



From Palestine to the classroom: language educators and social action

Anna Baltzer

EFL teacher, author, and peace activist

パレスチナから教室へ：語学教師と社会活動

In this article, Anna Baltzer tells the dramatic story of her transformation from language educator to peace activist and discusses the role that language teachers can play in working for social justice. She describes how her passion for languages and encounters with language learners and teachers in the Middle East transformed her life, a journey she has documented in her 2007 book *Witness in Palestine: A Jewish American Woman in the Occupied Territories*. Her experience of crossing cultures, breaking stereotypes, overcoming prejudice, promoting dialogue and standing up for human rights is a thought-provoking example for all socially-concerned language educators.

本論では、著者の語学教師から平和活動家へと転身するに至った劇的な話を語り、語学教師が社会正義のために出来る役割について論議する。言語に対する情熱と中東での語学学習者や語学教師との出会いにより、著者の人生がいかに変わったかは、著書の*Witness in Palestine: A Jewish American Woman in the Occupied Territories*に記されている。文化を越え、ステレオタイプの概念を打ち砕き、偏見を乗り越え、対話を促し、人権のために立ち上がった著者の経験は、社会問題に関心の高い語学教師を啓発するであろう。

Key words: language, education, social justice, peace, Palestine

When I began my studies in mathematics at Columbia University in New York City twelve years ago, I never imagined the life I would lead just a few years later as an EFL teacher and eventually, as a human rights activist. I had struggled through language classes in grade school, which surprised my parents, both language buffs (my father a linguist and my mother a former EFL teacher). Studying abroad in France, however, I realized I wasn't linguistically handicapped at all... I'd just never

had good teachers! I relished the gift of communication with people from different backgrounds and resolved that someday I would offer that same gift to others as a language teacher. I traveled and hungrily soaked up languages through my university career, taking EFL classes along the way. Soon thereafter, I found myself teaching English at Hacettepe University in Ankara, Turkey, where I'd gained a Fulbright fellowship.



I couldn't have chosen a better profession at the time. In Turkey, I delighted in teaching my native tongue, dissecting its grammar and logic (thanks to my math background). Most importantly, teaching nurtured a connection with the people around me, and helped build a genuine contribution to my new home. My connections went beyond the classroom. I traveled around the country, practicing my Turkish and helping new acquaintances with English. Empowered by this ease of exchange, I ventured beyond Turkey's borders, first heading west and then east. With only the Black Sea to my north, I turned south towards Iran, Syria, and Lebanon, a decision which would change my life.

One day, wandering around the Old City of Saida in South Lebanon, two girls approached me to practice the foreign language they were studying: French. I quickly put on my language-teacher hat and gave an ad-lib lesson. They invited me home to meet their mother, who insisted I stay the night. By the next morning, a neighboring family had heard of my presence and prepared a plentiful breakfast that was waiting for me when I awoke. I noticed a photograph of a man in a *keffiyeh* and an unfamiliar

flag on the wall as I entered their home. I later learned that these were Yasser Arafat and the Palestinian flag. Mahmoud, the eldest son in the family, wanted to tell me his story if I promised to correct his English.

It was my love for language teaching that connected me to Mahmoud's family, which introduced me to what would become my second passion in life: peace in Israel/Palestine. From Mahmoud, I began to hear a narrative of the history and present of Israel/Palestine that was entirely different from anything I had heard or learned growing up as a Jewish American. I saw Israel as a victimized country that yearned to live in peace but couldn't because of its aggressive, Jew-hating neighbors. When I was young, my grandmother, who had lost most of her family in the Nazi Holocaust, talked of Israel as the one protection our family had against persecution in the future.

Mahmoud told me the story of how his family was forced from their homes and fled to Lebanon during Israel's creation in 1948. He recounted tales of house demolitions, land confiscation, imprisonment without trial, torture, and government-sponsored assassinations. He explained that Palestinian citizens of Israel were in fact second-class citizens, and that Palestinians living under Israeli occupation were frequently denied the ability to work, go to school, and pray at their holy sites. He told me about the liberation movement that Israel had quelled through invasions into Southern Lebanon, further devastating the families they'd exiled decades before. Mahmoud introduced me to his uncle who had been paralyzed by an Israeli sniper, and took me to a mass grave. It was hard for me to believe that Israel could behave so unjustly. Questioning Israel felt like a betrayal of my grandmother.

I insisted that Mahmoud's claims were unfounded, and I set out to prove him wrong. As I began my research, I quickly realized that I was the one missing information. Not knowing who or what to believe anymore, I resolved to go see for myself.

When I arrived in Palestine, my fears were confirmed. I found a system of discrimination not unlike what I'd learned about South African apartheid and historic US segregation. In the West Bank, Christian and Muslim Palestinians

were prohibited from using roads limited to Jewish use. I visited villages that were deliberately covered in raw sewage to force the Palestinian inhabitants to evacuate. I encountered Israel's 25-foot Wall, which weaves through Palestinian villages, separating children from their schools, farmers from their olive trees, and families from their water sources, hospitals, and each other. I interviewed an eleven-year-old girl used as a human shield by Israeli soldiers as they invaded her neighborhood.

I befriended a fellow EFL teacher named Dawud who would call one morning, sobbing. The night before, his six-month-old son Khaled had had an asthma attack. Khaled's parents rushed him towards the hospital nearest to their village, but soldiers stopped the family at a checkpoint, saying it was closed overnight to Palestinians. Khaled's parents begged and pleaded, but in vain. Dawud's baby died in his arms that night. His only crime was that he was a Palestinian.

I could not shake the fact that Israel's actions were being committed in my name as a Jewish person, and with my tax dollars as an American. My conscience told me I had to do something. But what could I, an English teacher, do for peace and justice in Israel/Palestine? I felt powerless.

I began to meet a number of Israeli activists who opposed Israel's discriminatory policies as I did. Many had refused to serve in the Army and served jail time for following their consciences. They joined local Palestinians in a thriving nonviolence movement I had never even known existed. Week after week, Palestinian villagers and their Israeli and international allies would march down to land being threatened by the Wall, bearing witness and protesting its illegal confiscation. Demonstrators held banners and sang freedom songs. They invited me to march beside them, and I did. Palestinians thanked me for coming, but said my most important work as an American and a teacher was to educate and motivate others.

Returning home, I sent letters to educators around the US offering to present in their classrooms. The response was extraordinary. For four months, I drove more than 13,000 kilometers around the US from universities to high schools

to grade schools. I was excited to be back in the classroom and applied the same techniques I'd used in language teaching. Once again, I had to explain something daunting and complex in a clear, digestible manner that was empowering rather than intimidating. Students were excited and brainstormed what they could do. Many had grown up celebrating Martin Luther King but never knew what it meant to actually follow in his footsteps.

There were pitfalls along the way. Some school administrations argued that the subject was too controversial. Occasionally, my events were cancelled. But courageous teachers from all disciplines generally prevailed. They maintained it was their responsibility to address critical issues and allow students to form their own opinions. Long after my departure, classes wrote letters to or held video-conferences with Palestinian students. In EFL classes, it was a chance for both sides to practice their English and learn more. Some students even took their own initiative to paint a mural or build a mock Wall outside the classroom to educate their peers.

Educational institutions have always been at the forefront of struggles for social justice. Not only have schools facilitated classroom discussion, but they've been among the first to take historic stances of ethical responsibility. Along with churches and unions, academic institutions led the movement for Boycott, Divestment, and Sanctions (BDS) against South African apartheid. In 2005, Palestinians launched a similar call, asking that if people around the world cannot stop government support for Israel's transgressions, at least we can stop profiting off it individually and institutionally. Universities everywhere have begun boycotting and divesting from institutions involved in Israeli apartheid. Students and faculty are demanding that tuition dollars be invested responsibly. In fewer than five years, this campaign has gained the momentum it took South Africa's BDS movement twenty years to acquire. It's growing quickly and is a meaningful campaign for educators and students to get involved in today.

In my work, I've found the convergence of my passions for languages, teaching, and social justice. These are a natural combination since educators and students have often confronted

injustices when governments lacked the courage to do so. Educators play a pivotal role in making a space for students to explore and manifest their convictions and social responsibilities. And as teachers, we too continue to learn—whether from our students in classroom or from Palestinians and Israelis in the West Bank—about what it takes to achieve peace and justice in our home communities, in the Middle East and beyond.

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Baltzer, A. (2007). *Witness in Palestine: A Jewish American Woman in the Occupied Territories*. Boulder: Paradigm Publishers.

Author bio

Anna Baltzer is a Columbia University graduate, a former EFL teacher and Fulbright scholar, a granddaughter of Holocaust refugees, and an award-winning lecturer, author, and activist for Palestinian human rights. Baltzer has appeared on television more than 100 times (including *The Daily Show* with Jon Stewart) and has lectured at more than 400 universities, schools, churches, mosques and synagogues around the world. She is the author of *Witness in Palestine: A Jewish American Woman in the Occupied Territories*, and recipient of the *Rachel Corrie Peace and Justice Award*. She is sponsored by JALT's Global Issues SIG and Gunma JALT Chapter.

Anna Baltzerはコロンビア大学卒、元英語教師でフルブライト奨学生、ホロコースト生存者の孫娘である。また、賞を受賞したパレスチナの講演者、著者、人権活動家でもある。Jon Stewartの *The Daily Show* も含めテレビに100回以上も出演している。また、世界中400以上の大学、学校、教会、イスラム教寺院、ユダヤ教会堂などで講演している。Witness in Palestine: A Jewish American Woman in the Occupied Territoriesの著者であり、Rachel Corrie Peace and Justice Awardを受賞している。JALTのGlobal Issues SIGとGunma JALT Chapterの後援を受けている。



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The art of error analysis

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誤り分析術

This paper proposes that the reduced emphasis on error correction resulting from a focus on fluency and communication in recent years has been detrimental for language learners, particularly those in Japan. It also argues that the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis may have had more merit than it is now given credit for. Finally, it suggests that analyzing learner errors and providing feedback and explanations that go beyond simple correction are key skills that every professional language teacher needs to develop.

本論では、近年、流暢さやコミュニケーションに重点をおき、誤り訂正をあまりしなくなったことにより、語学学習者、特に日本人学習者が不利益を被っていると論じる。さらに、対照分析仮説は現在認識されている以上の価値があるかも知れないと主張する。学習者の誤りを分析し、単なる訂正以上の説明やフィードバックを与えることが、プロの語学教師が身につけるべき重要な技能であると提案する。

Key words: error analysis, error correction, mistakes, Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis, L1 interference

My experience of teaching English in Japan has left me with the impression that an overreaction to the unproductive emphasis on accuracy that was prevalent in the past has resulted in a *laissez-faire* approach to the correction of errors. The general advice given to learners appears to be, “Don’t worry about making mistakes – just talk!” I lost count long ago of how many times I have heard teachers and teacher trainers in Japan reciting this mantra. However, although there is clearly merit in taking this approach with learners who are so terrified of making mistakes that they cannot speak, the fact remains that error correction is something that the majority of language learners want, expect, and in many cases, desperately need.

A distinction has been made in the literature between *errors* that arise from a lack of linguistic competence, and performance *mistakes* that are simply caused by the pressures of real-time language production (Corder, 1967). One source

of competency errors that has been the focus of a great deal of research is the influence of the learner’s own language.

Interest in how L1 interference causes difficulties for learners of foreign languages peaked with the Contrastive Analysis (CA) studies of the 1960’s. The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) was based on Lado’s theory (1957) that the level of difficulty of learning a language was simply a function of the degree of difference between that language and the learner’s L1. Advocates of the strongest form of the CAH claimed that interference is the primary source of errors and difficulties in language learning (e.g., Lee, 1968).

Other researchers took a more cautious line, suggesting only that L1 interference was one possible cause of errors. However, the CAH lost support when studies such as Dulay and Burt (1974) showed that only a very small proportion of the mistakes made by learners could be accounted for by L1 interference. In their study, Dulay and Burt reported that the vast majority of the errors made by learners appeared to arise from other sources, whilst others seemed to be unique mistakes with no immediately discernible cause.

Following the demise of the CAH, researchers in the field shifted their attention to Error Analysis (EA) in an attempt to discover what learner errors might reveal about how languages are acquired. Many of these studies were also motivated by a desire to evaluate the seriousness of different types of errors in order to provide teachers with guidelines for prioritizing correction. According to Ellis, the general conclusion was that “teachers should attend most carefully to errors that interfere with communication (i.e., semantic and global grammatical errors)” (Ellis, 2008, p. 60).



In spite of the large number of studies that EA and the CAH inspired in their day, interest in this field has declined since the 1970's. Whatever its shortcomings, however, it is clear that the CAH was not entirely without merit. Indeed, it is a matter of common experience for teachers of monolingual classes that interference from the L1 is a major cause of learner errors. This is reflected in the existence of books such as Swan and Smith's *Learner English: A Teacher's Guide to Interference and Other Problems* (2001) and Japan-specific publications such as Webb (2005), Kizuka & Northridge (2007), and Barker (2010).

When a learner makes an error in a foreign language, there are three levels of feedback that a teacher can give. The first is simply to let the learner know that they have made a mistake. The second is to point out the mistake and then provide the correct word, phrase, or form. This is often done in the form of *recasts*, or reformulations of the erroneous utterance. For example, in a study of French immersion classes, Lyster and Ranta (1997) reported that recasts actually accounted for more than 55% of the feedback moves provided by teachers in response to learner errors.

Providing feedback at the third level involves addressing the misunderstanding that an error has highlighted. This requires using errors to diagnose gaps in learners' knowledge about differences between the target language and their L1. Of course, a single instance of an error does not necessarily signify a gap in someone's knowledge, but if an error is made repeatedly, then it is likely that the learner who makes it could benefit from a more detailed level of feedback.

To give an example, it is common for Japanese learners of English to confuse the words *already*, *yet*, and *still*. This is because the Japanese *equivalents* of these words, *mo* and *mada*, are used in a completely different way, as any native speaker of English who has struggled to learn Japanese will know. When faced with a learner who says, for example, "I called him, but he was sleeping yet," a teacher who is aware of this problem has the option of going beyond simply correcting the mistake by providing the learner with an explanation of how these English words are actually used.

Another common error made by Japanese learners is the misuse of the continuous form of verbs in sentences such as, "I was getting on the train for four hours." This error is easy to correct, and in many cases it would not interfere with communication, but it highlights a deeper misunderstanding on the part of the learner about the way that the continuous (or progressive) aspect is used in English. Teachers who are familiar with Japanese will recognize instantly that it is caused by interference from the L1. Overlooking this kind of mistake on the grounds that there is no danger that the listener will misunderstand deprives the student of a valuable opportunity to learn something that would contribute to his or her knowledge of how English works. It also means that the learner misses out on feedback that could help them avoid making a host of similar mistakes in the future.

Other errors made by Japanese learners may be small ones that teachers might be tempted to ignore because they do not impede communication. However, even minor errors can highlight misunderstandings that a student would benefit from having corrected. For example, most people would understand what a learner meant if they talked about *drinking medicine*, but the error suggests that the speaker may not be aware of the fact that verb-noun collocations do not necessarily carry over from one language to another. Focusing attention on this broader issue might help Japanese learners of English to avoid making other mistakes of the same type, such as *meet an accident*, *make sure the schedule*, or *keep the rules*. More importantly, it may also have an effect on the way they approach their vocabulary learning.

Of course, it is not always practical for teachers to provide detailed feedback every time a student makes an error, particularly with large classes. Nevertheless, it is part of every language teacher's job to monitor the errors their students make and deal with the underlying problems at some point. Indeed, the ability to make this type of diagnosis and provide the appropriate feedback is one thing that distinguishes professional teachers from those whose only qualification to teach a language is that they happen to have been born in a country where it is spoken. Any native speaker of a language can point out and correct errors, but only professional language

teachers can provide the explanations that will help learners to gain a deeper understanding of how the language works so that they can begin to use it creatively.

To summarize, my argument is that discouraging error correction in the name of promoting fluency and communicative competence may have resulted in students missing out on valuable learning opportunities. Furthermore, analyzing the differences between two languages in order to highlight areas that are likely to cause difficulties is a worthwhile endeavour that can make the learning process more efficient. Finally, I believe that the ability to analyze learner errors and provide appropriate feedback is a skill that every professional language teacher needs to develop, particularly in monolingual environments where it is possible to predict problems in advance.

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Author bio

David Barker has been teaching English since 1992. He has taught in England, Singapore, New Zealand, and Japan. He is the author of four Japanese language books on the subject of learner errors, and he has written many columns and articles on this topic for publications such as ALC's *English Journal* and the *Japan Times Shukan ST*. He is currently working on developing language teaching materials that provide L1 support for Japanese learners. He has a PhD from Leeds Metropolitan University. David is sponsored at JALT 2010 by englishbooks.jp.

David Barkerは1992年から英国、シンガポール、ニュージーランド、日本などで英語を教えている。学習者の誤りについての日本語の本を4冊出版している。また、アルクの *English Journal* や the *Japan Times Shukan ST*などに学習者の誤りについてのたくさんのコラムや記事を執筆している。現在、日本人学習者に対して日本語でサポートをするための語学教材を作成中である。リーズ大学で博士号を取得し、JALT 2010ではenglishbooks.jpより後援を受けている。



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Designing a themed task-based syllabus

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テーマのあるタスク中心のシラバスデザイン

Approaches to syllabus design which attempt to focus primarily on meaning, such as task-based language teaching, are often hobbled at the start by the need to conform to existing grammar-based curricular requirements. However, meaning doesn't work that way; it emerges from content and context, and it **suggests** form. In this paper, I argue that beginning the process of syllabus design from a themed, task-based perspective allows the teacher or materials designer to adequately target forms without losing a primary focus on meaning-making.

タスク中心の教授法などの主に意味に焦点を当てたシラバスデザインは、既存の文法中心のカリキュラムの要求に従う必要により、最初から制限されていることがよくある。しかし、意味自体はそうはなっていない。意味は内容や文脈から生じる。そして形式を示唆する。本論では、テーマのあるタスク中心の観点からシラバスデザインを開始する過程が、教師や教材作成者に、主に意味に重きを置く観点を失わず、適切に形式に重きを置くことができると主張する。

Key words: task-based language teaching, communicative approach, themed syllabus, materials design, focus on form

One characteristic distinguishing task-based language teaching (TBLT) from more traditional approaches is its emphasis on meaning before form. Learners are encouraged to focus, at least at first, on appropriately achieving a communicative objective rather than on simply attempting to use discrete linguistic forms accurately. However, despite the continued worldwide endurance of task-based communicative approaches, the full implication of this primacy of meaning is not always well considered by teachers and materials designers alike. A common complaint of teachers, for example, pertains to the relative scarcity of truly task-based commercially available materials; the truth is that aspiring TBLT materials designers must often struggle with form-focused curricular

demands and end up making critical compromises in their attempts to reconcile what are still essentially grammar-based sequences of instruction with meaning-focused communicative tasks.

Yet, there are ways to reconcile communicative goals with a focus on form. TBLT *does* provide for a focus on form in the post-task phase. The practical problem is that this post-task focus seems counter-intuitive to some teachers, who believe they should be doing more at the beginning of the lesson and furthermore are hesitant to set up their students for potential failure in completing the task (even while the same teacher might sometimes wax poetic about the importance of making and learning from mistakes). Perhaps more damning, a post-task focus on form is difficult to implement in a static textbook or syllabus since the language is ideally meant to be emergent from the needs of students themselves as they engage with the task, rather than strictly prescribed in advance as curricular demands tend to necessitate. What is needed to ensure that a focus on form does not infringe upon communicative task goals is to take a paradigm shift away from traditional approaches to material design: to begin the process of syllabus organization from a broad general theme, from above as it were, rather than trying to fumble from lists of target functions or grammar points *up* towards meaning.

A truly meaning-focused communicative syllabus requires a fundamentally different initial approach to design than grammar-based or even functions-based objectives can provide. After all, meaning-making in the real world depends primarily on context and content and employs language forms secondarily, as means to an end. It stands to reason that the creation of a com-



municative syllabus also needs to begin with meaning and progress through to forms rather than the other way around. Attempts at communicative approaches have thus sometimes failed because they either begin from such a form-focused foundation and try to find their way to meaningful communicative tasks or, conversely, because they discard any form-focus whatsoever and rely on unstructured, loosely sequenced, and difficult to assess conversational activities.

A task-based language teaching approach solves the latter problem because it provides good instructional sequencing and assessment guidelines to syllabus design. However, weighed down as it often is by fundamentally form-oriented curricular, institutional, and classroom expectations, it does not always guarantee the appropriate emergence of meaning. This is where a fundamentally *themed* orientation allows for the development of meaningful contexts and content wherein relatively authentic communicative language acts can take place. A focus on form can then still easily be applied to the lesson without compromising the primary focus on meaning (i.e., *after* the task is attempted), since meaning is always inclusive of form but not the other way around.

A themed syllabus restricts student attention to a specific topic, subject, or genre over an entire course. For example, a language teacher might choose to design a course around the theme *Love and Dating*, in which the class might read a graded reader version of *Romeo and Juliet*, watch the film *Bridget Jones' Diary*, discuss magazine articles on celebrity relationships, and prepare presentations on topics such as *How to meet your ideal partner*. There are clear language learning and motivational benefits to a themed approach, most notably a natural recycling of vocabulary and language patterns within a recurring context. It should nevertheless be noted that a themed organizing principle is not by itself a complete solution, as themed syllabuses may still be employed to either form-focused or meaning-focused ends. Task-based organizational principles applied to a themed syllabus, on the other hand, provide a strong foundation for a meaning-focused yet forms-inclusive course.

Instead of the traditional method of syllabus design, which starts from linguistic objectives

and then attempts to map some meaningful communicative tasks onto those objectives, a themed approach begins from meaningful, coherently organized content and then breaks that down into manageable lessons and units that can conform to a grammar-based curriculum. In other words, a focus on meaning becomes not simply a way to orient oneself within the constraints of a form-focused approach, but rather to inform the sequencing of linguistic items to the requirements of the material. From the point of view of the syllabus planner, through a themed approach, a focus on meaning becomes the default, primary organizing principle of the material rather than a secondary perquisite.

Once a theme has been established, tasks can then be designed that effectively harvest the language in the material. This process, even if now approached from linguistic-based curricular requirements, will be inherently more meaning-focused. For example, a grade school teacher who knows she must teach certain word groups such as body parts, colours, clothing and action verbs, can now target these by selecting tasks within a wide variety of given themes. Let's say she has chosen to use a *Sports* theme for the course. She can now create tasks that both target those word groups and conforms to a meaningful, ongoing theme. A sample task or project could involve explaining *How to play soccer*. Body parts (legs, feet, heads, shoulders, hands), action verbs (kick, run, walk, throw, jump), and clothing items (shirt, shoes, socks, shorts, gloves) can easily and naturally be targeted. An unlimited number of tasks and sub-tasks can further be designed to fit the theme in meaningful and engaging ways, such as a spot-the-difference activity using pictures of uniformed players (targeting colours, clothing items, actions) and creative group tasks ranging in complexity from drawing and colouring team uniforms to creating new rules for playing soccer on the moon.

Teachers may be tempted to argue this example works because I arbitrarily chose certain vocabulary objectives which naturally fit into a sports theme. In fact, my experience has been that *any* theme can be authentically and meaningfully adapted to any set of curricular aims. Suppose the chosen theme for such a children's class is *Food*, but the curricular objectives are the same as above. A group project such as *Design*

your own restaurant can still lend itself well to the given word groups. It should be immediately evident that a useful task could include *Design staff uniforms* (colours, body parts, clothing). A variety of action verbs can also be meaningfully incorporated: Waiters walk and sometimes run, customers sit, eat, talk, or laugh. Clearly some themes do lend themselves better to some particular language items, but because any broad enough theme will involve a wide range of possible human behaviours, it would in fact be unusual if it could not support a variety of meaningful tasks at a range of possible levels that provide good support for an underlying grammar-based curriculum.

Author bio

Marcos Benevides is an assistant professor in the English Language Program at J. F. Oberlin

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Marcos Benevidesは桜美林大学の英語プログラムの准教授である。近年、教材デザインに意欲的に取り組んでいる。Fiction in Action: Whodunitと Widgets: A task-based course in practical English という特定のテーマを持つ2冊のコースブックの共著者である。また、アジアの様々な学会で基調講演や本会議講演を行なっている。近年の研究テーマはnarrow reading、英語教師研修、英語教育における文学である。www.widgets-hq.comにて、タスク中心の教授法についてブログを書いている。



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Using interactive technology in the classroom: a simple start

Nancy Douglas

Materials writer and editor

一タでのロールプレイ、オンラインソーシャルメディアやその他の素材を授業に取り入れるための最新のアイデアを概観する。

Key words: computer-mediated communication, computer-assisted language learning, mobile technology & texting, polling, social media

教室でのインタラクティブテクノロジーの使用: 簡単なスタート

From the university student who uses online social media to the business person who references a company wiki, technology can motivate us to collaborate, create, and disseminate information across communities. How can we harness technology to unlock our students' creativity and enhance classroom instruction? Join us as we review some simple ways of integrating social media into our lessons.

テクノロジーは、オンラインソーシャルメディアを使う大学生から会社ウィキを参照する社員まで、コミュニティーを超えて協同し、創作し、情報を普及させる。学習者の創造性を引き出し、授業効果を高めるためにテクノロジーをいかに活用することができるであろうか。ウィキ、コンピュ

Personal computers and the use of social media have revolutionized our lives. Today, many of us regularly access Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, Wikipedia, global news sites, and many others to socialize, get and share information, network, and have fun. As the use of social media becomes an ever more common part of our lives, many in



English language teaching (ELT) are exploring ways of utilizing these tools to enhance classroom instruction.

As a teacher and materials writer, one is constantly challenged to find new and engaging ways to expand student activities and language. While developing classroom communication tasks, it often occurred to me that there were opportunities for expanding the activities using social media: getting students to publish a *best of list* on Squidoo.com, for example, or following a listening in which students had learned how to make the perfect smoothie, having them create their own short podcast in which they explain how to make their favorite snack. By going beyond textbook activities, we promote ongoing learning and discussion.

During the course of my research, I discovered that there are a number of innovative ways (too many to discuss here) that teachers are using social media to enhance classroom instruction—and with good reason. In many educational settings, the use of social technology and computer mediated communication (CMC) has been shown to increase student motivation, foster greater language awareness, provide more opportunities for participation, and help learners develop strategies that will benefit them beyond the classroom (Chapelle & Jamieson, 2008; Ferencstein, 2010).

But what if you're not ready yet to experiment with setting up a classroom Wiki or finding ways to incorporate Twitter, YouTube, or podcasting into instruction? Is there a simple way you can work interactive technology into your lessons that will engage learners, promote language use, and not take hours to learn or set up? In this paper I would like to look briefly at a fun and easy-to-use tool called *Poll Everywhere*, discuss an example of classroom use, and outline some its benefits and challenges.

Poll Everywhere: How does it work?

Poll Everywhere (www.polleverywhere.com) is a tool that allows users to survey live audiences and generate real-time results. To get started, a person chooses one of three polling templates (multiple choice, open-ended question, or goal) and selects the country or region of the world

where the poll is going to be taken. It is then saved and can be viewed directly from the Poll Everywhere website.

Using mobile phones, participants respond to the poll by texting their replies to a number provided on the top of the screen when the poll is created. (It is also possible to respond to a poll via the Web on a phone or computer.) Results update automatically as responses come in and are displayed as a list of participants' actual texts or in chart form (depending on the polling template used), as shown in the examples below.

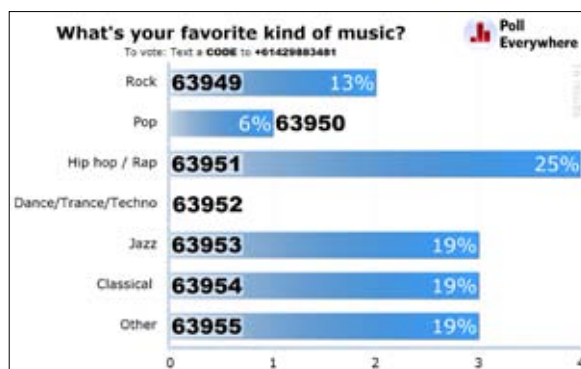


Figure 1. Poll type: Multiple choice poll



Figure 2. Poll type: Free text poll (responses cycle as they come in)

Using a live poll in the classroom

Polling is commonly used as a lead-in or follow-up activity. Below is an example of a listening/speaking activity from an intermediate-level textbook. Let's look at how a live poll could be used to expand and enrich this lesson.

Textbook activity

Level: Intermediate

Skills focus: Listening/speaking

Objectives:

- Listen for key details, draw conclusions based on information you've heard
- Review and practice target vocabulary and speaking strategies (giving opinions, agreeing and disagreeing) learned in earlier lessons

Prior to listening, students read the following background information:

Every year, the Dream Big Foundation gives \$10,000 to a person between the ages of 17 and 22 so that he or she can do something important—go to college, study abroad, start a business, etc. This year, the foundation received thousands of applications from all over the world. There are now two finalists—Teresa Silva and Daniel Okoye. Who should get the prize?

Students then listen as Daniel and Teresa discuss their backgrounds. Learners take notes to complete each candidate's profile.

Students then review their notes and choose the candidate they think deserves the prize.

Finally, students break into small groups to debate who they think should win the prize. Together, the group must choose one person.

Using a laptop, teachers can project learners' replies in the front of the room. As mentioned, results update automatically as responses are received. A poll in this activity might look something like this:



Figure 4. Poll type: Free text poll

In this case, an open-ended poll was selected to generate more language, but a multiple-choice option could also have been used.

Once all poll results are in, students can break into groups and first summarize class opinions (something not included in the original activity). Learners can then compare and contrast their ideas with others' projected in front of the class and discuss their opinions in groups.

For additional practice, students can be asked to create their own polls on different topics, to which classmates respond. The steps described above can then be repeated.

Figure 3. Source: Douglas & Morgan, 2010

Expansion idea: Conduct a live poll using Poll Everywhere

Teachers will need:

- a laptop with Internet access
- a prepared poll from Poll Everywhere

Students will need:

- a cell phone with text messaging or Internet capabilities

Instead of going right into step 4 in the activity above, ask students to weigh in on the issue at the end of step 3 by responding to a quick poll that you've created with Poll Everywhere.

Benefits & Challenges

The benefits

- **It's fun.** One educator working with teenage learners described her students' reactions when she used a live poll as part of a lesson: "[T]his activity engage[d] students in conversation and participation in the learning activity ... Running the live text/poll on a large projection screen [was also] a very effective way to support these conversations and generate excitement" (Hamilton, 2010, para. 2 & 3).
- **It's simple.** Though students may at times respond to an open-ended question, not a lot of writing is involved.

- **It mirrors real life.** We are constantly taking in, analyzing, and responding to multiple pieces of information—often simultaneously. In the activity above, students are given an opportunity to practice this kind of multi-tasking in English.
- **It fosters communication.** In a large class setting, texting and poll-taking can be an especially effective means of getting more people involved in a discussion and ensuring that everyone has an opportunity to speak and be heard. As Hamilton (2010) notes, a live poll can also be used to brainstorm ideas or solicit feedback from students.
- **It promotes language awareness.** As learners are typing their texts or generating their own polls, most will be paying close attention to the language they are using. It is this kind of *written electronic communication* that “help[s] learners slow down the conversation and notice language” (Chapelle & Jamieson, 2008, p. 178). In addition, because polling content is archived, teachers and students can return to it for review.

The challenges

- **You need a phone and Internet connection.** To access the poll, the teacher will need an Internet connection and computer to display results. Learners need only a mobile phone with texting or Internet capabilities. For students without either, one workaround is to have them dictate their ideas to a partner who will then post for them.
- **Language use can be limited.** Because messages are often short, they don’t necessarily allow for a lot of language production. Also, as Chapelle and Jamieson (2008) note, texting is sometimes characterized by “reduced forms and ungrammatical language” (p. 173). It is important, then, to remember to use a polling task as one small part of a larger lesson and to model appropriate language.
- **It’s free...to a point.** Each live poll allows for up to 30 free responses. Anything beyond this requires that you subscribe and pay a monthly fee.

Conclusion

As described, this is but one way that teachers can incorporate interactive technology into their lessons. Though simple, live polling has the potential to increase student motivation, foster language awareness and learning, and help students develop strategies that will help them beyond the classroom.

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Learn more

Poll Everywhere website: <www.polleverywhere.com>

Video on using Poll Everywhere: <www.youtube.com/watch?v=zZWM2-4Jf4k>

Author bio

Nancy Douglas is a materials writer and editor. She has extensive experience working with students from around the world including Mexico, Brazil, Japan, Taiwan, Germany, Russia, and Korea. Nancy’s contributions include a leading role in the development of course curricula, such as work on one of the earliest online platforms for language learning, ESP courses for the health care industry, and EAP courses for students entering institutes of higher education. Nancy is a published author of ELT texts, including a fluency-based course and a cross-cultural and cross-curricular reading course. Her materials

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Nancy Douglasは教材ライターであり編集者である。メキシコ、ブラジル、日本、台湾、ドイツ、ロシア、韓国を含む世界中の学習者を教えた幅広い経験がある。語学学習の初期のオンラインプラットフォームの1つ、ヘルスケア

業界のESPコース、大学院進学を目指す学習者のためのEAPコースなどコースカリキュラムの開発において主要な役割を果たしている。流暢さに基づいたコース、異文化コース、カリキュラムを越えたリーディングコースなどのELTテキストの著者でもある。教材開発に関しては、オンラインの教師研修プログラムも担当している。



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Suggestopedia: creativity in language teaching and beyond

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サジェストペディア: 語学教育における創造性とその先

This paper addresses difficulties in developing student creativity in the language classroom. Answers to such difficulties in handling diverse creative domains in a learning group are found in *Suggestopedia*. This paper examines how Suggestopedia considers creativity in the process of achieving its goal, and how it systematically incorporates creative elements and factors to overcome difficulties caused by the domain-specific nature of creativity.

本論は、語学授業において学習者の創造力を開発する困難さに取り組んでいる。学習グループで、多様で創造的な領域を扱う際の困難さに対する答えはサジェストペディアにあった。目標を達成する過程においてサジェストペディアが創造力をどの様に位置付けているか、また、分野特有の本質によって引き起こされた困難に打ち勝つ為に、創造的な要素と要因をいかに体系的に組み入れているかを検証する。

Keywords: desuggestive-suggestion, classroom teaching, domain-specificity, self-control, fiction

Creativity in teaching

Developing creativity through teaching is a demanding task. It is a very difficult process that requires a wide variety of skills and dispositions (Ambrose, 2005). In a group situation such as a language classroom, it is also difficult for a teacher to equally develop each student's creativity because human creativity is a domain-specific

and highly personal issue (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996). For example, an outstanding painter does not necessarily show the same level of creativity in the field of financial investment. This does not cause a problem as long as creativity development remains as a personal concern. However, it will cause a problem when a teacher tries to handle a group of students who have diverse aptitudes of creativity in various domains. The problem is more serious in adult courses as people tend to lose breadth of curiosity as they age.



Creativity development in Suggestopedia

According to Lozanov (1978, 2009) and Gateva (1990), teachers can find answers in Suggestopedia on how to develop student creativity in diverse domains by designing activities based on *suggestology*, the science of suggestions. In Suggestopedia, development of creativity is considered to be a form of psychological conditioning that restores the quality of brain activity through a desuggestive-suggestive process. Creativity itself is considered a type of suggestive stimuli, and one's creativeness can stimulate oneself and others to promote or inhibit creativity. Therefore, special caution is taken when a teacher system-

atically incorporates diverse creative elements so that such stimuli lower students' anti-suggestive barriers.

Control, self-control, and creativity in Suggestopedia

Because of its domain-specific and individual nature, a display of intense creativity in a group can disturb others. That is why some sort of control is necessary in the classroom. However, creative people generally do not welcome control by others. Csikszentmihalyi (1996) found that creative people have a sense of control when they are in the state of *flow*. Such a timeless feeling can easily be broken when forced to stop. Therefore, teachers need to control without disturbing either individual flow or group atmosphere.

Suggestopedia makes such control possible through the desuggestive (non-verbal, implicit) attitude of the teacher. Teachers in Suggestopedia create a playful atmosphere in the classroom. During the playing of games, the teacher naturally participates as one of the players. In such an atmosphere where the teacher is no longer considered by the learners as an external person, proposals such as "Let's put this aside and do something interesting", or "Would you like to sing another song now?" are not considered as external control but as internal leadership. In this respect, the *sense of control* is in the hands of learners, and the course neither impedes creativity nor takes the risk of causing an anarchic situation.

Music is used with some expectation to bring harmony to student creativity. The connotations of classical music's structural consistency, dynamism in rhythm, melody, and harmony acts as a desuggestive-suggestion that enables learners to realize the value of group harmony.

Fiction in Suggestopedia to develop creativity

Suggestopedia creates *fiction* within the structure of a course. Such a structural false reality can act as another desuggestive-suggestion to develop learner creativity. When choosing a new personality with new names and new profession in the Suggestopedia course, one can obtain a prefer-

able domain to demonstrate creativity. For the teacher, it gives the opportunity to know each group member's preferred domain of creativity. Such fiction is also effective in lowering anti-suggestive barriers. In a world of false reality, all mistakes and errors are tolerated as they are not considered real. Even mischievous behaviors are tolerated to a further extent than in the real world. Such a tolerant atmosphere gradually opens up the learner's mind to acquire tolerance for ambiguity and reduces anxiety to new material that can further restore breadth of curiosity and expand creativity.

Creativity and beyond

Nevertheless, students showing their creativity in the classroom is not yet the goal. In Suggestopedia, the state of creativity is merely a desirable condition in which the method works well. When students' creativity indicates the method is working, teachers can make good use of it. With the establishment of a creative atmosphere, teachers can consider how much material to present. As Lozanov (1978, 2009) concluded, "the presentation of a large amount of material to the students is an absolute requirement in the pedagogy of the hidden reserves of mind" (2009, p. 67). He claims the brain requires enormous amounts of information in its hidden reservoirs to process it on the conscious level. If enough information is not provided during instruction, the brain causes frustration and the restoration process stops. When sufficient volumes of information in terms of amount and complexity are given to the whole brain with positive emotion in the creative learning environment, the course becomes more than just language teaching. It can produce creative learners who are ready for many more new things in their lives.

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Zealand and Australia. He met Georgi Lozanov in 1989 and became certified as teacher/teacher-trainer in his method in 1998. Kaz has been a board member of the Lozanov International Trainers Association (LITA) since its foundation in 2006. He is the author of his own web site, “Suggestopedia” and *Accelerative Language Teaching/Learning The Links*, Suggestopedia-related articles in Wikipedia (Japan), and in the forthcoming *Encyclopedia of the Sciences of Learning* (Springer Science+Business Media).

Kaz (or Kazuhiko) Hagiwaraは、オーストラリアのグリフィス大学の講師であり、ニュージーランドとオーストラリアの大学で20年以上日本語を教えている。1989年にGeorgi Lozanovに会い、1998年にLozanovメソッドの教師・教師トレーナーの免許を得た。2006年に創設されたLITAの役員でもある。Suggestopedia and Accelerative Language Teaching/Learning The Linksというウェブサイトの運営者であり、ウィキペディアやEncyclopedia of the Science of Learningのサジェストペディア関連記事の著者でもある。

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Speaking strategies: dealing with the unpredictable

Leslie Anne Hendra

Coursebook author, teacher, trainer

スピーキングストラテジー：予測不能性を論じる

When we began planning *English Unlimited*, a six-level course for adults, we noted that speaking strategies were seldom covered in coursebooks, and certainly not in a consistent, prominent way. Since the goals in *English Unlimited* are drawn from the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEF), which lists many speaking strategies goals, we decided to include this very important language area. Every second unit features a speaking strategies page, which

addresses the real-life, immediate needs of non-native speakers in various situations. This workshop, based on our writing experience, aims to enable teachers to design their own speaking strategies lessons.

English Unlimited (大人のための6段階のコース)を計画し始めたとき、コースブックの中でスピーキングストラテジーはほとんど含まれていないことに気がついた。English Unlimitedの目標はたくさんのスピーキングストラテジー目標がリストアップされているCEFからもたらされているので、重要項目としてCEFを含めることとする。2ユニットごとに実生活や様々な場面で非母語話者が必要とするスピーキングストラテジーのページを作った。本ワークショップは、我々の経験に基づき、教師自身がスピーキングストラテジー授業のデザインができるように導くことを目的としている。

Keywords: speaking strategies, goals, language selection, CEF, corpus



In these days of international travel, education and business, it is increasingly likely that non-native speakers of English will find themselves in circumstances, sometimes without much warning, that challenge their linguistic ability. At such times, they may benefit by having access to a variety of speaking strategies that help them deal with unpredictable situations, even ones they thought they had the vocabulary and grammatical structures to handle. Some of these strategies enable speakers to seek solutions instead of feeling helpless when they cannot recall the language necessary to express themselves. Production strategies, such as fillers, hesitation devices, self correction, and circumlocution, fall into this group. Interaction strategies allow speakers to communicate more effectively and manage the process of achieving a language task. These can include turn-taking, summarising, asking for clarification, and developing a conversation by asking questions and showing interest.

Being able to use widely accepted, even expected, speaking strategies gives non-native speakers the confidence that they are following a culturally accepted code of conduct. True, a non-native speaker can in many cases rely on the tolerance of the listener, but how many of us would choose to be abrupt, childish or even inaccurate if we didn't have to? It's nice to have the option and the ability to experiment with and re-apply strategies as opportunities arise and competence grows. This is not to say that we, as teachers, would wish to programme our learners like robots to emit formulaic expressions when the situation demands. Rather, we can teach a number of expressions accompanied by considerations of appropriacy and cross-cultural comparison from which learners can *select*. That last word is important in light of the following humanistic and sensible view: “[a]lthough certain strategies and techniques may almost certainly be beneficial to everyone, individual differences corresponding to differences in personality are to be given full scope” (van Ek & Trim, 2001, p. 106). In fact, to raise awareness of choice, learners can be encouraged during practice stages to select preferred expressions and compare ideas.

A logical starting point for a speaking strategy lesson, like any other lesson, is a goal that states

what learners will be able to achieve. Wherever we source the goals – the CEF books, resource books, articles, our own ideas when we see a gap or a learner need – it is helpful to cast them in simply worded, transparent *can-do* statements. For example, the CEF goal *can ask very simply for repetition when he/she does not understand* (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 87) might become *ask people to repeat and speak more slowly* (Tilbury et al., 2010, p. 32). The goal *can help the discussion along on familiar ground, confirming comprehension, inviting others in, etc.* (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 86) could be called *manage a discussion* and combined with the turn-taking goal *interrupt politely* (Tilbury et al., forthcoming). A single goal can be addressed in one lesson or, as above, bundled with a complementary goal with a few expressions presented under each goal. Exhaustive coverage of language is not necessary. Ideally, a sensible amount of vocabulary would be selected to suit the learner level, the tasks we want them to achieve and the desired length of the lesson.

Language selection can be a very interesting process. It is useful to begin by making a list of stems and words that seem appropriate based on common sense and experience, then perhaps refer to resource books and the CEF books. Ultimately, however, it is advisable to check the selection against a corpus, as some expressions suggested in books or which seem natural on first consideration may turn out to be of relatively low frequency. Note, for example, the results of a search of the spoken language sub-corpora in the Cambridge International Corpus:

Goal: Manage a discussion

Function: Interrupting

Expression	Frequency of occurrences
Excuse me.	100+
May I come in here?	0
May I say something?	3
Can/May I put my side of the case?	0
May I speak now?	0

Expression	Frequency of occurrences
Can I say something?	33
Sorry to interrupt (you).	31 (most followed by you)

The first five expressions are *recommended exponents* in *Vantage* (van Ek & Trim, 2001). The final two are based on common sense. The CEF books are an excellent source of goals and ideas, but we are well advised to do our homework.

Another thing to be cautious of is the natural tendency to devise or select complex, ornate language for higher ability learners believing it will be new and level-appropriate. In fact, few strategies require ornate language, and such expressions are often of low frequency. What tends to supply the challenge at higher levels is the colloquial nature of the language – something not obvious that does not translate directly from L1. Furthermore, learners may be looking at a *messy* set of language that has different structures and functions, making acquisition and practice trickier, even though the goal and contexts hold the messy language together and make it purposeful. Finally, strategies listed as appropriate for B1+ and higher in the CEF books often occur naturally in more complex language tasks. A debate or a negotiation, for instance, may require strategies like *manage a conversation* or *make concessions and counter-arguments* so that the language of strategies becomes embedded in the learners' existing lexis as they carry out various on-level tasks.

The most useful way to present speaking strategies is to illustrate them in, and draw the language from, listening texts. One text might suffice for the goal *manage a discussion*, under which a few functions would be covered. However, other strategies (*use vague language* or *use questions to preface requests*) might best be illustrated by means of a few short, punchy contexts – each featuring two or three different expressions – to show the transferability of the language and prevent an unnatural and unrealistic pile-up of target language. Ideally the scripts would be on the page so learners can

notice and work with the language. Authentic or semi-scripted texts (based on authentic ones) are desirable, but when scripting is required, writers can usefully ask themselves, *Would I really use this language? What contexts would naturally feature it? Which require relatively formal or informal exponents?*

Practice tasks, preferably, would clarify meaning and usage while avoiding metalanguage, which is often more complex than the actual target language. Such controlled and semi-controlled practice exercises as sorting, substitution, re-ordering of exponents or conversations, matching strategically divided sentence halves, rewriting using the target language, gap-filling key words, and sentence completion are valuable. Freer practice provides greater scope for teacher creativity in devising engaging communicative activities, such as short descriptions, narrations, role plays, exchanges of views, information gaps, guessing games, debates and presentations. These can involve fresh topics, or they can recycle and extend topics and tasks from previous lessons. What *would* be tedious to learners, however, is practising speaking strategies in limited exchanges where they feel obliged to produce the target language without much regard for context or authenticity of utterance, that is, just for *display*.

Lessons on speaking strategies seldom appear in course books, especially as a prominent, regular feature. In a very real sense, the field is open for you to exercise your judgment in selecting clear goals and language your learners need now or may need in the future. There is also, as discussed, plenty of room to employ your creativity in developing contexts and practice activities. Non-native speakers cannot avoid the unpredictable or exploit every opportunity for communication, but they will be better equipped to meet situations halfway if they have had sufficient opportunities to practise and recontextualize the language of strategies.

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well as four years of teaching at International House London. For the past four years, she has been working full-time as an author with Cambridge University Press on the *English Unlimited* project, co-authoring the Elementary, Pre-intermediate, Intermediate and Upper Intermediate books as well as the Upper Intermediate Teacher's Pack. She has also written commissioned reports on other coursebooks and handbooks, and done a number of book reviews. She has a BA and MA in Classics from the University of British Columbia and the University of Toronto in Canada. She lives in London and Scotland.

Leslie Anne Hendraは、International House Londonでの4年間の教師経験とともに、日本で15年の教師経験と社内コース教材作成の経験のある教師であり、教師トレーナーでもある。過去4年間はケンブリッジ大学出版会でEnglish Unlimitedプロジェクトに携わり、初級、準中級、中級、準上級の本とともに準上級の教師指導書を共著した。他のコースブックやハンドブックのレポートを書き、たくさんの本の書評も寄せている。古典を専攻し、カナダのプリティッシュ・コロンビア大学で学士号を、トロント大学で修士号を取得した。ロンドンとスコットランドに在住している。

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Discourse analysis and ethnic identity outside the box

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談話分析と箱の外の民族アイデンティティ

This paper outlines some of the basics of *poststructuralist discourse analysis*, which will be introduced by this author in a hands-on workshop entitled *Discourse Analysis/Ethnic Identity Outside the Box* at the international JALT conference in Nagoya in November, 2010. Poststructuralist discourse analysis includes both a micro-linguistic analysis of the transcribed words on the page as well as macro-Foucauldian analysis of social discourses affecting the ethnographic site in which the

participants interact. This paper will offer a brief introduction to these approaches and the type of data to be examined. These two approaches to micro and macro analysis involve the refinement of both linguistic analytic knowledge and a creative process of learning to *think outside the box*. Using the presenter's ethnographic longitudinal research (Kamada, 2010) on mixed-ethnic identity of girls born and raised in Japan, beginner analysts will examine social ethnic discourses apparent among *half/ double* adolescent girls of Japanese and *white* mixed-parentage in data collected within the research site of Kansai.



本論は、ポスト構造主義の談話分析の基礎について概説する。2010年11月の名古屋のJALT年次大会にて、Discourse Analysis/Ethnic Identity Outside the Boxと題した実践的なワークショップが行われる予定であ

る。ポスト構造主義の談話分析は、民俗誌学に影響を及ぼすマクロ・フーコー分析と同様に、ミクロ・言語分析も含む。本論では、これらのアプローチや検証されるデータのタイプなどの簡単な紹介をする。マクロ分析とミクロ分析の二つの手法は言語分析の知識と学習の創造的なプロセスの両方を改良したものである。日本で生まれ育った少女たちの多様なエスニックアイデンティティに関する民俗誌学的な長期にわたる研究を用い、関西で調査し集められたデータをもとに、日本人と白人とのハーフ(ダブル)の少女たちに見受けられる談話を検証する。

Key words: discourse analysis, mixed-ethnicity, poststructuralism, macro-Foucauldian analysis, micro-linguistic analysis

Two major overlapping theoretical and methodological frameworks, Poststructuralist Discourse Analysis [PDA] (Baxter, 2003) and Discursive Psychology [DP] (Edley & Wetherell, 2008), are frameworks that draw on the social constructionist concept of *unfixedness*, which views any description of the world as possible and as having the possibility to be challenged and changed. Underlying constructionism is the notion that there is no *truth* that cannot be challenged and reconstructed. Both PDA and DP examine language as a means to understand how people represent their ideologies in their talk. Also both approaches show how people take up *subject positions* which are unfixed, constantly shifting identities they assume through their talk and actions as they *position* themselves (and others) within various social discourses or *ways of seeing the world*.

First, in order to engage with micro-linguistic analytic techniques, various linguistic details must be considered. According to the critical discourse analyst Norman Fairclough (2001), linguistic analysis of texts involves working on the language of a text at various levels, such as whole-text language organization, clause combinations, grammatical and semantic features, words, and the texturing work of the text, to name a few. I will discuss some of these and other features of micro-linguistic analysis below.

An obvious place to start is to examine the choice of the lexis or words used by the participants. The analyst might look at the frequency of the use of a certain lexical item, how certain words or concepts are indexed, and what sorts of alternative words for a similar concept are also used. Another point to consider is how a certain word which is used earlier might appear changed later in a certain stretch of talk. For example, in the data examined here, we can see the participants using various terms in referring to themselves such as *half*, *double*, or *Japanese*. It is

of less importance as to *which* identity is constructed and taken up, than that of *how*, *why* and *in what contexts* the girls of the study construct their identities.

Along with attention paid to the use of lexes, grammatical and semantic features also need to be examined. This includes use of tense, pronouns, agency, and the way clauses are combined or linked. The following questions might be considered: Do certain grammatical features remain constant or do they change? Does a certain speaker use language to position another person through the subtleties of grammar? How is *intertextual* speech voiced and represented, such as quoted speech of another person, of oneself at an earlier time, or of hypothetical or sarcastic speech? Is the passive voice used instead of the active? If a passive voice is used, is there an implied *actor*, and if so, who might it be?

The analyst must also pay attention to how speakers apply other pragmatic features such as the utilization of speech acts. Learning how to analyze what people *do* with language, how actions are accomplished, and how people attribute causes to events takes practice and creativity in learning to *think outside the box*. Another important aspect of analyzing linguistic features is to pay attention to the rhetoric of how speakers build up *fact* and *interest* when they speak - how people construct accounts to make their language appear solid and factual. Another feature to be aware of is how people use accountability through speech acts in order to accomplish various actions such as blaming, denying, placing responsibility, refuting, or exonerating.

Next, in order to apply macro- (Foucauldian) discourse analysis, the analyst must explore how the various actors *position* themselves and others within various ideological perspectives. As the particular data which will be used for this workshop is that of mixed-ethnic girls raised in Japan, the question is of how mixed-ethnic girls position themselves and others (and how others position them) within various ideological perspectives such as ethnicity or gender. Although various discourses (ideological perspectives) that the girls draw on in this particular site have already been identified by the author, further analysis of the data could potentially reveal more discourses. Sunderland

(2004) argued that anyone can identify and name a discourse after a bit of analytic work, although within a constructionist framework, she also emphasized that reflexivity is important in documenting discourses which are arbitrary, unfixed, and *provisional* or *contingent*. Techniques include searching in the data for words repeatedly occurring, commonly emerging themes, links apparent in interactions, and contradictions in interactions. Some of the discourses of ethnicity already identified in the data are a dominant *discourse of homogeneity* along with an alternative competing *discourse of diversity*, a dominant *discourse of halfness* along with an alternative competing *discourse of doubleness*, an intersecting *discourse of conformity*, a *discourse of gaijin otherness*, and a *discourse of interculturalism*. Gender or ethno-gendered discourses include a *gender differences* discourse, a *discourse of female flexibility*, a *discourse of foreigner attractiveness* (or a *white-Western female beauty* discourse), a *discourse of foreigner grotesqueness*, an *if you've got it, flaunt it* discourse, and an *if you flaunt* (some attribute), *you deserve whatever reaction you get from people* (*blame the victim*) discourse.

The analyst must search for *linguistic traces* of a speaker drawing on various discourses which have been identified. This involves a combination of the linguistic work above along with an examination of how the speakers position themselves and others and how they do various actions such as denying, constructing, re-constructing, or celebrating.

Various extracts from this author's research have been selected for analysis in the workshop which focus on themes such as ethnicity, gender, difference, interculturalism, linguistic capital (and language usage), and the combination of ethnicity and gender (ethno-gendering). While most of the extracts will be much longer, the following is an example of a very short extract which could potentially allow for a rather extensive analysis.

- 1 N: here, if they're people I meet for the first time, they're like 'oh my gosh',
 2 'she's not Japanese', it's like
 3 L: yeah
 4 N: 'just shut up about it'

A bit of background information is needed to put this extract in context. This short extract occurred in the context of Naomi comparing how she felt others viewed her in Japan and in America. Previously, she had mentioned some positive aspects of her experiences during her short residences in America. In this extract, Naomi is making a reference to people she meets for the first time *here* in Japan.

Without providing my own analysis, I would ask a beginner analyst to start out by paying attention to the following questions: What can you say about the choice of lexis, grammar, or semantic features used? What kind of *voice* does Naomi use to represent Japanese people around her in Japan (see lines 1-2)? What kind of *hypothetical voice* does Naomi use for herself to counter those voices (see line 4)? What kinds of discourses are called up here and how does Naomi position herself within those discourses? Is there something that Naomi is *rejecting*? Is there something that she is *claiming* for herself? Is there something she is *deconstructing* or *reconstructing*?

I will ask the workshop participants to think outside of the box in their analysis, but at the same time hold them to a rigorous analysis in which their claims at *truth* must be carefully and reflexively based on linguistic and discursive evidence.

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Laurel Kamadaは、東北大学の講師で、応用言語学の博士号を取得している。本会議に際してバイリンガリズムSIGとジェンダーと語学学習SIGの後援を受けている。日本における(二)多文化・(二)多言語、ジェンダーとエスニック研究、日本における境界(文化的・性に特有の)アイデンティティ、エスニック具現談話と男性的談話、理論的・方法的談話分析アプローチなどに関する著書を出している。Japan Journal of Multilingualism and Multiculturalismの編集委員、the International Gender and Language Associationの諮問委員でもある。最新の著作は、*Hybrid Identities and Adolescent Girls: Being 'Half' in Japan*である。



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Metaphor, gesture and second language acquisition

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比喩、ジェスチャーと第2言語習得

In this article I outline the benefits of paying attention to the use of metaphor and gesture by second language learners. I argue that the two are strongly interrelated and that by focusing on the gestures that learners use while speaking, it is possible to gain valuable information about the efforts they are making to package their thoughts into target language constructions. Metaphoric gestures may also provide evidence of L1 conceptualizations being transferred to the target language.

本論ではL2学習者による比喩やジェスチャーの使用に注目することの利点について概説する。この2つには強い相関関係があり、学習者が会話で使うジェスチャーに焦点を当てることによって、対象言語の構造に自分の考えを包括させるための努力に関する貴重な情報が得られることがわかった。比喩的なジェスチャーは、L1の概念化が対象言語に移転されることの証しとなり得るかも知れない。

Key words: metaphor, gesture, second language learning

Recent work in the area of gesture studies has shown that metaphor is pervasive in gesture. As well as providing insights into the way people use metaphor to conceptualise abstract concepts (Cienki & Müller, 2008), gesture can also shed light on the role of metaphor as a dynamic activity, heavily involved in the process of formulating thoughts. However, we are not always aware of the metaphoric nature of the language we use, nor of the metaphoric thought processes in which we engage. Müller (2008), in her book *Metaphors Dead and Alive, Sleeping and Waking*, argues that speakers can have different levels of awareness of the metaphoricity of what they are saying. She outlines three clines of metaphoricity in language, all of which contribute to one's



general awareness of metaphor. The first relates to the degree of conventionality of a conceptual metaphor in a given culture ranging from fully conventional to fully novel. The second is the degree of conventionality of a metaphoric expression in a given culture, also ranging from fully conventional to fully novel. The third is the degree to which attention is drawn to a particular metaphoric expression in use, making it cognitively more or less salient. One's awareness of metaphor can thus vary along all three clines at once, and it will not always be the same for all speakers and listeners. For example, a speaker may employ a gesture reflecting the *analyzing is cutting* metaphor without being consciously aware of it and without that particular metaphor being present in the linguistic component of what they are saying. Their interlocutor may consciously or subconsciously pick up on these metaphoric gestures and use them to decode the message being conveyed.

Although the same metaphor is often expressed in speech and gesture, Cienki and Müller (2008) point out this may not always be the case. They cite instances where a metaphor may be expressed in gesture, but not in the corresponding speech, cases where different metaphors are expressed in speech and gesture, both of which relate to the same target domain, and even cases where gestures reveal metaphors that are not even used in the language. These observations provide powerful evidence for the basic metaphoricity of many of our thought processes and imply that gestural data can thus provide an independent source of evidence for the psychological reality of conceptual (or primary) metaphors (Cienki, 2008). Cienki goes on to argue that gesture may provide evidence for the embodied basis of thought, i.e., the fact that many of our abstract thought processes have their basis in everyday bodily functions and movements (Gibbs, 2006).

Given that gesture acts as an intermediary between abstract metaphorical thought and language, it is likely to play some sort of role in the production of language by second language learners, and by extension, contribute to language learning (McCafferty, 2004). Researchers in second language acquisition have emphasised the role of *pushed output* (Swain, 1995). Swain argues that producing the target language helps

learners to notice gaps between what they want to say and what they are able to say, to test out hypotheses about how the language might work, and to reflect on their level of knowledge of the target language. By focusing on the gestures that learners use while speaking, teachers and researchers may gain valuable information about the efforts their learners are making in order to package their thoughts into target language constructions.

As well as providing possible evidence of a learner's attempts to package their ideas into target-language constructions, a learner's use of gesture may provide evidence of L1 conceptualizations being transferred to the target language. This is likely true of metaphoric gestures in particular, as these provide clues to the ways abstract concepts are metaphorically construed by the speaker. Significant differences have been found between languages in terms of their conceptual metaphors and the ways in which these metaphors are manifested through gesture. For example, in English, the heart is viewed metaphorically as the seat of the emotions, while in Malay it is the liver (Charteris-Black, 2002). A conceptually fluent Malay English learner will have taken this difference on board, and it will be apparent in both the expressions and gestures they use when speaking English.

Research suggests that the ontological metaphor of *abstract ideas existing within physical containers* is different in English and Chinese (Yu, 2000). The gestures employed by speakers of English sometimes embody the idea that abstract concepts exist within bounded containers which can be held in the hand (McNeill, 2005). However, McNeill has also suggested that for Chinese speakers, abstract ideas tend to be conceptualised as substances without form, and that the Chinese therefore tend not to use handholding gestures to convey abstract concepts.

Further cross-linguistic differences have been found relating to concepts of time (Sweetser, 2006). It is said that Mandarin speakers tend to think about time vertically even when they are thinking for English, and this difference may be realised in their use of gestural expressions that involve time reference (Boroditsky, 2001). For example, although both Mandarin and English speakers use horizontal terms to talk about time,

Mandarin speakers use the vertical terms *shàng* and *xià* to represent time.

Thus, as learners develop their skills in the target language, one would expect them to develop gestures that correspond to the target language metaphors. The ability to use culturally-appropriate gestures in the target language has been termed *cultural paralinguistic fluency* by Poyatos (1997). Within this type of fluency, the use of appropriate *metaphoric gestures* constitutes a visible manifestation of the extent to which a learner is thinking in terms of L1 or L2-style conceptual and primary metaphors. It thus reflects their levels of *conceptual fluency* (Danesi, 1995) which was discussed above. Thus by focusing on the metaphoric gestures used by language learners, we may gain some insights into their levels of cultural, paralinguistic and conceptual fluency.

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What exactly is grammar?

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文法とはいったい何か？

We all know what grammar is - until somebody asks us. Typical dictionary definitions such as *rules for changing the form of words and combining them into sentences* are not very illuminating. To understand exactly what grammar is and – crucially – why languages need it, it helps to examine how much can be communicated without it. Experimentation will show that one can actually get a long way with vocabulary alone. There are in fact only a very few essential elements of communication that are impossible without grammar – for instance the signalling of causal and other relationships. Grammar is a small number of devices which, by supplementing vocabulary, enable the expression of these essential elements. The enormous complexity of natural languages arises because these devices, once in existence, can be extended and exploited for many purposes beyond those for which they are truly necessary.

我々は皆、文法とは何かを知っているつもりだ——誰かに尋ねられるまでは。「語の形を変え連結して文章にするための規則」というような典型的な辞書の定義はあまり明確ではない。文法とはいったい何か、そして重要な点として、なぜ言語に文法が必要かを理解することは、文法抜きでどの程度コミュニケーションが可能かを検討する一助となる。実験は語彙のみでも実際に長くコミュニケーションが図れることを示すであろう。事実、文法なしで不可能なコミュニケーションの本質的要素は、例えば因果関係等の関係性の表示など、ごくわずかしかない。文法は語彙を補いこのような本質的要素の表現を可能にする、それほど数多くない手段である。言語の性質が途方もなく複雑になるのは、これらの手段がいったん使われ始めれば本来必要である以上に多くの目的に発展し、活用され得るからである。

Key words: grammar, vocabulary, nature of language, linguistic complexity

There are questions that are easy to answer until somebody asks them. St. Augustine famously complained in his *Confessions*: “What is time? If no one asks me, I know. If I try to explain it to somebody, I no longer know.” Children are particularly good at asking such questions. At the age of about three, seeking a solution to an important problem that had been on my mind for some time, I asked my mother, “Mum, why do cats have tails?” After a short silence, she said rather crossly, “Well, they

wouldn't look complete without them, would they?” Even at that age, I could see that my mother didn't know the answer; until I asked, she had no doubt supposed that she did.



What is grammar? is one of those questions. In a sense, we all know what it is: as language teaching professionals, we work with grammar all the time. But what exactly would you say if somebody asked you? Perhaps you would produce something like a typical dictionary definition: *The rules in a language for changing the forms of words and combining them into sentences*. This is true enough; unfortunately it is seriously incomplete – as if one defined a bus as *a large vehicle constructed on one or two levels* without mentioning its use for public transport. Why exactly do languages have to have rules for changing the forms of words and combining them into sentences? What are these rules for? This is, of course, another of those questions. It's all very well to say, “Well, it's obvious. You couldn't communicate without them, could you?” but this is really no better than my mother's answer to my inquiry about cats.

To understand what grammar is, what it does and why it is necessary, it may help to imagine language without it. Could we *really* not communicate in the absence of grammar? Let us carry out a thought experiment. Suppose we are a tribe of intelligent pre-human primates who have begun to devise a rich communication system. There are various possible ways to signal information, some of which we already use to a limited extent: cries and grunts, facial expressions and gestures. For our new system, we decide that vocal signs are the most effective option: we can get more variety into them, and they are not dependent on visibility, so they will work round corners and in the dark. (How do we jointly decide on this without language?

Never mind.) So we set out to create a distinctive vocal sign – let's call it a *word* – for each of the things in our world. (How do we do this without first creating a phonological system? Never mind.) We invent words for the chief of the tribe, the chief's mother, the other mothers in the tribe, the cave mouth, the big tree by the river, the small tree further along, the river, the rain that is falling just now, this stone axe, that stone axe ...

It quickly becomes clear that this will not work. There are too many things in our world for a communication system constructed on this basis to be learnable. And the system only enables us to talk about particular things that we have already paid attention to. We cannot talk, for example, about another tree, a new river that we have discovered, a stranger, or the stone axe someone intends to make. With an important mental leap, however, (we are *very* intelligent primates), we realize that words can be used to designate classes of things instead of individuals, so that our equivalents of *tree, rain, mother, axe, baby, bear*, for example, can refer to any tree, any instance of rain, and so on. And, we also realize, words can refer not only to people and things, but to their shared characteristics, like *big, good to eat, red or cold*; and to the events, situations and changes that regularly occur in our world, like *eat, fall, run, die, coming, gone*. (Strictly speaking, it does not make sense to separate our consciousness of categories from our labeling of them, as if one came before the other; but it simplifies the discussion to look at things in this way.)

What can we do with our new tool? Quite a lot, in fact. We can indicate the existence of something, or our need for something, by using the appropriate class word (*Bear! Axe! Eat!*). By uttering two or more words together we can identify individual members of classes: *axe new* or *big axe*. And we can put words together to indicate events or states of affairs: *Fall baby* or *Baby fall* (word order has no significance), *Rain cold, Axe big break, Eat acorn baby*. In many cases, of course, our utterances will depend heavily on context for their interpretation, but this is the case anyway for utterances in fully developed languages like English or Japanese.

Is there, then, anything we can't do simply by juxtaposing words? Well, one problem is that our vocabulary-only language can't show the direc-

tionality of relationships. Putting together *chief, bear* and *kill*, for example, will not make it clear which of the two is the survivor. Juxtaposing *eat, after* and *hunt* will leave the order of events unspecified. And as we explore further, we will find two or three other areas of meaning – no more than three, in my view – where vocabulary alone will not enable us to express everything we need to express. (Bear in mind that most of the meanings which are commonly expressed through grammar in the world's languages don't *have* to be grammaticalized. Not all languages have tense systems, for instance; not all languages have singular-plural distinctions; not all languages use grammar to express politeness and social status. Where essential concepts in these areas need to be expressed, vocabulary can do what is necessary.)

How do we overcome these limitations? One solution is to use word order: we can make it clear whether it is the chief or the bear that is dead by having a rule about whether the agent in an action is mentioned before or after the other participants. Word order might also solve the other two or three problems hinted at above. (Readers are invited to consider what these problems might be, and what two or three solutions other than word order our hypothetical primitive tribe might devise in order to complete its task of creating human language. For detailed discussion, see Swan (2005), or attend the Conference workshop on this topic.

So, to answer the question we started with: grammar is essentially a limited set of devices (perhaps three altogether) for expressing a few kinds of necessary meaning (also perhaps no more than three) that cannot be conveyed by referential vocabulary alone.

If grammar is so simple in principle, then, why is it so complicated in practice? There are several possible reasons.

- Structure generates structure. Once the basic structures of language exist, they can easily be combined into higher-level structures of increasing complexity. (Compare the 0 and 1 of computer programming.)
- When a tool is devised for one purpose, it often turns out to be useful for many others. (Again, think of computers: they have long since spectacularly outgrown their original

function as calculating machines.) Time relations, number or social status don't *have* to be expressed in the grammar; but many languages find it convenient to grammaticalize these and numerous other meanings.

- Simple tidy systems can become increasingly distorted by language change, and new structures can come into a language without driving out old ones that have similar functions, so that over the millennia all languages have developed a good deal of muddle in their grammars.
- Once linguistic complexity has arisen, it may have a certain value for language users. It does not hamper children's learning, and it can contribute to social cohesion: if only the children of your tribe can learn your language perfectly, you know who the outsiders are.

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Michael Swan is a writer specialising in English Language teaching and reference materials. His OUP publications include *Practical English Usage*, *How English Works* and *The Good Grammar Book*. He is also co-author, with Catherine Walter, of the Cambridge English Course series. His most recent books are *Grammar* (Oxford Introduc-

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You've done the research, read the literature, and thought a lot. . .

What next?

Write it up and submit it to *The Language Teacher* of course!
 See the Submissions Page at the back of this issue for more information!