candlin are in theoretical agreement with the editors, and the article reflects, in miniature, the contents of the book. However, the analytical methods put forward are not necessarily guides for classroom practice. The authors state, for example, that stylistic analysis is an invaluable tool for teachers, "but this does not necessarily mean that such methods of analysis should be automatically passed on unfiltered (or even at all!) to the pupils" (p. 94).

Co-editor Ronald Carter's Linguistic Models, Language, and Literariness, continues the book's emphasis upon linguistics as a source of analytical tools for EFL students of literature. However, once theoretical allegiance is affirmed, Carter presents "language teaching strategies" for use with literature that are taken from standard language learning activities: prediction, cloze, summary, debating, interpretation, and rewriting. He gives evidence that many activities had been used successfully by students, yet the "linguistic model for narrative structure" which Carter next introduces—based on an analysis of Black English developed by the American sociolinguist Labov (1972)—seems far too technical for use with most students. The text Carter uses to illustrate his method does not fill several of the categories derived from Labov, reinforcing the feeling that he is speculating rather than advising.

Henry Widdowson, in The Untrodden Ways, presents an admirable method of teaching lyric poems. However, depending as it does on sophisticated knowledge on the part of the teacher, the method seems to be more suited to lecture presentation than preparing for Widdowson's avowed goal, "to set up conditions whereby students can infer their own [interpretations]" (p. 139).

Braj B. Kachru, a champion of the validity of non-native varieties of English, recommends the study of Non-native Literatures in English, warning that choice of texts will be governed by variety (e.g., Singaporean, Indian, or Nigerian English) and register (whether the English represents a specific caste, religion, or professional occupation). Extracts from literary works, on the other hand, may be very poor sources of instructional materials, as Guy Cook argues in Texts, Extracts, and Stylistic Texture.

The second part of the book, Literature in Education, is an attempt by the editors to "examine a number of key educational issues that arise when we attempt to teach literature in the schools" (p. 169). The first article in the section, Is Literature Language? or is Language Literature?, deals with native speakers studying literature in England at the secondary level. Authors S. J. Burke and C. J. Brumfit consider that the valuable aspects of literature are best communicated "by treating it as a completely separate subject area from English language" (p. 173). This short piece is puzzling because, apart from the fact that it does not treat EFL instruction, it does not make much of a case for literature in the language classroom. It is one of five pieces written or co-authored by Brumfit, none of them appearing for the first time here. Although this article (as well as the other Brumfit pieces) is relevant to the general drift of the book, fresh articles written specifically for the book would probably have been more effective and valuable.

William T. Littlewood's article, Literature in the Foreign-Language Course, unlike most of the writing in the book, is tightly focused and leaves the reader with a memorable message. He ranks "perspectives on literature" in order of increasing difficulty: language, style, plot, theme, and literary significance—perspectives which affect both the selection of texts and language teaching methodology.

Sandra McKay's, Literature in the ESL Classroom, offers further advice for instructors. She balances arguments against literature in ESL classes with its benefits. Once the decision to teach literature is made, McKay advises selecting books from literature for young adults or books whose themes readers can identify with. McKay divides reading skills into "efferent" (bearing away or reading for practical purposes) and "aesthetic" (reading for pleasure), noting that teaching techniques must reflect this division. In particular, she feels that language related activities should be undertaken only in so far as they contribute to the experience of aesthetic reading. For example, she emphasizes that factual questions about a literary passage are an imposition of efferent responsibilities upon a text designed for aesthetic appreciation. Similarly, drawing distinctions in tense use—an activity which is possible in a passage McKay has selected—is unwise because such a contrast was far from the intention of the author. However, exploring politeness levels in the passage is valid because the author used these distinctions to signal the backgrounds and motivations of the characters. Likewise, students may be encouraged to state their opinions about characters in a passage, or to put themselves into the story and state what they would do.

Testing Language with Students of Literature in ESL Situations, by J. P.

Boyle, is a rich source of ideas for making tests with integrative as well as discrete-point questions (17 are listed). However, some exercises seem only tenuously related to literature (e.g., showing a picture of the Mona Lisa and asking students to describe the face), while others seem terribly difficult (e.g., under listening tests Boyle cites a 10-line poem by Yeats and suggests that students be asked to explain a key metaphor). The most telling shortcoming of the article is that there is no clear evidence that Boyle has used any of the recommended exercises—all are described using *can* or *would* verb forms, and no comments on results are given.

The final section of the book, Fluent Reading Versus Accurate Reading, is perhaps the least successful. The first three articles, all reprints, discuss two strategies for testing literature in East Africa—one by focusing on a few important works, the other by encouraging students to read widely from lists of books with common themes.

The next chapter, a reprint of Brumfit's 1979 article, "Wider Reading for Better Reading," does fit the topic of "fluent reading" better than the earlier chapters. However, the program described was created for British secondary school students, and is suggestive rather than definitive so far as EFL students are concerned. Like this reprint, the book's final article, G. D. Pickett's, Reading Speed and Literature Teaching, is based on teaching literature in a British secondary school context. However, the author deliberately relates his findings to EFL instruction, a tactic which would have improved the previous article. Pickett cites research that shows most readers read slowly, and subsequently advises "that we teach literature on the basis of a few texts analysed in detail" (p. 264). The relatively few fast readers might be allowed to make use of a more extensive syllabus, and thus readers would be divided into two streams.

As a whole, *Literature and Language Teaching*, is suggestive rather than instructive. Its authors raise questions and advise teachers and researchers on how to go about their jobs, but they do not give us results which we can use to shape or alter our literature classrooms. Thus this book is more valuable to those who wish to experiment with EFL literature instruction—or to follow the history of the field—than it is to teachers seeking methods.

Literature in the Language Classroom, by Joanne Collie and Stephen Slater (1987), is a collection of activities which enable a teacher to use English-language literature as a basis for teaching EFL. A practical book, it is aimed at secondary school EFL teachers or those teaching non-specialist groups of adults. As the authors put it, they intend to "let the student derive the benefits of communicative and other activities for

language improvement within the context of suitable works of literature" (p. 10). In other words, literature is the excuse, not the object. The tremendous wealth of activities argues strongly that the authors have succeeded in their purpose. Refreshingly, all the recommended exercises have been tried and proven by the authors, a fact which gives a great deal of authority to their writing.

The bibliography gives evidence that the authors are aware of the tradition. However, this is one of the first practical handbooks to develop within that tradition, rather than a continuation or refinement of theoretical issues. Stylistics, for example, is not even mentioned in the index.

The book has three main sections: a defense of using literature in the language classroom (13 pages); a descriptive guide to using literature in the classroom (57 pages); and specific activities for specific works of literature (154 pages). The authors defend the use of literature on the grounds that it supplies valuable authentic material which enriches students' knowledge of culture and language and which appeals to students because they become personally involved with texts—they enter the world of the book. The authors advise care in selecting materials, keeping the abilities and interests of students in mind when choices are made. They feel that teacher-centered instruction, depending on background information, line-by-line explication, and use of the metalanguage of criticism is inappropriate for students at this level. Instead, activities should be student centered, and instruction should incorporate a wide variety of approaches including role play, improvisation, creative writing, discussions, questionnaires, and visual representations of materials read. Students, they feel, should explore their own responses to literature, use the target language as much as possible, and concentrate on learning language rather than literature. Four pages at the end of the first section address problems commonly encountered by teachers new to this approach. While short texts (stories and poems) are ideal for one-class presentation, the authors stress that novels and plays can be taught easily if teachers concentrate on key excerpts during class time.

The second section of the book, Practical Activities in Outline, attempts to give guidelines for introducing works, maintaining interest and continuity as a long text is presented, exploiting highlights, and ending study of particular texts with exercises that will fix elements of the work in students' memories. There are literally dozens of clearly described activities, most of which can be easily adapted to other works. As I read the book I marked interesting activities and made comments about how I might use them—a procedure I recommend to anyone reading practical textbooks. One appealing activity for introducing a

work, Choose the Prediction, has students read the first section of a text and then choose one of four possible developments for the story (to be prepared by the teacher). Another activity, Star Diagrams, would be good for alerting students to the setting and mood of a work. In it, students write a descriptive word in each of the five points of a star outline. The authors' example includes what you can see, hear, feel, and taste or smell. Then quotations pertaining to the descriptors are written outside the five points.

The practical activities section of Collie and Slater's book deals with problems such as maximizing limited classroom time, furthering language skills, and assigning homework. In all, the authors show great inventiveness in creating activities which address such widely different areas as grammar drills, summary writing, categorizing vocabulary, and making dramatic interpretations of works of literature. The activities—vaguely directed toward preparing students for essay examinations or to increase the enjoyment of reading—seem primarily to be language exercises, and as such are valuable to language learners. However, only a few seem valuable to a literature teacher in a Japanese setting, partly because their preparation would be so time-consuming. One questionnaire for the British novel *Lord of the Flies*, for example, consists of a 40-word introduction and seven questions with four alternative answers each. Time constraints in college literature courses scarcely allow teachers to create, administer, and evaluate numerous activities, particularly when homework time is needed for reading. However, the authors allow that activities must be used selectively, and the variety they introduce gives teachers a good many ways to present a work of literature.

The third section, Working with a Complete Text, gives numerous detailed activities for the novel *Lord of the Flies* and the plays *Romeo and Juliet* and *The Sandbox* (by Edward Albee). Eight stories are outlined in the short story portion, and six poems are featured in the final portion. One way to test the value of the authors' suggestions would be to choose one of these texts and select from the activities offered to see how successfully the method works with a particular group of students.

What emerges when one considers the authors' method is the simple fact that activities must grow organically from a specific part of the text. For example, after reading a section of *Lord of the Flies* which shows how boys who have been marooned on an island go about setting up their society, students may be asked to analyze the moral viewpoint that lies behind the selection of rules. Teachers, in order to create such exercises themselves, must become intimate with texts being studied and with their students' abilities and needs. These are worthy goals.

Teaching Literature, by Ronald Carter and Michael N. Long, like the previous volume, is a collection of activities which enable a teacher to use English-language literature as a basis for teaching EFL. However, it goes beyond advice for teachers of secondary school/non-specialist students to include information about teaching at advanced levels. Designed for self-study or use in teacher training, each section of the book is accompanied with useful questions intended to stimulate thought in readers or to generate activities for teachers' courses. Although it does not suggest grand strategies which will fit all poems, novels, stories, and plays, the book rarely makes recommendations without explanations, and the methods are more stimulating than those suggested by Collie and Slater. *Teaching Literature* addresses many topics, argues them intelligently, gives theoretical positions, and is more adaptable to the teaching situation in Japan. As in the previous book, the activities have been tried and proven in the classroom.

Because Carter was co-editor of the theoretical *Literature and Language Teaching*, with Long contributing a major article, there is naturally continuity with the tradition which includes the stylistic approach of Widdowson (1975). The theory and refinements of stylistics are not promoted, however, and only four pages are devoted to a rudimentary explanation of activities which students may use. The authors cite Collie and Slater's *Literature in the Language Classroom* in their bibliography, along with sufficient post-1987 publications to indicate that the field of EFL literature instruction is receiving serious consideration. The absence of an index, however, makes it difficult to trace specific influences (or to locate specific topics).

As the authors state, "The emphasis is on language-based approaches," but only because "language provides a 'way-in' to the text" (vii), and indeed the activities and their explanations reinforce this message. In order to present and elaborate their ideas, the authors divide the book into three sections: Literature in the Classroom (positions and explanations); Classroom Procedures (activities); and General Issues (comments on curriculum and critical theory). The first section explains that studying literature as culture is really the realm of the specialist, and using literature to study language may be uneconomical. However, literature study is a good means of combining language education with personal growth. Literature, in this sense, is a source and not a subject. Other issues are discussed, including the question of what literature is—"language which is patterned for particular expressive purposes" in the authors' words (p. 6). Thus literature study which is "language based" embraces all levels and sources of literature, and is undertaken using language teaching methods.

Carter and Long recognize that not all students have an appreciation of literature, and in the Literature in the Classroom section they lead readers through a series of exercises which can be transposed to the classroom to develop students' interest in specific works. As they write: "Students need to be *prepared* for reading a literary text. The initial preparation should be as concrete and specific as possible. Teachers should try, where possible, to help students to use their own actual experience" (p. 23). They also insist that the "infectious enthusiasm" of the teacher is crucial to students' enthusiasm. Yet the class must be student-centered, and a good goal for a course is to allow "learners to make their own judgements and to refine and develop their techniques for doing so" (p. 25). While students must explore for themselves, the teacher has a role as a guide.

The second section, Classroom Procedures, outlines what a good guide does, especially asking the right thing—moving from "closed," "lower-order" questions ("Who sent the flowers?") to "open," "higher-order" ones ("What do the 'weather beaten' primroses tell you about the sender?"). Such questions lead students to the essential connection necessary for appreciation of literature: "to try to establish a relationship between the author and themselves" (p. 39). One aspect of that process is for students to discover themes and meanings for themselves—a standard form of instruction that goes back to Socrates. Another aspect is for students to imagine themselves in situations related to their reading; this can best be accomplished by asking what or how they would feel if something were to occur (rather than the closed question of whether they have already experienced something). Other topics Carter and Long introduce to students through questions include prediction, character, and viewpoint, most often illustrating the topics with activities using poems. (Indeed, one of the limitations of the book is that it deals primarily with short works; although advice is given concerning novels and plays, the authors treat only one story in full detail, contrasting with the full treatment Collie and Slater give to a novel and two plays.)

Further elaborations of language-based approaches to literature include activities such as "jigsaw reading" (each member of a group gets a portion of the text), matching beginnings and endings of stories, gap-filling (cloze), reading aloud, and creative writing. While these activities may be found in Collie and Slater, their treatment here includes a rationale and warnings. In the gap-filling activity, for example, Carter and Long explain that the activity is good because making word choices requires students to examine the entire text. Furthermore, filling the gap with the right word is *not* the point of the activity—rather it is making choices which can be explained. These activities and others introduced

in the first part of the book are illustrated in action in the fifth chapter, a case study of how to teach O. Henry's short story, Hearts and Hands. Though brief, the case study serves as a good model for presenting other stories; it features pre-reading activities, a prediction exercise, numerous questions, and post-reading activities. The chapter concludes by showing parallels between the exercises and the reader-response theories of Wolfgang Iser and Roman Ingarden.

The sixth chapter describes activities for advanced classes. Students are given ways of placing any written passage (including ordinary conversation) on a scale of "literariness." Furthermore, Carter and Long introduce an ingenious method for dealing with figures of speech. Instead of teaching such terms as personification, metaphor, and synecdoche, they advise calling any use of words which is unusual or special a "trope" (which does mean "figure of speech"), and teaching students to place tropes on scales of appropriateness, originality, and centrality to the meaning of the passage. Such a process shifts student attention away from the surface of a work and onto the effects produced by language. Another activity, rewriting in another register (poem to news report, for example), both shows how much students understand of the text and gives them a new text which shows "where the language of the literary text cannot be transferred to the rewriting" (p. 121). Two pages in this chapter show how a rudimentary form of stylistic analysis may be introduced to advanced students. The chapter closes with advice on studying plays, using background research, and organizing class debates on issues raised by works of literature.

The final section of the book, General Issues, discusses curriculum planning and theories of criticism. The authors advise teachers to formulate practical tasks mentally as they consider particular texts for inclusion in the curriculum. They also offer comments on the use of graded readers, which can be compared with original works in much the same way as texts produced by rewriting. Other topics include literary culture shock, world literatures written in English, and testing. Concluding each topic, the authors ask questions which require readers to identify their own opinions or to make decisions on how to make use of the information they have learned. The book concludes with a concise guide to twentieth century trends in literary criticism, and notes that the authors' method is grounded in the belief that "theories of literature are important" because they deal with the relationship of the reader to the text—the basic thrust of the book is to establish such a relationship. In this section, as in the rest of the book, Carter and Long are successful in introducing attractive ways of exploring texts with EFL learners.

In *Literature and Language Teaching: A Guide for Teachers and Trainers*, Gillian Lazar covers the territory of the two previous books, citing them as sources of further activities in several chapters. She also shows, through a brief treatment of stylistics, in suggested readings at the end of chapters, and in her bibliography, that she is part of the British tradition of using literature to further EFL studies, and she devotes four pages to a rudimentary introduction to stylistics. In fact, the title of the book, *Literature and Language Teaching*, is the same as the Brumfit and Carter (1986) collection. In most instances, she differs from the two other practical works only in layout and emphasis. Similarities (and some differences) can be seen by examining her chapter titles and page allotments.

Chapter	Pages
1. Using literature in the language classroom: The issues	21 pages
2. Approaches to using literature with the language learner	26 pages
3. Selecting and evaluating materials	14 pages
4. Reading literature cross-culturally	9 pages
5. Materials design and lesson planning: Novels and short stories	23 pages
6. Materials design and lesson planning: Poetry	39 pages
7. Materials design and lesson planning: Plays	34 pages
8. Reflecting on the literature lesson	12 pages
9. Literature and self-access	10 pages
Answer key	27 pages
Trainer's notes	39 pages

The titles of chapters one through seven reflect topics covered by the other authors, and to a great extent the activities Lazar recommends are likewise similar. However, this is a teacher training text for use in the classroom. The contents of Chapter 2, Approaches to Using Literature with the Language Learner, shows this. Before advising a language-based approach to teaching literature, she questions readers on their opinions about other approaches. Here as elsewhere Lazar shows many sides of each issue, both to avoid missing any truth and to give readers a range of viewpoints from which to choose. Besides discussion of the issues, the chapter includes nearly a hundred questions to readers, over thirty directions, 25 tasks (for which ten have answers in the answer key), three quotations from books on teaching, six comments by teachers, four literary excerpts, ten short quotations from literature, two lesson plans, and 20 suggestions for further reading.

Lazar constantly changes pace—the book is almost a multimedia approach with literary quotations, questions, critical quotations, lists, tasks, and instructions to consult the answer key at the end of the book.

As a result, recommended instruction strategies seem fragmented, aimed at a particular language learning goals rather than at creating a relationship between the student and a work of literature. Also, there are so many questions it is difficult to see which ones are most important. Here the trainer's notes are valuable, for they *do* make clear what is most important in a chapter. In them, Lazar gives hints on what to stress or drop if time is a problem, on how to organize activities, and what to do with specific tasks. This section is not much use to a reader, however, because leafing back and forth from chapter to answer key to trainer's notes is time consuming and tedious.

Chapter 8, Reflecting on the literature lesson, is a new direction. In it, she gives eight outlines for setting up class observations and teacher counseling. However, none of the observation procedures are specific to literature teaching, and she admits that they are drawn from Williams's 1989 article, "A Developmental View of Classroom Observation." Her other innovation is found in Chapter 9, Literature and self-access, which outlines a project for establishing a self-access reading center. This is a more germane contribution. Lazar must be praised for the extensiveness of her presentation, as well. Her tasks and questions cover most of the ground of the other two teacher's handbooks, and the book is a rich source of activities—many for adult and advanced learners.

Each of these three practical guides has its virtues. Collie and Slater's *Literature in the Language Classroom* is the most detailed, giving as it does precise treatments for a novel, two plays, eight stories, and six poems. Their book has been well received, with a sixth printing in 1992. Carter and Long's *Teaching Literature* is, for me, the best of the three because it includes careful examination of the philosophy behind activities—and behind the entire enterprise of teaching literature to EFL students. It contains the best advice for advanced classes, as well. Lazar's *Literature and Language Teaching* is the most extensive, taking into account all the methodologies which have been introduced in recent years. It is also most easily adapted to teacher training programs. Together these books demonstrate that literature has a valid place in the language classroom, and that there is an extensive collection of resources for the EFL teacher who decides to work with literature.

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Agendas for Second Language Literacy. Sandra Lee McKay. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1993. 176 pp.

Reviewed by
Wm. Thomas Hill
Senshu University

A new book by Sandra McKay is always something to look forward to. *Agendas for Second Language Literacy* is no exception. It will be welcomed as a basic handbook on the social, political, and economic aspects of literacy issues for teacher trainers in Anglophone countries all over the world. For those already versed in the issues, McKay's extensive experience in literacy projects east and west will add many helpful ideas and provide much food for vigorous debate.

The book is divided into six chapters with an extensive list of references. Chapter 1 gives a basic introduction of what to expect in the four core chapters of the book, each of which covers various agendas for second language literacy. Chapters 2 through 5 cover the sociopolitical, economic, family, and educational agendas respectively. Chapter 6 functions as both an overview of the text and as a call for further research in areas of specific need.

Chapter 1 tackles the difficult task of unsettling our easy definitions of literacy and illiteracy. From a pedagogical perspective the strongest point of this chapter is that she does not come up with "etched in stone" definitions of these terms. Instead, she shows the difficulties and raises questions about the prevailing views and leaves the difficulties and questions open to further discussion.

Chapter 2 discusses the sociopolitical issues of literacy in language, constantly reminding the reader that it is human beings that are under

discussion, not social or political problems. Throughout the book we look at the struggles of specific individuals and families with particular needs, and we look at the way these people are able to have their needs met. We also look at the way their specific agendas are thwarted by the various forces with which they come into contact in many Anglophone countries.

In this chapter, we look at the stated and unstated agendas established in Australia, the United States, and Great Britain for "dealing with the problem of illiteracy" as it is often viewed. We look at the pluses and minuses of having a stated national language policy or, as is the case in the United States, having no stated policy at all.

Chapter 3 examines the very real economic needs of both the newcomer to the Anglophone country and the economic needs of the country itself. Here again we look at the stated and often unstated agendas of Anglophone countries which have to serve the needs of various groups of people entering the country, while at the same time protecting the interests of citizens who wish to protect their own jobs. Thus, issues of examinations for professional certification and labor union requirements for employment and promotion often serve a gatekeeper function in deciding who will or will not gain these various forms of acceptance.

Chapter 4 explores the family's role in literacy education in two ways. As McKay explains, "First there is the role of literacy in the family; second, there is the role of family members in the development of literacy abilities" (p. 76). In the first instance, we look at the research that has been done as well as how that research is used for good or ill. In conjunction with this, we look at some of the family literacy programs designed by education professionals and others based on these research projects. In the second instance we look at the internal dynamics of family literacy. What happens when the roles are reversed and the children have a better command of the language of the dominant culture than their parents do? What are the implications of this for designing family literacy programs? In other words, how can family literacy programs be developed in such a way as to promote family unity?

Chapter 5, which looks at the educational agenda, opens with a discussion of literacy education viewed as a "process" where language is taught in meaningful contexts versus a "skills based" view where language is taught as a set of separate skills. As most programs in Anglophone countries find themselves tossed between these two very different views—with most leaning closer to the skills based approach—the author takes a close look at several examples of these programs and discusses their strengths and weaknesses.

As McKay is quick to point out, there are a number of competing interests involved in organized literacy programs. First, of course, is the students' agenda. Most often students need to work, so this means that their schedules, their child care needs, as well as other financial considerations make any kind of literacy education difficult. Unfortunately, under the force of other interests, the students' agenda is usually the first to be ignored. Second is the instructors' agenda which is usually to further certain theories of education. Third is the program administrators' agenda which must be concerned with staffing and providing materials. And finally is the funders' agenda.

Funders, whether they are from business or government, need some way of evaluating how well their money is being spent. For this reason, standardized testing is usually employed. After effectively showing the evils of standardized testing, McKay suggests some alternatives; however, her suggestions likes everyone else's raises more questions of feasibility than answers. As she says, "The way a program is evaluated depends to a great degree on who is evaluating the program, so it is important for educators and funders to specify the criteria by which they are evaluating a program" (p. 123). In other words, people have to work together to find some testing criteria to fit everyone's testing needs.

Chapter 6 serves to pull the entire text together. The reference to Rose on pages 126-27 is to Mike Rose's *Lives on the Boundary* (1989) and did not find its way into the references. This chapter also serves as a call to educators to take a stronger leadership role in designing a greater variety of literacy programs to meet the agendas of a growing population of individuals who need them. It also suggests areas of research that need to be met in order to meet the agendas of everyone involved, from those new to Anglophone countries, to their instructors and the administrators that employ them, to those who provide funding for these programs and who must give an account of how the money is being spent.

The weakness of the book, in my view, is that unlike Freire and Macedo's *Literacy: Reading the Word and the World* (1987) or Giroux's *Schooling and the Struggle for Public Life: Critical Pedagogy in the Modern Age* (1988), it has neglected the weightier matters of the law, justice and mercy, and so on. She gives only passing mention in her introduction and again in Chapter 5 to Freire's discussions of literacy and illiteracy as terms of oppression used by a dominant society. These are critical issues which must be addressed in any discussion of literacy. And while book would serve well as a general overview of the issues involved, any course on literacy would have to be supplemented with a discussion of the weightier issues that deal with empowerment.

But this is a very tightly woven little book. McKay accomplishes an enormous amount in very few pages, and she does this skillfully, raising important questions and then leaving them for the reader's further consideration.

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Real English: The Grammar of English Dialects in the British Isles. James Milroy & Lesley Milroy (Eds.). London & New York: Longman, 1993. 344 pp.

Reviewed by
Françoise Carter
Ehime University

Since 1986 the British educational system has been undergoing radical reforms. We have seen the introduction of a National Curriculum, compulsory testing for all children at the ages of 7, 11, and 14, and new examinations at the age of 15+. Concern for falling standards of literacy has been accompanied by increasing pressure on teachers to teach standard English and to assess children's oral as well as written English. The majority of children in Britain speak non-standard dialects, and teachers need to be able to distinguish between non-standard forms and grammatically 'incorrect' language so that they can teach children with sensitivity and tact, while valuing the importance of the language and culture of the child's home.

Until recently dialectologists and sociolinguists have focussed on vocabulary and pronunciation in dialects rather than on grammar, and much of the available material on grammar is not easily accessible. The authors of *Real English: The Grammar of English Dialects in the British Isles* set out to give accurate and up-to-date information on regional variation in the use of the grammatical constructions of English in some areas of Britain, and to direct readers to those resources where further information is available. To this latter end, a valuable and comprehensive directory of English dialect resources is included. The volume as a

whole is aimed at teachers, clinical psychologists, and speech therapists, as well as teachers of English as a FL/L2. No prior knowledge of linguistics is presupposed, and a useful glossary of grammatical terms is provided for the reader new to the subject.

Part I, Dialect in Education, consists of three chapters. Chapter 1, Syntactic variation in non-standard dialects: background issues, gives a brief historical overview of the development of standard English. A variety of different English regional dialects was spoken and written between 1100 and 1500, but written English did not have the status it now has since French was the language mainly used until 1300 for administrative and legislative purposes and for literature. The 16th century saw a rapid development of the English language for all purposes. It was only after 1500 that the dialect of London and the south-east was adopted as standard English for writing purposes, albeit only by the best-educated and most powerful people, but even then it was not considered necessary to be consistent either in spelling or in grammar. During the 18th century prescriptive grammarians codified standard English grammar, often following Latin models such as the division of strong verbs into present, past, and past participle (e.g., write, wrote, written). During the 16th and 17th centuries it was quite acceptable to use the two-way pattern (e.g., the letter was wrote), but since the 18th century it has become increasingly stigmatized. The result is that regional grammatical forms are not always recognized as regional variants, but are seen as corruptions of grammar, whereas many regional variants are to be found in, for example, the works of Chaucer and Shakespeare. The difference is that the rules for standard English have been set down in grammar books, whereas the rules for the dialects have not. Standard English forms have become associated with education, with the dominant, institutionalized culture, and with a relatively high social status; non-standard forms have become associated with the family, friends, and neighbourhood loyalty. The way we speak is very closely bound up with our social identity and personal identity. Research has shown that the frequency with which non-standard forms are used has a social distribution correlating with socio-economic class as well as a regional distribution.

Chapter 2, Sociolinguistics in the classroom: exploring linguistic diversity, describes a survey of British dialect grammar carried out between 1986 and 1989. This survey was specifically designed to contribute to our understanding of the relationship between standard and non-standard English syntax. It was an attempt to incorporate sociolinguistics directly into the classroom, with the short-term aim of enlisting teachers

and their pupils as researchers, collecting data on local dialect grammar and completing a questionnaire. Pupils were consulted as the experts on their own local dialects. These activities are a valuable educational experience, encouraging children to think and write creatively about standard and non-standard English, and to consider peer-group pressures and attitudes towards different language forms.

Chapter 3, Non-standard English and dialect levelling, is concerned with a preliminary analysis of the data from the Survey of British Dialect Grammar. The researchers' original intention was to draw on schools throughout the British Isles, but for unforseen reasons only 87 schools took part. However, the data that they obtained give very good coverage of the more heavily populated urban regions of the country. There seems to be evidence of direct levelling in towns as a result of general population movement away from rural areas. There also seem to be certain grammatical features that are common to the English spoken in the major urban centres of Britain—the development of a 'standardising' non-standard variety. Some of these features occur in some styles of written English as well as spoken English, and the authors suggest that the use of *sat* and *stood* after the auxiliary *be*, for example, may soon be accepted in standard English grammars (e.g., She was sat [sitting] in a chair watching TV. He was stood [standing] in the middle of the road.). In my experience, there is no doubt that this usage is common among educated people from the north of England, but it is not usual among educated southerners. But this natural language evolution underlies the difficulty of applying the categories of standard English and non-standard English to specific grammatical features. It is not always easy to differentiate between non-standard and standard forms, and colloquial educated speech.

Part II is divided into four chapters, each one concerned with case studies of regional variation in English grammar: Scottish English, Irish English, Tyneside and Northumbrian English, and Southern British English. These studies reveal some of the educational problems facing non-standard English users. In Scotland, for example, a new Standard Grade examination to be taken at 14+ is designed to encourage more pupils to stay on at school and obtain skills, knowledge, and formal qualifications. This is essential in our technological society with its demand for skilled workers and the lack of the traditional type of manual jobs. Already language problems have been revealed, since many candidates cannot cope with the complex language in which mathematics and examination questions are written. Forty years ago such children would not have been called upon to take formal written tests and display mastery of written

English, but without such skills today people are excluded not only from higher education and positions of power and influence in society, but also from the skilled jobs that have replaced manual jobs.

While all non-standard speech has a low status, non-standard south-eastern speech is particularly stigmatized. From earliest times differences between the standard and south-eastern dialects have been inextricably linked with social class differences. Research repeatedly shows that speakers with Received Pronunciation (Queen's English) are considered to be more intelligent and more competent than those who have a regional accent. This often results in lost job opportunities, although recently differences in pronunciation are far less important than grammatical differences. Many more TV and radio personalities and programme presenters than in the past, for example, have regional accents, although newsreaders, especially on the BBC and ITV, tend to use RP because it still carries more authority. But the traditional association of language codes and social class has resulted not only in prejudice on the of standard English users towards non-standard users, but also in prejudice on the part of non-standard users for whom 'talking posh' is often associated with the south of England, especially London. Children in the survey refer to Londoners as "stuck up snobs" (p. 42) and "Yuppies" (p. 46). The authors address the problem of the prejudices of standard English users, but not those of non-standard English users. This kind of prejudice and intolerance is, in my view, equally damaging. Our aim should be for mutual respect and understanding.

It is not always clear how one should teach standard English to children who habitually speak non-standard dialects at home and with their friends. The authors of Chapter 3 agree that "every child is entitled to learn not only the functions but also the forms of standard English" (p. 41) but at the same time have reservations about correcting children's speech. As an example they give a misunderstood usage of *lend* and *borrow*. Because the children had already been corrected but still made mistakes, the authors deduce that "correcting pupils' speech is ineffective" (p. 40). I would suggest that the difference between the two words had not been sufficiently clearly explained. Moreover, it seems to me that this example has little to do with non-standard and standard English; it is a usage which many children (and even adults learning English as a foreign language) find difficult, regardless of which code they speak. If it is agreed that children should learn standard English, then surely they need to be corrected.

Other uncertainties are revealed by the authors of Chapter 1. Having pointed out that people alter the frequency with which they use non-

standard forms as a way of demonstrating their attitude towards the person to whom they are talking, they then express doubt as to whether children *could* be taught to use standard English syntactic forms in their speech on certain occasions. However, code switching is quite common among Broad Scots users (p. 100), and my own experience of teaching in a British comprehensive school in the south-east shows that most children who speak non-standard English tend to try to use standard English with their teachers and in written work. After all, school readers and text books are written in standard English and all children are exposed to standard English on television and in the media. As the author of Chapter 5 points out, teaching standard English does not mean eradicating non-standard usage. Experience in other parts of the world confirms the value of teaching the standard language as an additional linguistic resource while acknowledging the independent status of vernaculars (p. 179).

In connection with Chapter 7, The grammar of Southern British English, I was surprised that the author makes no reference to the growing trend of 'Estuary English'. This is a mixture of non-regional and local south-eastern English which can be heard throughout London and the Home Counties. The term was coined by David Rosewarne in 1984; the estuary is the Thames estuary. Sociolinguists such as Paul Coggle (1994, 1993) believe that Estuary English is spreading geographically as well as socially, especially among young people. There is no doubt that there has been considerable levelling of pronunciation and syntax since the Second World War: one has only to listen to the marked upper middle-class speech of Celia Johnson in the film *Brief Encounter* (1946), or compare the present Queen's speech with that of some of the younger royals such as the princesses Anne and Diana. Non-standard south-eastern Estuary English seems to be gradually losing its former stigmatization, if not among the older generation, then certainly among the young.

But *Real English* is a valuable contribution to our understanding of non-standard dialects in Britain (although I was disappointed that Welsh English is not included). It will be of interest to teachers of English as a FL/L2 who wish to know more about the richness of British English, and particularly those who are concerned with the 'New English' debate as recently put forward by Akihito Higuchi (1992) and Ian Gleadall (1993). The message is clear: "dialects are internally consistent and rule-governed, and not, as is commonly believed, the product of sloppiness or illogicality" (p. 234). With a clearer understanding of regional linguistic differences, teachers will be able to introduce non-standard English speak-

ers to standard English without making them feel that their language is inferior or inadequate. The method used in the Survey of British Dialect Grammar seems to me to be admirable: involve children directly in research into their own dialects, and at the same time teach them the forms and functions of standard English. The democratic right of every child is to have access to and to share in the cultural heritage and social and educational opportunities of his or her country. So long as standard English is required for this access, the knowledge of standard English is a passport which no child should be denied. This volume should go a long way towards helping teachers in their task of providing that passport in a sensitive and informed way, while respecting the child's non-standard dialect. And, I would add, sensitivity and respect must be a two-way process.

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Understanding and Developing Language Tests. Cyril Weir. Hemel Hempstead: Prentice Hall International (UK), 1993. 203 pp.

Reviewed by
Shaun Gates
Doshisha Women's College

Books on language testing tend to fall into two groups. One group reflects the concerns of researchers and theorists, the why of testing (see Bachman, 1990). The other deals with techniques and methods, or the how of testing, and represents the interests of teachers and administrators (see Hughes, 1989). In *Communicative Language Testing* (1990) Weir covered enough ground to interest both sets of readers and blunt the charge that theoretical advances in language testing have outstripped

practical developments (Davies, 1990, p. 72). In less than 90 pages Weir defined the communicative approach to testing and the constraints it imposes on test design, outlined the stages of test construction, and described the advantages and disadvantages of numerous test methods (Gruba, 1993).

Understanding and Developing Language Tests also shows an admirable link between theory and practice, or more accurately between theories and practice, since Weir has attempted to shape testing practice in the light of recent research into the four language skills. Even those interested primarily in teaching rather than testing will benefit by browsing through the operations and performance sections in Chapters 2 to 5. They may find, as I did, that they need to overhaul their understanding of what each skill involves. *Understanding and Developing Language Tests* could, then, be read for insights into the latest thinking in communicative testing, but it serves better as a manual. The exercises with comments, checklists, and procedures will guide the reader to design better tests.

Appropriately enough, the first chapter begins with a series of tests—for the reader. Weir tries to remind us what taking a language test involves. Some of the tests are a little far-fetched (the candidate's level of proficiency is ignored) but the reasoning is sound. If we as readers feel stress taking these mock tests, how much more stress do test candidates have, particularly if their future depends on the test score? Weir argues that the way to reduce excessive stress is to obey the "communicative imperative" and create tests which reflect real-life language use. In achievement testing, this means setting tasks to see whether students have mastered the objectives of their communicative syllabus. In proficiency testing, it means designing tasks that measure a candidate's ability to perform in a target situation (e.g., writing academic papers).

The test writer who is preoccupied with the fiddly details of test construction may be blind to its faults. To illustrate this point, the next exercise in the book asks us to evaluate some faulty test items. The tester must look over the work of other test writers with a critical eye, but at the same time should offer up work to the scrutiny of colleagues. In other words, tests are best moderated in groups. The three guiding principles for evaluating a test are validity, reliability, and practicality. In addition to these general principles, moderators need to pay attention to specific guidelines, the marking scheme, and the standardisation of examiners. A handy summary is provided on page 27, but I think it is important to see this as a checklist as much as a blueprint. Teachers who do not have time to develop tests from scratch might want to use it as a guide to choosing and modifying published tests.

Part I of *Understanding and Developing Language Tests* ends with the author outlining his approach for testing the language skills. In Part II he devotes a chapter to each skill, which is examined under two headings: framework and formats. The latter introduces various test items through exercises and then points out their pros and cons. Teachers tired of gap fills and multiple choice questions will find a range of alternative test items. One particularly interesting item is a task that elicits a written description of a humane mousetrap (p. 149). The rest of this review will concentrate on the framework, which is more important because it proposes a logical method for designing communicative tests.

In the first part of the framework, operations, the reader is asked to reflect on the nature of each skill. The argument is that once we establish what the components of speaking and reading are, we are in a better position to design a valid test. (This exercise in introspection, as indeed all the exercises in the book, could be profitably used in a workshop with participants comparing their views with those of the author.) But deciding what operations constitute a skill is the most controversial part of *Understanding and Developing Language Tests.* First, there is the problem of which set of operations to choose from. Consider writing. Weir states that many of the operations associated with process writing (e.g., reflection and collaboration) have to be ignored because they cannot be incorporated into a timed test that seeks to measure individual performance. Instead he suggests genre based writing as a source for operations (p. 132). Test items derived from these operations will not violate reliability or test security. Furthermore, getting students to write paragraphs and essays in the genre that interests them should lead to positive washback. Some teachers, though, may be reluctant to dismiss process writing so lightly.

The second problem concerns the nature of the operations themselves. Weir equates his speaking operations with Bygate's (1987, pp. 11-41) routine and improvisational skills. Although he does not evaluate these skills (nor offer an alternative theory of speaking), they can at least be observed. This also holds for writing, but not for the skills of reading and listening where the operations are still very tentative. As Weir notes (p. 99), they may not even be divisible or easy to arrange in a simple hierarchy. The test writer should treat the list of operations for each skill as a rough guide that still needs to be verified.

The second part of the framework rests on firmer ground. Having analysed the constituents of a skill, the writer now has to consider the conditions under which that skill is performed and then try to build them into the test. For listening Weir identifies the following constraints:

purpose; number of speakers; speaker related variables; nature of the texts; organisational, propositional, and illocutionary setting; channel of presentation; size of input; and method factor/response mode. At first, this long list can seem rather daunting. Certainly the test writer will have to keep them in mind when writing a test, but the brief notes and examples accompanying each condition also provide the means to generate a wide range of test items. In any case, test writers will find that the lists of conditions for reading and writing differ only slightly from those given above (the differences are greater for speaking), so they will not have to learn a new set for each skill.

The final stage of the framework, level of achievement, concerns assessment. The section on assessing writing in Chapter 5 is carried out in detail so the reader may want to begin here. The reader marks a set of scripts from Appendix C, first unaided, then with a global impression scale, and finally with a multi-trait marking scale. The exercises should convince the reader that extensive writing can be marked to a high degree of reliability. The advantage of the multi-trait scale is that it may also show us the candidate's strengths and weaknesses. A multi-trait scale for speaking taken from Weir's Test in English for Educational Purposes (TEEP) can also be found in *Understanding and Developing Language Tests* (p. 43). The number of criteria and levels an examiner can cope with is a question that has not been resolved, but Weir claims this scale gives a reliable profile in what, through necessity, must be a fleeting assessment.

The assessment of the productive skills depends on the candidate producing something which can be measured—sounds in the air or marks on paper. In contrast, assessment of the receptive skills is more problematic since most of the candidate's performance goes on in his or her head. For Weir, this lack of product forces the tester to fall back on experience and expectations of performance. The test writer devises a test at a level of difficulty such that students who pass a set cut-off score (Weir suggests 80%) can be said to have performed satisfactorily. What if as a test writer you do not have enough experience? One solution is to remember the advice given in Chapter 1 about piloting and moderating test items. To see what this involves in practice, the reader should look at the procedure for the design of extended listening tests on page 109.

The final chapter of *Understanding and Developing Language Tests* gives a brief overview of language testing and points out areas for future research. The gravitational pull from the communicative approach and the influence of studies on language domains have led to a revolution in testing over the last ten years. However, perhaps because of the

link between research centres, exam boards, and publishers, progress has been concentrated on proficiency tests. As Weir notes, research on achievement testing has been neglected, particularly in the following areas: the relationship between testing and language development, formative testing, and the adaptation of band scales to measure changes in performance over short periods of learning.

To sum up, one of the most attractive features of *Understanding and Developing Language Tests* is the range of readers it should appeal to. Researchers have a framework for carrying out a systematic investigation into communicative testing. Teachers and test developers should find that the lists and formats will help them write better tests, and anyone running a workshop could structure it around the exercises found in each chapter. There is even a set of instructions for invigilators in Appendix B. Whether you see yourself as a tester, teacher, or somewhere in between, *Understanding and Developing Language Tests* will show you how tests can be made more relevant to teaching practice.

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English Historical Syntax: Verbal Constructions. David Denison. Essex, England: Longman. 1993. 530 pp.

Reviewed by
Kevin Varden
Meiji Gakuin University

I have always been fascinated with the development of English; Old English is no less than a foreign language when compared with Modern English. However, I am a phonologist; I am by no means fluent in the intricate details of any syntactic theory. I therefore approached this re-

view with a bit of trepidation. My fears were for the most part unfounded, however; I found the book to be accessible, and anyone with linguistic training or who is interested enough in the topic to persevere will find it accessible also.

According to the preface, the book is meant to fulfill three purposes: to provide researchers with a central reference work, to contribute to the body of research on historical English syntax, and to be used as a textbook for both undergraduate and graduate seminars. It appears to fulfill all three of these functions quite well. Both researchers and seminar instructors should find it a virtual treasure-trove of material. Additionally, Denison has sliced up the data and accompanying analyses into useful topics that allow either an overview of many topics or a detailed analysis of a particular topic to be pursued.

One very useful feature of the book is that advanced topics are presented in separate sections in smaller type; this makes it easy for someone not interested in these topics to skip them. Denison also helpfully recommends which sections of a particular chapter are crucial for understanding later material.

Despite its high level of scholarship, the book is clearly written. Dennison manages to make the discussions accessible to the average linguist—not an easy task, given the subject matter and the state of the data. It is not, however, an easy read. This is because both the data and the analyses are quite complex, not because Denison's writing is unclear.

Denison has contributed a significant amount of research himself, but the main strength of the text is the number of analyses that are brought together for comparison. The text discusses both synchronic and diachronic analyses within the various frameworks of the secondary source material. The discussion of these analyses includes substantial amounts of data, with primary and secondary source material drawn from the full range of researchers' holdings. The various analyses are compared, with support and agreement noted; mistakes in previous work are also pointed out. Owing to the large number and range of quality of analyses, some are only cursorily mentioned; others are presented in blow-by-blow detail. This is a solid piece of scholarly work.

Another great strength of the text is that in comparing analyses, Denison does not tie the text to any particular syntactic theory. He provides background discussion on various generative and non-generative theories of syntax, making them accessible to even someone like myself. Denison recommends Sells (1985) for an overview of GB, Lexical Functional Grammar, and Generalized Phrase Structure Grammar; I found Droste & Joseph (1991) to be an accessible introduction to

these and six other frameworks, some of which are discussed in this text.

The text is admittedly not exhaustive; Denison has chosen what he feels are the most interesting aspects of historical English syntax. English teachers will not find such topics as the development of the article system or the 's'-plural system, but these topics would not be particularly interesting in a graduate historical syntax seminar. For those who are interested in overviews of English as a whole, Denison recommends Strang (1970), and notes that the *Cambridge History of the English Language* (Hogg,1992), is also excellent. The amount of material presented here that would interest a graduate historical syntax seminar is quite substantial.

The book consists of 15 chapters, arranged in six parts. Part I contains a chapter introducing the methods of data collection, comparison, and analysis, a chapter covering the background history of English, and a chapter on the nominal morphology of all three stages of English (Old, Middle, and Modern). The first chapter contains an excellent discussion of the limitations of all historical research (refreshing in its candidness), and the second contains an interesting (albeit cursorial) sketch of the language and the people who defined it. The third contains analyses of nominal case couched within several frameworks.

Part II consists of one chapter on word order. It discusses many of the analyses dealing with both word order in Old English and the shift from various Old English word orders to the present-day orders. Denison admits that he does not have much to contribute to this aspect of research, but he goes through some seventeen analyses of both generative and non-generative, synchronic and diachronic nature. It does not contain any easy answers to preferred word order in Old English, nor any possible progression of preferred word order throughout the ages, simply because there is no easy answer to either question.

Part III concentrates on the relationships between subjects and verb phrases. It contains three chapters, covering impersonal constructions (clauses without subjects), dative movement and the indirect passive (sentences like 'Tom gave Mary presents' and 'Mary was given presents by Tom'), and the prepositional passive ('John was laughed at'). The various types of these constructions and many in-depth analyses of them are covered here.

Part IV contains two chapters on control verbs and subject raising. (Control verbs are verbs like *expect* in sentences like 'John expects me to wash the car', where 'me' is both the object of 'expect' and the subject of 'to wash the car'. Subject raising is posited with verbs such as *appear, seem,* and *happen* in sentences like 'Tom appears to be rich'.)

Again, there is substantial discussion of the various types of these constructions and analyses posited for them.

Part V contains six chapters covering the auxiliaries: periphrastic *do*, the modals, the perfective, the progressive, the passive, and constructions with multiple auxiliaries—again, a wealth of material. Part VI contains a glossary of technical terms (indispensable for the non-syntactician), lists of both secondary and primary sources (referenced and indexed), an index of the verbs given in the numerous examples, and a general index. In addition to the above, the preface contains useful information on the use of the book as a textbook.

This text is excellent for its target audience—researchers and students of English historical syntax. Its strengths include its wide-ranging comparison of various approaches to the data, not being limited to any one syntactic framework, and a division into parts and chapters that allows zeroing-in on a particular topic. It is clearly written, and contains a wealth of both primary and secondary source material. It will not interest those looking for cursorial overviews of any aspect of English syntax, or the language in general.

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Linguistics and Aphasia: Psycholinguistic and Pragmatic Aspects of Intervention. Ruth Lesser & Lesley Milroy. Essex: Longman, 1993. 377 pp.

Reviewed by
Guy Modica
Nagoya Shoka Daigaku

Language educators are certainly familiar with the Language in Social Life Series, of which this volume is the fifth in the series. Two earlier offerings, *Language and Power* by Norman Fairclough and *Planning Language, Planning Inequality* by James Tollefson, are indispensable

readings which address issues of clear relevance for those who teach language to non-native speakers. Lesser and Milroy's contribution to the series will probably stimulate less interest in language educators, as it is written primarily as a survey text for aphasia therapists. Apart from satisfying a general curiosity in linguistics, psycholinguistics, and disordered language, however, *Linguistics and Aphasia* provides a window to another domain of applied linguistics, which in turn may inspire a new perspective on the language development of second language learners, the classroom methods we employ, our research agendas, and the controversies we mull over.

The text is organized into three parts. Part I outlines the book and offers a (too-) brief clinical discussion of aphasia typology based on the Boston classification, including also a set of common therapeutic approaches. The most extensive section, Part II, rehearses models and methods in linguistics, psycholinguistics, and pragmatics (including conversation analysis) that have currency in aphasiology. Part III then reports how psycholinguistic and pragmatic models inform the design of intervention strategies.

It is unsurprising that clinicians find little of utility in generative theory (a framework with Chomsky its most well-known practitioner). Generative grammarians function at a high level of abstraction, idealizing away from production errors, eschewing the gathering of authentic data, and concentrating on the identification of innate principles and parameters that underlie all languages. Lesser and Milroy repeat an oft-made criticism: generative theories have scant claim to any psychological reality, and have often produced unclear results when applied by psycholinguists in experimental research. Theoretical linguistics hypothesizes a speaker's *abstract knowledge* of language; aphasiacs suffer physical damage that inhibits *processing* for production and comprehension. While students of the management and remediation of aphasia may suffer no deficit from this cursory treatment of formal linguistics (functionalism is represented only by Halliday, and given only perfunctory attention), the single paragraph covering the pharmacology of aphasia, a development of the past decade, is inadequate coverage for a survey text such as this.

The model of cross-modal processing for individual lexical items (Patterson and Shewell, 1987; Ellis and Young, 1988) and the Garrett-Schwartz model of sentence-level processing (Garrett, 1982; Schwartz, 1987) are given a lengthy exegesis. These models have aided in taxonomizing disorders of naming, reading, writing, and speech, allowing therapists to formulate hypotheses about where in the processing mechanism the impairment arises. Psycholinguistic theories of linguistic

processing have driven both research and assessment for the past quarter century, but as Lesser and Milroy point out, they have encountered limitations. Brain trauma is rarely cooperative enough to isolate a circumscribed set of linguistic symptoms, and while syntactic, lexical, or semantic modules may be discrete, research has often be unable to trace the linguistic difficulties of an aphasic subject unambiguously to a deficit in a single module. Moreover, compensatory strategies employed by aphasiacs such as reorganization of tasks to the right hemisphere, as well as strategies of a non-linguistic nature, can mask deficiencies that would otherwise appear in their utterances.

Perhaps the authors' most serious criticism of the value of psycholinguistics in remediation is the underspecified nature of the models. For example, the components *phonological input lexicon* or *phonological assembly buffer* are poorly elucidated in theory. Transcortial motor aphasiacs fail to produce echoic speech. This could result from limits on short-term memory resulting from the trauma, problems in accessing the phonological output lexicon, damage to the output lexicon itself, or damage to the phonological assembly buffer. None of these components is well understood or specified in the model, circumscribing assessment and intervention gains from this type of psycholinguistic evaluation.

In their discussion of pragmatics the authors rehearse the work of Austin (1962), Searle (1979), and Grice (1975) on speech acts and conversational maxims. Both these pragmatic theories and the psycholinguistic models mentioned above come under repeated criticism in the volume for their *top-down* approach to aphasic data. As an alternative, conversation analysis is presented as a *bottom-up* method that could have important value for assessment of aphasia. The authors introduce turn-taking, repair, the notion of topic, pause and repetition, and other familiar concepts of discourse micro-analysis, and exemplify how this inductive method leads to much different conclusions about aphasia deficits than theory-driven methods.

Finally reaching their discussion of intervention strategies in Part III, the authors endorse a mix of both psycholinguistically- and pragmatically-derived therapies. After their criticisms of a psycholinguistic approach in earlier sections of the volume it is surprising that they ultimately defend its use against the critical remarks in Carramazza (1989) and Basso (1989), particularly since Carramazza echoes their "underspecified" argument. Rather than summarize here their reply to these critiques or their discussion of strategies, reference to selected points from this section is made below.

What can a language educator insightfully bring away from this text? This reader found some interesting parallels between the concerns and methods of aphasia therapists and those in second language acquisition. In the late seventies both groups were exploring "the premise that aphasic patients' [or students'] difficulties were compounded by anxiety, and that release from this would allow better functioning of language to be revealed" (p. 16). Lesser and Milroy point out that for psycholinguistic research to be informative to hypothesis-building it needs to filter out "the placebo effect of supportive interest"(p. 272). For an instructor this might be suggestive of the importance of supplementing *whatever* methods and materials are chosen with "supportive interest" in students both as learners and as individuals to stimulate just such a "placebo effect."

Another analogous interest is expressed in the authors' response to Basso's (1989) comment:

> As in all disciplines, in speech language therapy there is a time for research and a time for application.... The clinical speech pathologist['s]...task is to apply what he has learnt, to learn from his clinical experience and provide treatment for all patients who request it. It is not his task to demonstrate that what he does is effective. (p. 79)

In a passage that could have been drawn from Nunan's (1990) entreaty for instructors to become classroom researchers, Lesser and Milroy reply:

> The only gap between the 'researcher' and the 'applier' (to take Basso's distinction) is in the time each can devote to this study. The practising clinician contributes to the development of the field, and brings to it the benefit of an extending and intimate knowledge of the continuing nature of the disorder, rather than receiving and applying prescriptions formulated elsewhere.... Particularly if response to therapy is to feed back into the development of both models and of further refinement of therapy, as we have advocated, a separation of scientist-researcher and applier-therapist is not tenable. (p. 240)

Further, the tension between approaches to remediation based upon psycholinguistic or pragmatic models is mirrored in some ways in the current debate in second language acquisition over the benefits of explicit grammar teaching versus communicative activities. Intervention

based on psycholinguistic models is focused almost exclusively at the word and sentence level, much as explicit grammar study emphasizes structural aspects of syntax (e.g., *infinitive* versus *gerundive*) and morphology (e.g., roots and affixes). Intervention from a pragmatic orientation targets "total communication" by teaching productive strategies and an "emphasis on use of materials which are of relevance to the patient's everyday life and interests" (p. 293), just as the communicative approach in second language acquisition often adopts a functional/notional syllabus and stresses "communicative competency." The "interdisciplinary" mindset expressed in Lesser and Milroy's conclusion that psycholinguistic and pragmatic approaches can coexist in therapy would perhaps be useful to the classroom practitioner, allowing him or her to employ both explicit grammar instruction and communicative activities in one syllabus. This suggests that the attitude in second language acquisition that these two methodologies are antithetic demands further reflection.

Consider some therapies suggested by the authors. Following the diagnosis (in a psycholinguistic model) of difficulties in the mapping of semantics to syntax, a program of overtly identifying thematic roles (e.g., *agent, instrument, location*) can be adopted. For patients with deficits in the syntactic planning/comprehension of sentences, who demonstrate problems with empty categories (i.e., phonologically unrealized syntactic positions marking ellipted or moved items), they suggest work on locating these gaps in utterances and on identifying referential dependencies (i.e., antecedents of gaps or pronouns). While wholesale application of therapies for aphasiacs directly to unimpaired language learners is not being suggested here, perhaps in addition to the exercises one often finds in reading texts requiring identification of pronoun antecedents explicit attention to thematic roles and gaps would be helpful for language learners. Learners may benefit from hearing sentences and identifying syntactic categories (e.g., *preposition*) or thematic roles, aiding the development of their fluency in the mapping of ideas to an unfamiliar L2 syntax, or in syntactic planning and comprehension.

Some pragmatic therapies also bear mention. Green's (1982) total-communication approach includes teaching production and comprehension strategies that may be fruitful.

> For expressive strategies, the patients can attempt to learn to...use an alternative communication system, for example drawing, pointing, ...give the listener an associated word, ...avoid silences by producing a word even if it is known to be wrong, and then self-correcting, ...use fillers to maintain attention, ...request help.

> For comprehension strategies Green suggests...requesting repetitions, ...telling the speaker that you do not understand, ...clarifying what was said by repeating it, ...asking questions. (pp. 294-5)

Some of these same strategies would no doubt be useful if inculcated in second language learners (though instructors often encounter resistance when simply asking for "asking questions"). The "checklist of conversational abilities" reproduced from McTear (1985) could also be tacitly employed by instructors to evaluate and prompt students toward more functional fluency.

Indirect therapy, "methods by which conversational partners can improve interactions" (p. 303), is directed at patients' friends and relatives, and indicates some ways instructors can sharpen their own skills as collaborators in student-teacher conversations. Coherent conversation with aphasiacs is aided when "the conversational partner or therapist support[s] comprehension with gesture" (p. 304). Other aphasic research has shown that past time reference is more easily understood in conjunction with *have* + *en* forms, future time reference clearer if *be going to* + V is used in place of *will* + V, and all forms of temporal marking on verbs become more transparent when adverbial expressions of time are liberally inserted. Classroom practitioners might be encouraged by this type of therapy to give more attention to the *form* of their own contributions, experimenting with and refining their *teacher talk* to enhance the communicative success of interactions with students.

Appropriateness is one important element of collaboration necessary to construct a successful dialog. In their discussion of coherent discourse Lesser and Milroy include an authentic exchange that must be familiar to every instructor:

> A: Hi.
> B: Thank you.

Though the appearance of incoherence arises from the omission of the required reciprocal greeting by B, context may allow A to interpret B's contribution coherently. In their example A has quickly returned a call from B, made while A was unavailable. Though the response seems incoherent, a violation of Grice's maxim of relevance, B is indicating "recognition of A's voice and appreciation of the speedy return of the call" (p. 153).

In the case of second language learners, such seeming inappropriateness may not signal infelicitous use of language, but rather demon-

strate to us that cross-linguistic collaborative conversation requires stronger inferential skills than those in mono-linguistic conversation. It may be that an instructor (A) has missed the intent of B's comment, namely that "I appreciate that you (as an instructor) have taken the time to offer a salutation to me (a student)," or perhaps "I acknowledge your greeting with thanks for all you have done to help me." B may be answering quite coherently in the context of the conversants' roles within a mutually acknowledged social hierarchy. Rather than ignoring or simply repairing instances of seeming inappropriateness, an instructor may find it enlightening to question his or her initial contextualization of a student's contribution, looking for a sense of the comment that maintains appropriacy.

Although *Linguistics and Aphasia* may not be mandatory reading for second language practitioners, the volume stimulated some worthwhile reflection on second language learning in this reviewer. Theoretical knowledge of language, command of resources from across the disciplines, an ability for research on the run, supportive interest and an outsized capacity for patience are attributes of both these clinicians and educators. Sharing through this volume the struggle of clinicians who must *reteach* language strengthens one's resolve in tackling the challenges of second language instruction.

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To Honor John M. Sinclair: Festschrifts on his 60th birthday

Data, Description, Discourse. Michael Hoey (Ed.). London: Harper Collins, 1993.

Text and Technology. Mona Baker, Gill Francis, & Elena Tognini-Bonelli (Eds.). London: Routledge, 1993.

Reviewed by
Paul R. Hays
International Christian University

As language teachers, perhaps no theoretical linguist has had more influence on what we do in the classroom than John M. Sinclair. From his early work on the discourse of the classroom, to the theoretical and practical underpinnings of the Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary, John Sinclair has changed the face of applied linguistics. On the occasion of his sixtieth birthday in 1993, four volumes were published to honor him. This review looks at two: *Data, Description, Discourse* and *Text and Technology*. (The other two were published in Singapore, one a series of papers by other researchers, the second a collection of Sinclair's writings over the past 30 years.) The two volumes reviewed here are surprising in their breadth and in the people who have chosen to honor him. Michael Halliday, Robert Kaplan, Michael Hoey, and Malcolm Coulthard, are among the colleagues who contributed to these collections. For teachers in the field, these two volumes provide an interesting look at some of the major trends in applied and

theoretical linguistics in Britain over the past thirty years and give indications of where the future lies.

In *Text and Technology*, research reflecting the wide ranging ideas of John Sinclair is presented. This volume starts with a survey of British linguistics by Michael Stubbs. While this paper does offer a chronology of changes, it goes beyond personalities and gives an insightful account of those principles which make British linguistics so different from the American tradition of linguistics. These principles have been the foundation of British linguistics and Sinclair helped to shape them. (Stubb's account highlights some of the points McCarthy (1993) made in his review of *Anti-Linguistics.*) While Stubbs lists nine principles and covers them in depth, I only want to touch on a couple of them briefly and show how Sinclair helped formulate them.

The first principle is that linguistics is a social science and an applied science. The accomplishments of the British Council in many parts of the world hold testimony to the applied point of view for British linguists. The theoretical linguists in Britain have always been at the heart of debates on the language planning and curriculum. Stubbs lists many of the accomplishments of John Sinclair in the areas of educational linguistics. As Chair of the journal *Language Awareness* and co-editor of the series *Describing English Language*, Sinclair has always pushed for accurate knowledge about language as the basis of sound language teaching. Stubbs points out that Sinclair has always argued, "that it is patronizing to think that teachers are incapable of an academic training which is as demanding as that given to doctors" (p. 5). As teachers we know that linguistics is applied.

A second point is that language must be studied in actual use in actual texts. Time after time, we are faced with materials which present us with unusable language for our students. Often the focus is on isolated sentences and language taken out of context. Our students see through this and they ask embarrassing questions about the materials we have selected for them. (Or even worse are materials which we are forced to teach, even though we have no choice in selecting them.) British linguistics has always looked at texts and the ways language is actually used. John Sinclair has been at the heart of this. His work in discourse analysis and corpus linguistics are impressive. The culmination of this work was his editing of the Cobuild English Dictionary. This dictionary has changed the way lexicographers look at meaning.

The rest of the book is then divided into three parts, each one looking at papers from a particular area where Sinclair's interest has focused: Spoken and Written Discourse, Corpus Studies: Theory and

Practice, and Text and Technology: Computational Tools.

The five papers in the first section look at various issues of spoken and written discourse. Sinclair first influenced linguistics by his studies of the discourse of the classroom. He had already been gathering and compiling corpus data, but his analysis (with Coulthard, 1975) of the interaction of students and teachers led the way for most of the discourse research done today. Mark Warren discusses the notion of inexplicitness, which he suggests is a feature of naturalness in conversation. M. D. Hazadiah looks at ways in which topic is maintained over a conversation, not merely at the sentence level. Amy Tsui gives a new way of describing multi-act moves in spoken discourse, expanding on the framework suggested by Sinclair and Coulthard. Looking at written discourse, Anna Mauranen looks at the way theme contributes to the development of a text in both English and Finnish. She shows that even though the syntax is very different in these languages, theme is an important organizing principle. Susan Hunston looks at the ways in which academics disagree with each other. Through the ways they evaluate their opponents ideas, writers attempt to influence their readers to accept their own ideas.

Sinclair's insistence on checking any theory against the actual usage of English and the use of corpora to provide a large body of data for researchers is a cornerstone of modern trends in British linguistics and is gaining ground in pedagogy. Sinclair challenged "the absurd notion that invented examples can actually represent the language better than real ones" (1991, p. 5). This notion of looking at the data or teaching our students to look at the ways language is actually used has formed the basis of many recent books, among them, Swales' *Genre Analysis* (1990) and Raimes' *How English Works* (1990). In contrast to the absurd, made-up conversations and texts which abound in teaching materials as well as theoretical papers, not to mention dictionaries, which we must try to explain to our students, Sinclair's insistence on looking at real language has radically changed the face of teaching materials. In the next section, Corpus Studies: Theory and Practice, there are six papers which demonstrate this approach by delving into corpus data for a wide range of research, from sentence level grammar to translation issues. Gill Francis presents a view of a grammar of English which is much more concerned with lexis and phrases. This view is the grammar behind the forthcoming second edition of the Cobuild Dictionary. By focusing on the patterns of words and phrases, rather than patterns of parts of speech, the complexities of English are more clearly laid out for students. Bill Louw uses collocation data as evidence for a study of irony, which occurs

when the expected collocations are violated. Alan Partington looks at intensifiers from both a diachronic and a synchronic perspective and examines Sinclair's notion of delexicalization, where words shift from content words to grammatical functions, such as *highly*. Elena Tognini-Bonelli examines uses of *actual* and *actually* as signals in discourse. Using 200 examples of each word, drawn from the Bank of English at Cobuild, she describes the features associated with each and the specific functions each can have. Kirsten Malmkjær uses corpus data to show that translators may be more accurate translating out of their native tongue, rather than into it. She shows how corpus linguistics, translation theory and psycholinguistics can work together to develop theories in each discipline, as well as theories of first and second language acquisition. Mona Baker also shows the connections between corpus linguistics and translation studies. She discusses the impact of corpus studies on translation and describes some of the applications of corpus techniques in translation.

Of course, the impact of corpus studies has been enhanced by the advent of computers which are capable of processing large corpora. Sinclair was the first to see the implications of large machine readable corpora. From a reliance on real data, and lots of it, the step into computational tools for examining corpora is natural. Sinclair (et al., OSTI Report, 1970) directed some of the earliest statistical analysis of corpus data. The papers in the final section show recent advances in technology which are applied to language studies. David Conian, Jeremy Clear, and Geoff Barnbrook all describe software tools for corpus work. Conian has developed a tool to determine phrase and clause boundaries in a text. Clear discusses the importance of collocation in corpus studies and shows how different statistical measures of frequency relations provide different information about the interaction of words in a text. Barnbrook describes the design of a parser for dictionary explanations from the Cobuild Dictionary and its usefulness in natural language processing. In a stylistic analysis of corpora, Junsaku Nakamura shows how classifying verbs and then examining their distribution in corpora allows the classification of the corpora and shows relationships that are unseen in smaller collections of text. Finally, Margaret Allen looks at a hypermedia environment for teaching English intonation she has developed. She follows the interaction of two students with the program showing the ways the students are assisted, and yet regulate the assistance they receive in order to control the learning process.

The volume *Data, Description, Discourse* is a collection of papers by Sinclair's colleagues and extend many of his ideas into new areas. Michael

Halliday looks at grammatical probabilities in the Cobuild corpus and shows that there is a correspondence with the principles of maximum information from information theory. It is an interesting use of the corpus to show that similar conclusions are reached in very different disciplines. Sinclair has always been interested in idioms and describes their importance in language (Sinclair, 1991). Maurice Gross gives a sketch of a way to account for idioms in a transformational grammar. Stig Johansson also looks at lexis and grammar, choosing adverb-adjective constructions and laying out their semantic and syntactic patterning using corpus data. Gerhard Leitner shows that a semantically based approach to grammar is needed in order to provide adequate information for learners in dictionaries.

Looking at a higher level of linguistic organization, the text, the next three papers deal with longer range patterning that helps create a text. Michael Stubbs and Andrea Gerbig look at geography text books and show how the texts contribute to the construction of social reality. Malcolm Coulthard describes a growing field, forensic linguistics. He demonstrates the ways in which disputed texts in a courtroom can be compared with general corpora and the insights that the procedure provides. Angele Tadros examines academic texts and looks at ways in which an author references the ideas of others or makes his or her own claims. One of the texts Tadros examines is an extract from Sinclair's own writing: *Towards an Analysis of Discourse* (with Coulthard, 1975).

The last three papers all cover very different aspects of John Sinclair's work. Michael Hoey goes back to the theory of spoken discourse laid out in 1975 by Sinclair and Coulthard and extends it to include the exchange complex. Ronald Carter, following Sinclair's interest as editor of *Language Awareness*, shows how language awareness is an important, and in these communicative days, unfavorable aspect of second language acquisition. Finally, Robert Kaplan examines the language situation in New Zealand, and the possibility of the death of Maori. This reflection on the interaction of language experts and governments is a reflection of the influence and interaction John Sinclair has had with government agencies around the world.

Many of these articles offer important insights about language for those of us who teach. The brief synopsis above shows the breadth of articles in these books. The synopsis, however, cannot show the quality of the articles in these two books. While there is not a lot of immediate classroom application for some of the research presented to John Sinclair as a celebration of his influence, they do point to some very current issues in language teaching. There is a lot here which will stimulate new

innovations in the classroom. These are articles which will be cited again and again and they will form the basis of the way we look at and teach language for years to come. These collections are a fine tribute to an excellent teacher and researcher. They are excellent volumes which belong in any library.

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Language as Discourse: Perspectives for language teaching. Michael McCarthy & Ronald Carter. London: Longman , 1994. 230 pp.

Reviewed by
Virginia LoCastro
International Christian University

It is not often that one reads a resource book for teachers and feels some sense of excitement about what the authors are saying. Yet that was my reaction to the McCarthy and Carter book. I feel they have succeeded in bringing together in one readable piece of text lots of ideas to provide a framework for a discourse-based approach for language teaching. The authors seek to make links between and among the various areas which have contributed to the field of discourse analysis and to show the relevance of looking at language as text, spoken and written, to language education.

Many readers will share my sense of excitement and welcome an authoritative source to cite to convince others of the value of this approach to language teaching. Others will be left feeling uncomfortable as McCarthy and Carter directly and repeatedly challenge the dominant paradigm of the grammar, vocabulary, and sound system of the target language as the only

aspects of language worthy of consideration in developing pedagogical materials for most coursebooks. The phonemes, lexis, and parts of speech are studied in decontextualized units of single sentences even in some forms of so-called communicative language teaching. If the aim of English language teaching today is to develop the learners' ability to communicate in the target language, then it is counterproductive to continue to use a theory of language in our teaching which does not view language as a means for communication, only as an object of study.

This book is thus, as the General Editor Candlin states in the Preface, "a manifesto for fundamental change" (p. vii). It is not a survey or introduction to discourse analysis; it is directed towards language education specialists. First of all, McCarthy and Carter point out that language teachers themselves must consider their own often unexamined views of what language is. Discourse analysis is not a particularly new field, yet this collection of analytic approaches for looking at language above the sentence or utterance level, seeking insights into how meaning is made and understood, still has not entered the mainstream of language education. The authors aim to lead the readers to engage in a paradigm shift from a structural to a discourse perspective on language. They argue that, given that almost all uses we make of language require us to create extended texts, either written or spoken, and/or to comprehend such texts, it is only reasonable to study what those texts are, and use the knowledge and insights that result to develop better materials and syllabuses as well as to become better classroom practitioners.

Chapter 1, Dividing the world of discourse, develops the argument that a discourse-based view of language enables the learners to see in action the interactive, dynamic nature of language. By raising awareness of both spoken and written texts in their linguistic and cultural contexts (i.e., the higher order structures and the actual formal linguistic elements, as well as the lower order or micro elements of language) the learners can understand how the lexis, grammar, and phonology contribute to the "higher-order operations" (p. 38) of language. McCarthy and Carter have clearly been influenced by functional linguistics and sociologists such as Cicourel.

In order to achieve these awareness-raising aims, teachers as well as materials and syllabus designers have to identify and select texts appropriate for classroom use. Clearly these decision-makers in language education must themselves have an in-depth knowledge of how language works and the ways in which it is in a dynamic relationship with how it is used by people. This chapter introduces various perspectives on dividing language texts: the traditional speech versus written, monologue

versus dialogue, genres, and prototypes. In each category, the authors provide alternative analyses and push the reader to greater depths and refinements once real language data are considered. The term "language variation" takes on new meaning when it is applied to texts, to describe textual variation or registers, and the authors introduce the work of genre analysts who seek to capture the underlying patterns of whole texts, such as the staging of information, which may have different surface realizations. The authors also seek to develop awareness of the inherent ideological choices teachers and syllabus designers make in selecting certain types of language use over others.

The second chapter, Observing and exploring patterns, examines common core patterns of texts; i.e.,.the "macro-structural organization of texts" (p. 54): problem-solution, hypothetical-real, and general-particular. Specifically, these patterns are comprised of clause relations; for example, if sentence one states a problem and sentence two a possible response to the problem, then this text segment is an opening for a problem-solution text type. Teaching suggestions follow with approaches for helping learners recognize and produce the core text types. Other patterns which are examined are embedded patterns, openings and closings, developing discourse, and thematic development. While avoiding neglect of dealing with the language as code, the authors address the macro level issues. They comment on one of the values of relating texts to their social and cultural contexts: cultural differences become more apparent, thus increasing the awareness of the learners of possible tensions between their first language and the target language. In a contrapuntal relationship, the chapter weaves together analysis, actual language data, and teaching suggestions. The variation addressed in Chapter 1 is linked to the regularities of genres in Chapter 2; language variation—or choices in language patterns—occur within the constraints of each particular core pattern of text.

Chapter 3, Linking the levels: grammar, lexis, and discourse, sets out, through some carefully chosen examples, to illustrate the relationship between the lexico-grammatical system and the discourse patterns of a language. McCarthy and Carter draw on the work on cohesion by Halliday and Hasan (1976) in the first part to discuss discourse management (e.g., how the speaker/writer makes a topic prominent or not). Then they take the notion of looking at language beyond the sentence level to examine tense, aspect, and voice in such genres as jokes and other narrative forms. Modality is also considered with the reader's attention drawn to discourse markers like "sort of," and "like" as well as hedging phenomena as markers of modality.

The second part of the chapter considers patterns of vocabulary and idioms in signalling and supporting macro or core text patterns. The authors once again underline the need to collect and examine real language data to observe the "natural patterns of everyday linguistic events such as explaining" (p. 117) and to increase our awareness of cultural differences, so important in second and foreign language teaching. Both spoken and written natural language data samples provide the background for their comments, avoiding the problem with some books on discourse analysis which tend to use only one kind of language in the examples.

The focus of Chapter 4, Literature, culture, and language as discourse, is on learning *about* language. Referring to a Halliday paper (1987) on the learning of languages, the authors emphasize the last of Halliday's three aspects: (1) learning language, (2) learning through language, and (3) learning about language. Their approach links up with language awareness education in that they consider the third part to be concerned with "a process of analysis, of explicit attention to language, of conscious reflection on the forms and functions of language and on the means by which meanings are made by language" (p. 134). They are reacting against what they call "unreflective exposure" to language and an un-self-conscious practising of language. McCarthy and Carter are not alone in emphasizing explicit knowledge of the grammatical properties of a language as a perusal of the recent literature confirms (see, for example, Ellis, 1993). However, they are mostly concerned with how grammatical properties relate to language in use and the role of language in everyday life as the primary means of human beings to communicate. A call for attention to learning *about* language should not be confused with condoning teaching about language as an object of study.

In order to illustrate their aims, McCarthy and Carter use literary texts, not as literature *per se*, but as particularly useful texts as components of the syllabus, useful as texts for language analysis. Conversational analysis of turn-taking, silence, and pauses of literary texts teaches about pragmatics and style. Other analyses focus on narratives, repetition, and rhetoric. In one section, the authors introduce a "cultural view of language," stating that both at the micro and macro levels of language use are found the beliefs and values of language users. Individuals are influenced in their language use by their cultural backgrounds; it can also be said that their "cultural frames of reference" (p. 155) are not ideologically neutral. Drawing on newspaper headlines from three different British newspapers, the authors show how linguistic choices reflect cultural norms and ideologies. The chapter ends with a call for language awareness training as part of language education, in effect

making learners "discourse analysts," with suggestions for curricular principles to put their approach into action in the classroom.

In the final chapter, entitled Designing the discourse syllabus, the authors return to the recurring expression of concern for "adequate description as the precursor of language teaching syllabuses" (p. 172), for, without some knowledge of just how language is used by people in everyday life, syllabus designers and the teachers who implement the syllabuses are doing less than what is required for the learners to achieve a high degree of discourse competence. McCarthy and Carter consider definitions of discourse competence as well as the analysis and classification of language and its features to provide the base for a discourse-based syllabus. They include some references to attempts to produce such a syllabus and generate a list of discourse strategies they would include in a pre-syllabus, from which tasks and activity types would be developed. A discourse analysis of learners' production is advocated as well to provide further input for syllabus development and to foreground areas which need particular attention in the materials and classroom. Further, they advocate a discourse analysis of available materials, particularly given that many teachers all over the world are not in a position to change the syllabuses they use. The analysis of the published materials can help the teachers adapt them along the lines of natural discourse. Implicitly, all these levels or forms of analysis generate evaluations of syllabuses, tasks, and materials, resulting in greater awareness of language as discourse and further the professional development of the teacher-as-analyst.

In addition to the text itself, there are Reader Activities at the end of Chapters 1, 2, 3, and 5, with Notes on the activities. There is also a rather extensive Further Reading section at the end of each chapter. All these features are extremely useful for the motivated individual reader as well as for lecturers who want to use this book as a textbook for a course on discourse analysis for language teachers.

This review cannot do full justice to McCarthy and Carter's book. Firstly, it has to be kept in mind that discourse analysis as a field of linguistic analysis still continues to be viewed as a difficult subject area. A book review cannot deal with the richness and density of this particular work on the subject. Secondly, the review is unable to capture the earnestness of the authors in their efforts to communicate about the new world which opens to one once a discourse perspective on language is taken. Discourse analysis calls for a paradigm shift, as mentioned above, which challenges long-held beliefs in the field of language education about what language is and does. Moreover, it foregrounds the fact that all text is

discourse and is socially constructed, thus not ideologically neutral. This makes many people uncomfortable, especially language teachers who tend to see their work as devoid of taking any kind of political or ideological position. *Language as Discourse* attempts to lead the readers into an acknowledgment that we cannot escape from taking a point of view about our theories, however unarticulated they may be, about language and language learning in the materials we write and use and in the syllabuses we write and implement.

McCarthy and Carter have done a highly commendable job in providing a solid book on discourse analysis for language educators. At times, the organization of the content of the book was not transparent to me; it was in the second chapter that I realized that this was in fact an argument which extended through the entire book. Read from that perspective, I could continue my reading and enjoy the flow of their discourse. One very helpful feature is that the authors enter the text regularly to remind the reader of what they have said, what they will be saying, and what some of the aims of the book are. I would not, however, recommend this work to someone who has not yet read anything about discourse analysis. It would be a good sequel to McCarthy's 1991 *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers*.

Finally, back to the excitement. In my opinion, it would be unfortunate if language teachers refused to accept the challenge for change which a discourse-oriented view of language entails. I suspect few in language education realize that the insights on language use from linguistics have been taken up by literary critics and scholars and professors of law (see Fish, 1994). Thus, one result of making the effort to learn about this field of discourse analysis is that you suddenly find you can have conversations about language with all kinds of people—lawyers, journalists, AIDS education specialists, copy writers, and computer programmers. There is life outside the language classroom!

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Reviewed by
Alan Maley
National University of Singapore

This is a book calculated to nudge, if not jolt, language teachers off the rails of conventional thinking about how language teaching is constituted. It directs us away from accepted polarities, towards a tolerance of diversity and a responsiveness to individuality. It is a call to action and reflection.

It views foreign language teaching not as the simple transfer of either linguistic forms or of communicative skills. Rather it advocates a coming to terms with both the first and the foreign language in all their rich and individual diversity to forge a 'third culture'. It is an opportunity to 'experience the boundaries'. Foreign language learning is therefore viewed as an opportunity to explore individual difference rather than as an institutionalised process of conformity to the norms, linguistic and cultural, of the 'other' language. Teachers are, it is claimed, all too often submerged by the welter of practical and institutional constraints, and fail to perceive the messages their learners are trying to send them.

The book is organised into an Introduction and eight chapters: In the Introduction, the author challenges the customary dualities of FLT: Grammar v. Communication, Language v. Culture, etc. Rather than being viewed as 'problems', such dichotomies should be seen as learning opportunities to be exploited.

In Chapter 1, Educational Challenges, she argues for an approach based on 'dialogic encounter'. "A dialogic pedagogy is unlike traditional pedagogy. Not only can it not be pre-programmed, but it is likely to question the traditional ... tenets of foreign language education. ... such a pedagogy should better be described, not as a blueprint for how to *teach* foreign languages, but as another way of *being* a language teacher" (pp. 30-31).

In Chapter 2, Contexts of Speech and Social Interaction, there is a detailed analysis of ways of describing 'context', richly illustrated with classroom examples. The point is made that contexts are not stable entities, but are constantly in flux, being re-cast by individual speaker-hearers; a multiplicity of potential meanings, not a single meaning.

Chapter 3, Teaching the Spoken Language, points up the problems and paradoxes raised by five detailed case studies. It makes the impor-

tant point that, "the classroom is not the totally socially controlled context it seems to be ... it is constantly challenged by the learners themselves.... What often constrains teachers is their fear of imagination, of unexplainable and uncontrollable meanings, of paradox and ambiguity. If they listen to and explore further what their students are saying through their ill-formed utterances, their silences, their non-verbal language, they will discover where the forces of change are ..." (p. 93). Yet, "teachers seem to pull the brake at precisely those points ... that could allow for a discovery and discussion of individual and social meanings" (p. 94).

Stories and Discourses, Chapter 4, shows how the 'same' story can be re-shaped by reference to tellers' prior texts, and analyses the mechanisms by with this is achieved. The distinction between 'efferent' and 'aesthetic' reading is made and there is a helpful discussion on the role of schemata.

Chapter 5, Teaching the Literary Text, investigates the passage learners have to make from the generic predictability of 'orate' texts, to the individual, unpredictable voice of 'literary' texts. There are excellent detailed examples of both narrative and poetic texts and highly practical suggestions for activities to facilitate this difficult passage.

In Chapter 6, Authentic Texts and Contexts, there is a helpful discussion of the notion of 'authenticity'. It goes to the heart of the cross-cultural debate: "We have to commit ourselves to a set of metaphors, but we have to remain aware that these metaphors are the very culture we live by and that in other educational cultures people might live by other metaphors.... The difficulty—and the perils of cross-cultural understanding—stem precisely from trying to express one metaphor in the language of another and to judge the pedagogic effectiveness of one in terms of the other" (p. 184).

Chapter 7, Teaching Language Along the Cultural Faultline, comes to the nub of the book's argument. "What we should seek in cross-cultural education are less bridges than a deep understanding of the boundaries. We can teach the boundary, we cannot teach the bridge" (p. 231). There is a detailed exploration of how this might work with different cultural groups, through the re-invention of a TV advertisement for Coke. "Through dialogue and the search for each other's understanding, each person tries to see himself through the other's eyes without losing sight of him or herself. The goal is not a balance of opposites, or a moderate pluralism of opinions, but a paradoxical, irreducible confrontation that may change one in the process" (ibid.).

In Chapter 8, Looking for Third Places, the author suggests what a critical pedagogy might look like. She quotes, with approval, Hunfeld's

view that, "We cannot teach an understanding of the foreign as long as the familiar has not become foreign to us ..." (p. 234). The chapter is, however, disappointing as a whole; the sections on U.S. policy and on Africa seem like afterthoughts, and might have formed the basis for a separate chapter.

How then to evaluate the whole?

On the credit side:

- It draws on a refreshingly wide range of sources for the conceptual sections: educational theory, sociology, psychology, etc.
- The breadth of linguistic and pedagogical reference is also welcome, including as it does, examples from German and French texts and from recent practice in those two countries. All too often we are imprisoned in the ghetto of TESL talk!
- The inclusion of fully-worked lesson protocols and examples is also salutary. The practical ideas are, in some cases, a revelation.
- It also manages to avoid the dogmatic, 'holier than thou' posturing, which characterises many other recent studies with a 'critical' stance.

On the debit side:

- It is not always easy to read. This may be due to the sheer wealth of ideas it embodies. It may also be the result of the mix of conceptual and practical points, which sometimes diverts the attention. It is a rich mine, but one in which you have to get your hands dirty grubbing up the nuggets.
- It would have been instructive if there had been more examples of contexts outside the U.S. college situation, both geographical and in level (for example, in Africa or South and South-East Asia).
- It is also true that it is likely to touch only the 'top' 2% of teachers. Many teachers worldwide are struggling for survival, in the literal rather than the pedagogic sense. For them the 'necessity' of developing among their students the kinds of awarenesses advocated by this book will seem remote indeed.

It is nonetheless a book which deserves careful reading—and reflective re-reading. It serves to remind us that our aim should be to forge an identity in relation to the foreign language, rather that an identity with the foreign language.

Vive la difference!