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Outside the Box: A Multi-Lingual Forum

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Call for abstracts: The next issue of the *OTB Forum* is planned for the summer of 2015. The review process is ongoing, so authors are encouraged to submit a short abstract (about 200 words). Please send abstracts to editor@otbforum.net

Share your experiences, thoughts and opinions on language, teaching, and learning! Where? A good place is right here at *Outside the Box: A Multi-Lingual Forum*, a publication from the Foreign Language Center at the University of Tsukuba. We welcome contributions from both students and teachers, young and old, inside and outside the university community, and—as the title suggests—in the language of your choice. The *Outside the Box Forum* is a publication which pertains to all aspects of language learning, other linguistic topics, your research, your experiences as a language learner or teacher, reviews, tips, procedures, and interesting places in cyberspace or the real world. Given the eclectic nature of our contributions, we strive to preserve the unique voices of the individual authors. Thus, certain contributions may represent versions of English. Ideas, questions, techniques, creative writing—let your imagination and your creativity be your guide to creating a dynamic and polyphonic space about language.

From the Editor

Welcome to another issue of *Outside the Box: A Multi-Lingual Forum*, or, in short, the *OTB Forum*. We are pleased to again offer a variety of articles on various topics and from various perspective. *The OTB Forum* focuses on language learning, teaching, and practical applications thereof, but the breadth of the journal is much wider. If you are considering sharing something with us, please check the “Call for abstracts” above; you will also find the publication’s goals in the column immediately to the left.

The first section of this issue, **Articles** (formerly **Theory and Other Dangerous Things**), features two articles. In the first, Jeroen Bode addresses a long-discussed issue of the authorship of the Sherlock Holmes canon. The second article, a lengthy contribution from Christian W. Spang, provides a look at the life and times of Heinz Altschul, a Jewish-German businessman located in Kobe who lived through the turmoil of the Second World War.

In the **Language Learning and Teaching** section, we are pleased to offer five manuscripts that begin with Kiyomi Fujii addressing how blogs can be used to prepare students to study abroad. In the second article, Gavin O’Neill addresses the issue of English as a medium of instruction in university courses in Japan. Next, Shinichi Nagata offers a detailed portrait and insight on himself as a learner of English.

We are much obliged to Professors Normal Fewell and George Robert MacLean for this issue’s special section, **Lessons from OkiJALT**, a series of very practical classroom ideas for foreign language classroom teachers. George Robert MacLean leads off with piece on teaching the troublesome s-morpheme. Kurt Ackermann then provides a thoughtful look at including the notion of ‘place’ in all strands of education, not just geography, and Tokuya Uza addresses the issue of the incursion of vocabulary into Japanese and implications for Japanese culture. Michael Bradley next explains a communicative method of teaching article use. Norman Fewell then walks the reader through using the popular Pecha-Kucha format for presentations, and Fernando Kohatsu explains a method for teaching regular verbs in a Spanish-language piece. Megham Kuckelman’s article presents a website development project, and Tokuya Uza then provides an idea for teaching functional language. Finally, Timothy Kelly ponders some psycho-logical considerations to remain cognizant of while teaching.

In our **Techno Tip**, we will for the first time carry two articles. In the first, Brent Wright provides an enlightening look at creating online questionnaires, and in the second George

Robert MacLean explores the world of text-to-speech, an emerging and potentially very useful tool in the foreign language classroom.

Once more we refer aspiring authors to the “Call for abstracts” on the previous page. The consideration and acceptance of submissions is ongoing, and we encourage students in

particular to contribute. Written works of any length will be considered, and bilingual ones would be just marvelous. Furthermore, we actively encourage reader feedback about the magazine and/or about individual articles.

Furthermore, we invite you to visit us on the Internet at

<http://otbforum.net>

Thanks to the wonders of cyberspace, you’ll find more than just a downloadable, e-version of this publication and previous volumes. Recordings of some contributions to date, especially from the Creative Writing section, are or will be available on the webpage.

Outside the Box: 多言語フォーラム、略して OTB フォーラムへようこそ。今号も、多種多様なトピック、そして様々な視点からの論文を寄稿いただきました。OTB フォーラムは言語学習、教育、そして実践応用などに焦点を当てていますが、この雑誌の扱う分野はさらに広範です。もしご寄稿をお考えであれば、上記の “Call for abstracts” をご覧ください。その左の欄に、この出版物の目指すところについての記載もございます。

今号の最初のセクションは、論説（前号までの「理論や他の危険物」）です。二本の論文を掲載しております。初めに、Jeroen Bode 氏が長い間議論となっていたシャーロックホームズの著者について論じます。次の論文では、Christian W. Spang 氏による長編作において、第二次世界大戦中の混沌の中、神戸に住んでいたユダヤ系ドイツ人ビジネスマンの Heinz Altschul の半生を紹介します。

言語学習と教育のセクションでは、六本の著作を紹介いたします。まず一つ目の論文では、Kiyomi Fujii 氏が、ブログをどのように海外留学の準備として利用することができるかを述べています。次の論文は、二本目の論文では、Gavin O’Neill 氏が、日本の大学における、教授言語としての英語の問題について議論します。次の論文では、最後の論文では、Shinichi Nagata 氏が彼自身の英語学習について詳細な描写と洞察について論じます。

今号の特別セクションである、**沖縄 JALT** からの**教訓**においては、Norman Fewell 教授と George Robert MacLean 教授に格別の感謝を申し上げたいと思います。両著者は外国語教員が教室で使える数々の実践的なアイデアを提示してくださいました。George Robert MacLean 氏がまず、問題となることの多い s-形態素の教え方について紹介します。Kurt Ackermann 氏は次に、教育のすべての場面で、

地理学的な意味だけではない「場」を取り入れる方法について考察します。Tokuzo Uza 氏は語彙の日本語への侵入している問題について議論し、日本文化への応用法を議論します。次に、Michael Bradley 氏が、冠詞の用法のコミュニケーションな教授法について紹介します。Norman Fewell 氏は次に、有名な Pecha-Kucha のプレゼンテーション様式を紹介いたします。そして、Fernando Kohatsu 氏がスペイン語の普通動詞の教授法について紹介いたします。

Megham Kuckelman 氏の論文では、ウェブサイト作成プロジェクトについて言及しています。そして Tokuya Uza 氏が、機能的言語の教授法について紹介しています。最後に、Timothy Kelly 氏が教育現場における、心理学的知見からの注意点について議論します。

今号の **Techno Tip** では史上初、二本の論文を掲載しました。一本目は、Brent Wright 氏がオンライン質問紙の作成について言及しています。そして二本目は George Robert MacLean 氏がテキスト音声化プログラムについて、その紹介と外国語教育での潜在的利用価値について議論します。

繰り返しとなりますが、寄稿をお考えの方は、前頁にあります **Call for abstracts** をご覧ください。査読と認可は継続的に行っております。特に学生からの投稿を奨励いたします。著作はどの長さのものでも掲載を考慮されます。また、バイリンガルの著作は特に奨励されます。そして、読者からのフィードバックもぜひともお寄せください。雑誌全体的なことや、もしくは個々の記事へのフィードバックも受け付けております。

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して過去の寄稿されたものの記録、特に **Creative Writing** セクションのものがウェブページでご覧になれます。



Articles

(formerly Theory and Other Dangerous Things)

A Case of (Mistaken?) Identity: The Authorship Controversy Surrounding the Sherlock Holmes Canon

Jeroen Bode

Tsukuba University

Abstract: In recent Sherlockian studies one of the most intriguing questions deals with the issue of who the actual author is of the Sherlock Holmes canon. In the regular reference sources, ranging from the traditional forms like the Britannica to the modern means of electronic dictionaries or Internet encyclopedias like Wikipedia, Arthur Conan Doyle is regarded as the actual author of the canon. In Sherlockian studies the “true” identity of the author is addressed in subsequent articles that have appeared in the *Baker Street Journal*.

Introduction

In the history of literature there are cases where the authorships are under dispute. Shakespeare’s case has generated a large amount of theories trying to identify the true author behind the works with certain historical individuals. The works of the Bronte sisters at first were published under masculine names to hide the true authorship behind their literary works. In the history of literary works there are cases where other authors hide their true identity by using instead of their own names a *nom de plume* for different reasons. François-Marie Arouet (1694-1778) became better known as Voltaire to escape prosecution for his highly critical writings against established religion and political systems.

Now, with Conan Doyle another type of authorship controversy emerged. Simply put, Conan Doyle is viewed as the ghost author of Dr. Watson’s narrations within certain Sherlockian studies (Klinger, 2009, 2013).

When reading the canon from beginning to end the question that comes up naturally is the identity of the author. Who is the writer, or writers, of the canon? Sherlock Holmes repeatedly throughout the canon (MUSG, RESI, BRUC, BLANC) refer to Watson as his biographer, although he himself recorded merely a couple of cases (BLANC, LION). This means that Watson wrote except for these two the other 58 stories (Klinger, 2013,

Bode, J. (2014). A case of (mistaken?) identity: The authorship controversy surrounding the Sherlock Holmes canon. *OTB Forum*, 7(1), 7-13.

Vol. 1, p. xlvi). There are stories that follow a slightly modified process (STUD, VALL).

In this short monograph I would like to introduce some possible viewpoints with regard to the two main and recurrent characters in the canon. Also addressing the weak-points of identity studies published within the Baker Street Journal for establishing a new theory on the authorship of canon.

Literature Review

In general available reference sources on the subject of Conan Doyle, Sherlock Holmes, or John Watson (Herbert, 1999, pp. 124-125, 223-224, 491), the author of the Sherlock Holmes canon has been recognized as Arthur Conan Doyle. Redmond (2009, p. 49) summarises his thoughts on the subject as follows: “If Holmes is Arthur Conan Doyle’s mentor, Joseph Bell, surely Watson is Doyle himself.”

This shows that Redmond considers Holmes as well as Watson as fictional characters and it follows a line of thought that has been accepted for a long period of time. To this viewpoint, another optional theory in the Sherlockian/Holmesian studies has been updated by Leslie Klinger in his Baker Street Journal (BSJ) article on John H. Watson (Klinger, 2013, pp. 36-45) with regard to the authorship issue of the canon. He bases his research on an actual correspondence between Conan Doyle and Watson. This correspondence is partially available in a separate volume published by the same journal (2009). Such a correspondence would automatically infer a correspondence between two contemporaneous persons at the time. At

present this particular 2009 article is out of print making it difficult to accept a most thought provoking theory, which would make Conan Doyle the ghost-writer of Watson. Klinger has stated that he is planning to compile his articles in a single volume (Klinger, personal communication, March 21, 2014). The correspondence I had with the Houghton Library in early June of 2014 confirms my initial doubts about the correspondence between Conan Doyle and Watson. Houghton library revealed that the correspondence is in fact a pastiche (Houghton library, personal communication, June 5, 2014) The suggestions I make hereafter should be considered as a basic requirements for authorship claims the Sherlock Holmes canon.

Optional possibilities of the identity of John H. Watson

In the previous section I introduced two possible identities of John H. Watson depending on what personal theory individual researchers embrace. Redmond suggests the more accepted viewpoint that Watson is a fictional character, while Klinger considers him to be a real historical person living in the same period of time as Conan Doyle. Linsenmeyer (1978) also describes Watson as such, in particular when he was in India according to the description of Sir Robert Baden-Powell. There is, actually, one more way of looking at Watson: He is based on a historical person. In that case, it is not correct to put him in the same category as a fictional character, since he is then a composite character and cannot be considered fully as a fictional creation. In summary, to simplify the complex issue the categories shown in Table 1 could be helpful for considering the following available material and other

Table 1. *Possible Identities of Dr. John H. Watson*

Identity	Specific Identity	Source
Watson is a historical person		
	Conan Doyle = ghost writer of Dr. Watson	Klinger (2013, pp. 36-45)
	Watson as “Hoghunter Sahib” [based on Sir Robert Baden-Powell remarks]	Linsenmeyer (1978, pp. 12-15)
Watson is based on a historical person		
	Watson is based on Conan Doyle, or his secretary, Major Woods.	Costello (1991, p. 49)
Watson is the fictional author		
	Watson is based on Conan Doyle’s creativity as a literary product	O’Brien (2013, p. 25)

Note. A classification of the state of present Watson studies with representative studies.

material the reader might find in further researches.

Discussion

At present the question on authorship of the canon is unresolved and might need further research. One direction which could support Klinger’s research and findings further would be whether independent sources confirm the existence of John H. Watson in history through school, university, and army records. As for the claim on the “true” authorship of the canon, this is an issue which needs to be confirmed through other means. Questions that come to mind include, if Watson is a real person why he never came forward with his own records or why Conan Doyle kept the correspondence with Watson completely private even later in life. If Watson is the “true” author of the canon, what would that say about Conan Doyle’s other writings. It is hard to believe that Conan Doyle would be satisfied of being the author only in name. Through perhaps forensic linguistics (Olsson, 2008) the “whole oeuvre” of Conan Doyle could be investigated whether there are discrepancies in style and personal touch between the Sherlock Holmes canon and the other literary products of Conan Doyle. Klinger (2009, p. 133) refers to a few possible candidates without actually being concerned with forensic linguistics himself. He states the following works as truly written by Conan Doyle: *The Tragedy of Korosko*, *The Exploits of Brigadier Gerard*, *Rodney Stone*, and *The Stark Munro Letters*.

Comparison canon with another Conan Doyle literary source

To actually do a valid forensic linguistic investigation, as mentioned above, it is necessary to work with the complete oeuvre and avoid looking at a singular case. But, as an example that gave to me the initial spark to consider the issue in this light came from the Jack Tracy edition of *Strange Studies from Life and Other Narratives* (1988). The book has been divided into two parts. It starts with three narratives on the subject of three actual (criminal) cases in the 19th century that appeared in the Strand magazine in 1901 (p. xvii), followed by two narratives published in different journals (p. 47) and two short monographs. One is on the history of duels in France from a legal standpoint, while the second one is on the application of spiritualism within the field of crime investigations. This section of the book contains material that was actually published before 1901. It seems the editor gave the Strand-publication a higher priority than the publications in the other journals, although the last monograph also appeared in the Strand magazine in 1920.

The editor introduces Arthur Conan Doyle as the author of many “tales” and “stories” (p. xiv), including Sherlock Holmes. The Watson authorship does not appear to be considered as such by this editor.

In one of the narratives of the 1988 studies, there is the following statement, which expresses a similar idea also present in one of the Sherlock Holmes adventures. From this as one out of possibly a multitude of cases in the Conan Doyle oeuvre forensic linguistic could assist to determine if there is validity to Klinger’s assertions.

In *The Bravo of Market-Drayton* (p. 49) the statement under consideration runs as follows:

The traveller who in the days of our grandfathers... was deeply impressed by the Arcadian simplicity of the peasants, and congratulated himself that innocence, long pushed out of the cities, could still find a refuge amid these peaceful scenes. Most likely he would have smiled incredulously had he been informed that neither in the dens of Whitechapel nor in the slums of

Birmingham was morality so lax or human life so cheap as in the fair region which he was admiring.

Not a literal equivalent is present in the Sherlock Holmes canon, but a similar way of juxtaposition is at work in the following statement from *The Adventure of the Copper Beeches* (Conan Doyle, 2007, p. 277).

You [Watson] look at these scattered houses and you are impressed by their beauty. I [Sherlock Holmes] look at them, and the only thought which comes to me is a feeling of their isolation, and of the impunity with which crime may be committed there.

This of course not enough to conclude either way the authorship, but if Sherlock Holmes is not Conan Doyle’s creation, it should show up that the stylistic idiosyncrasy between Conan Doyle and Watson are wide apart in the best case scenario. However, the practical problem is what can actually be considered as genuine writing by Conan Doyle, and what can be considered as genuine samples by Watson. From that point on forensic linguistics will be possible. Without this as a prerequisite any further forensic investigation will not be able to proceed further.

Additionally, in Klinger’s article it becomes clear that the correspondence were manually produced, however actually samples of these are not given as illustrative material in the text, or outside the text in appendixes, which could take away some of the doubt raised by the statement regarding the anonymous benefactor of the correspondence. There still are doubts due to other instances. In one case where the phraseology such as Watson’s praise for Conan Doyle’s White Company: “It is splendid stuff” (Klinger, 2009, p. 128). It sounds a tad to modern for a 19th century medical doctor.

Why would Watson use an address number (Klinger, 2009, p. 120) not existent at the time (Sinclair, 2009, pp. 50-60)? Granted that Watson perhaps wanted to hide the real address of the Baker Street dwellings of Holmes and Watson, it looks singular to use it in correspondence between two colleagues. It could, of course, have been used by Watson as private amusement between him and Conan Doyle. Without any reference to

supporting material it is not possible to deduce if their relation warranted such a light exchange manner within their correspondence. Actually, 221B was established much later, around 1930, by the extension and renumbering of Baker Street with Upper Baker Street (Sinclair, 2009, p. 53).

Forensic method for authorship comparison of the Sherlock Holmes canon

Olsson (2008, p. 3) explains forensic linguistics succinctly in the following way, and authorship comparison is therein a sub-concern.

Forensic linguistics is, rather, the application of linguistic knowledge to a particular social setting, namely the legal forum (from which the word forensic is derived). In its broadest sense we may say that forensic linguistics is the interface between language, crime and law, where law includes law enforcement, judicial matters, legislation, disputes or proceedings in law, and even disputes which only potentially involve some infraction of the law or some necessity to seek a legal remedy.

Authorship identification or authorship attribution is, according to Olsson (2008), almost impossible to reach. With authorship comparison it is a matter of probability rather than factuality (pp. 44-45). On a basic level of investigation, as stated in the previous paragraph, genuine texts of both Conan Doyle and Dr. Watson would be an essential requirement. Olsson refers to this point as known texts (p. 58) for comparison. The correspondence as referred to by Klinger (2013) could help to establish a baseline of both authors if the correspondence between them is clearly differentiated by signatures. From there the actual investigation can commence on other genuine works of Conan Doyle and Dr. Watson with the Sherlock Holmes canon as the main text for comparison. This is already quite complicated, but with forensic linguistics it becomes even more a matter of specialist research with the interwoven levels of language (lexical, syntactic, and morphological) at work as indicators. Quantitative research into the

markedness (linguistic particularities in individual language usage) of the canon is necessary with regard to non-standard and unusual language. With this markedness as a recurrent feature throughout the text and the other assumed texts by the same author, the outcome could only be a higher degree of possibility for one particular author than the other in comparison. Authorship identification or attribution will not be an attainable goal from the outset. The canon is distinctive in its marked 19th-century linguistic development, quite distinctive from present-day English. The reason that a forensic method is suggested in this article is because Sherlock Holmes canon has become a forensic text since Klinger (2013) addresses the controversy of its authorship. The canon started as a series of Sherlock Holmes adventures (in total, 60 in number), but evolved into forensic text material for the study of authorship controversies. Coulthard (2000) describes basic methods with examples from three text types. The first type deals with police records of suspects' statements, the second type with student essays and plagiarism, and the third type with co-writing publications. He suggests (p. 282) the Winter/Wool method to include also "average sentence length" and "lexical richness" as indicators for individual styles. Singular vocabulary use is problematic when for instance academic papers on a single subject share similar vocabulary (p. 280). These methods include mainly quantitative methods wherein a common number could signify a higher possibility for a particular author from a small number of candidates (p. 271). For the Canon Doyle/Watson issue the methods could be implemented with control group writings (p. 284) of both authors.

Conclusion

In this article I introduced an issue regarding the authorship of the Sherlock Holmes canon. According to different sources the authorship has been attributed to either Conan Doyle or his contemporary Dr. Watson. However, the issue is still unresolved and should be further researched. For that purpose I suggested sources and documents that were independent of Sherlockian sources. As a

research method, forensic linguistics, which studies text in legal or criminal setting; authorship disputes is one such area where forensic linguistics are involved and could possibly offer further insights to the research.

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About the author: Jeroen Bode began working at Tsukuba University as a lecturer in 2005 and was promoted to an assistant professor in 2012. From 2007 he began working as an independent official translator of Japanese. His translation work led him to redirect his attention to applied language skills during the process of translating and let to include forensic linguistics as his major academic interests. He received his M.A. in Japanese language and culture in 1996 from Leiden University in the Netherlands.

Appendix

The appendix from Redmond (2009, pp. 322-323) has been included here for its clear representation of the titles with their customary abbreviations. Reprinted with permission.

APPENDIX

THE SIXTY TALES

EACH STORY TITLE IS LISTED (with its conventional ABBREVIATION, devised by early Sherlockian scholar Jay Finley Christ, in capitals) along with its date of first publication.

A **STUDY** in Scarlet¹ [December] 1887

The **SIGN** of the Four^{1 2} February 1890

THE ADVENTURES OF SHERLOCK HOLMES

A **SCANDAL** in Bohemia July 1891
The **RED-Headed** League August 1891
A Case of **IDEN**trity September 1891
The **BOSCOMBE** Valley Mystery October 1891
The **FIVE** Orange Pips November 1891
The Man with the **TWISTED** Lip December 1891
²The **BLUE** Carbuncle January 1892
²The **SPECKLED** Band February 1892
²The **ENGINEER'S** Thumb March 1892
²The **NOBLE** Bachelor April 1892
²The **BERYL** Coronet May 1892
²The **COPPER** Beeches June 1892

THE MEMOIRS OF SHERLOCK HOLMES

¹**SILVER** Blaze December 1892
²The **YELLOW** Face February 1893
²The **STOCK**-broker's Clerk March 1893
²The "**GLORIA** Scott" April 1893
²The **MUSGRAVE** Ritual May 1893
²The **REIGATE** Squires⁴ June 1893
²The **CROOKED** Man July 1893
²The **RESIDENT** Patient August 1893
²The **GREEK** Interpreter September 1893
²The **NAVAL** Treaty October–November 1893
²The **FINAL** Problem December 1893

The **HOUND** of the Baskervilles¹ August–April 1901–02

APPENDIX: THE SIXTY TALES

THE RETURN OF SHERLOCK HOLMES

¹ The EMPTy House	September 1903
² The NORWood Builder	October 1903
³ The DANCing Men	December 1903
⁴ The SOLItary Cyclist	December 1903
⁵ The PRIOrY School	January 1904
⁶ BLACK Peter	February 1904
⁷ CHARleS Augustus Milverton	March 1904
⁸ The SIX Napoleons	April 1904
⁹ The Three (3) STUdents	June 1904
¹⁰ The GOLDen Pince-Nez	July 1904
¹¹ The MISSing Three-Quarter	August 1904
¹² The ABBEY Grange	September 1904
¹³ The SECONd Stain	December 1904
The VALLEy of Fear ¹	September–May 1914–15

HIS LAST BOW

WISTeria Lodge ²	August 1908
³ The CARDboard Box ⁴	January 1893
⁵ The RED Circle ⁷	March–April 1911
⁶ The BRUCe-Partington Plans	December 1908
⁸ The DYING Detective	November 1913
The Disappearance of LADY Frances Carfax	December 1911
⁹ The DEVil's Foot	December 1910
His LAST Bow ⁸	September 1917

THE CASE-BOOK OF SHERLOCK HOLMES

¹ The ILLUstrious Client	November 1924
² The BLANched Soldier	October 1926
³ The MAZArin Stone	October 1921
⁴ The Three (3) GABLEs	September 1926
⁵ The SUSSEX Vampire	January 1924
⁶ The Three (3) GARridebs	October 1924
The Problem of THOR Bridge	February 1922
⁷ The CREEping Man	March 1923
⁸ The LION's Mane	November 1926
⁹ The VEILed Lodger	January 1927
¹⁰ SHOScombe Old Place	March 1927
¹¹ The RETIred Colourman	December 1926

1 Novel length; others are short stories.

2 In many editions, just *The Sign of Four*.

3 In the original publication, "The Adventure of" preceded this title.

4 In its earliest publication, "The Reigate Squire"; in most American editions, "The Reigate Puzzle."

5 Formally, "The Adventure of Wisteria Lodge." First published as "The Singular Experience of Mr. John Scott Eccles: A Reminiscence of Mr. Sherlock Holmes."

6 Appeared in the earliest book edition of *The Memoirs*, in its appropriate chronological place, but suppressed thereafter, and introduced into *His Last Bow* twenty years later.

7 Originally subtitled "A Reminiscence of Sherlock Holmes."

8 Subtitled "The War Service of Sherlock Holmes" or "An Epilogue of Sherlock Holmes."

Recollections of a Jewish-German Businessman in Early Shōwa Japan

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This article is based on a recent edition of the remembrances of a German merchant, who spent more than fifteen years in Kobe between 1926 and 1946. Despite his German background, Heinz Altschul recorded his memories in English because the family emigrated from Japan to the USA, where he died in 1991 at the age of 88, two years after dictating his recollections into a regular tape recorder.

The above-mentioned edition features an introduction and some closing remarks in German alongside a foreword and an epilogue by Heinz Altschul's son, Dieter Robert. Supported by the German East Asiatic Society (OAG), this book was issued by Iudicium, a Munich-based publisher little known in the English-speaking world. To bring this story to a wider audience, the current article aims at promoting the following book:

Nikola Herweg, Thomas Pekar, and Christian W. Spang (Eds.). (2014). *Heinz Altschul: As I Record These Memories ... Die Erinnerungen eines deutschen Kaufmanns in Kobe (1926-29, 1934-46)*. Munich: Iudicium.

1) A brief outline of Japanese-German contacts until 1945¹

Some Germans reached Japan during the “*sakoku*” (closed country) or “*kaikin*” (maritime prohibitions) era (1639-1854), when the country was inaccessible to most foreigners.² The first known German active in Japan was Hans Wolfgang Braun, who produced some simple cannons for the Tokugawa Shogunate in 1639/40 (Weber, 2004). More famous are his two successors, Engelbert Kämpfer (1690-1692) (Bodart-Bailey, 1999; Bodart-Bailey & Massarella, 1995) and Philip Franz von Siebold (1823-30) (Plutschow, 2007; Siebold, 1975), who were also employed by the Dutch East India Company, the “*Vereenigde Oostindische Compagnie*” (VOC). From the mid-17th to the mid-19th century, the protestant Dutch were the only Westerners allowed to trade with Japan, an exchange that took place on a small artificial island called Deshima, located in Nagasaki, far away from Edo (Tokyo), the center of Tokugawa power. After their return to Europe, Kämpfer and Siebold both published extensively about Japan and can be interpreted as founding fathers of Western Japanese studies.

Apart from these famous but unofficial German representatives in Japan, the 150th anniversary of bilateral relations was celebrated in 2011. The first Japanese-German treaty was, in fact, concluded between the Tokugawa Shogunate and a Prussian delegation in 1861, i.e., at a time when a German nation state did not yet exist. It was only after the Franco-German War of 1870/71 that the Wilhelmine Empire was established by adding the southern German Kingdoms of Bavaria and Württemberg along with the Grand Duchies of Baden and Hesse to the North German Confederation (*Norddeutscher Bund*), which in turn had been formed in 1867, following Prussia's victory in the Austro-Prussian War (1866).

After the conclusion of the Prusso-Japanese Treaty of 24 January 1861, bilateral relations developed rather slowly because the German side showed little interest beyond trading. Bismarck and other politicians mostly focused on unifying Germany and dealing with European affairs. It was thus no coincidence that it took a further two and a half decades before Germany got its first colony in 1885, but by 1900, the Wilhelmine Reich controlled the third biggest colonial empire in

Spang, C. W. (2015). Recollections of a Jewish-German businessman in early Showa Japan. <i>OTB Forum</i> , 7(1), 14-30.

¹ For a more comprehensive but still concise overview, please refer to Spang (2015).

² In fact, Japan continued to have some contacts with the outside world even before the mid-19th century. Limited diplomatic as well as trade relations existed with China, Korea, and the Netherlands.

Africa, Asia and the Pacific.³

In the 1870s and 80s, the Iwakura mission as well as Itō Hirobumi and other influential Japanese spent some time in Germany, inquiring about military and constitutional matters, leading to the hiring of German advisors and to a rather close resemblance between the Wilhelmine constitution of 16 April 1871 and the Meiji constitution of 11 February 1889 (Takii, 2007). The 1880s and early 90s are therefore often considered the “golden age” of bilateral relations. The German influence on the Japanese army and the educational system as well as on geography, law, medicine, music, and philosophy dates from this period.⁴

The subsequent decades proved to be more complicated due to Germany’s new emperor Wilhelm II and his worldwide aspirations, the so-called *Weltpolitik*. Considerations about European alliances led to Berlin’s participation in the “Triple Intervention”, in which Russia, France and Germany forced the Meiji government to give up its plan to acquire Port Arthur (now part of Dalian, China) on the Liaodong Peninsula after winning the first Sino-Japanese War (1894-95). Following this move, which came as a shock to Japanese politicians, diplomatic relations were strained while bilateral trading continued to grow.⁵ Equally, academic exchange developed reasonably well, with many Japanese students going to Germany for advanced studies (Hartmann, 2005); most prominent among those were aspiring medical doctors. Without a good command of German it was nearly impossible to study medicine in Meiji Japan because the whole syllabus was structured along German lines, with many classes taught in German using textbooks written by German scholars.⁶

In 1914, the *Nichi-Doku Sensō* (Japanese-German War) over Germany’s Kiaochow concession, with Qingdao as its center, ended with the capitulation of the less than 5.000 defenders of this tiny European outpost on the Chinese coast, leading to their imprisonment as POWs in Japan, where they were mostly treated in accordance with the stipulations of the Hague conventions.⁷ The Versailles Treaty of 1919 stipulated that Germany relinquish its colonial empire while accepting a vastly diminished scope of military power. The country was thus too weak to be of any interest to the leaders of Taishō and early Shōwa Japan, a country that had been internationally accepted as one of the world’s great powers since winning the Russo-Japanese War (1904/05).

Despite this, contacts between military representatives of both countries continued to be rather close.⁸ The reestablishment of trade relations was more complicated because Japan’s fast economic development combined with the effects of World War I meant that many Japanese companies now competed with German ones in Asia but had the advantage of being cheaper and closer to the customer. Moreover, Japanese imports had in many places supplanted Western imports during the

³ Here, only classical overseas colonialism is taken into account. Besides Britain and France, Germany’s colonial rivals included Belgium, Denmark, the Netherlands, Spain, Portugal and the USA.

⁴ See *Ferne Gefährten*, 2011, and 日独交流史編集委員会編, 2013, for some of the most recent scholarship on bilateral relations in German and Japanese. One largely overlooked aspect of bilateral relations are dictionaries. For a brief account of Japanese dictionaries of German military terminology, see the two forthcoming papers by the author (in press).

⁵ See the German and Japanese version of Katja Schmidtpott’s chapter on bilateral trade published in the volumes mentioned in the preceding note: 2011, pp. 72-75 (German) and 2013, pp. 46-49 (Japanese).

⁶ A closer look at Hoppner/Sekikawa, 2005, reveals the predominant role of medicine within bilateral (academic) exchanges. Amongst 52 bridge-builders (*Brückenbauer*) introduced in this book, no less than 14 (27%) had a medical background.

⁷ For information about the stipulations of the 1907 Hague Convention regarding POWs, see the Annex to the Convention: Regulations Respecting the Laws and Customs of War on Land – Section I: On Belligerents – Chapter II: Prisoners of War – Regulations: Art. 4 (<http://www.icrc.org/ihl.nsf/INTRO/195>, retrieved 11 February 2014). There are plenty of works about German prisoners of war in Japan. Recently, Mahon Murphy (LSE) spoke about this topic at the German Institute for Japanese Studies (DIJ). The DIJ homepage provides a recording of his talk under the following URL: http://www.dijTokyo.org/events/prisoners_of_war_from_tsingtao_during_the_first_world_war (retrieved 9 Feb. 2014). See also the bilingual (German/Japanese) virtual exhibition about the most famous Japanese POW camp (Bandō) at the DIJ homepage: <http://bando.dijTokyo.org/?lang=de> (retrieved 9 February 2014).

⁸ Saaler, 2006, describes why the Japanese army stuck to the German model even after Germany lost World War I. Karl Haushofer and his network of contacts provided important links between academic, diplomatic and military circles in Germany and Japan during the interwar years. See Spang, 2013b, for further details. With regard to navy relations, Sander-Nagashima, 2006, provides the necessary background.

war, when Germany, Britain and France (1914-18) as well as the USA (1917/18) had been busy fighting each other.

It was mostly due to the successful activities of Dr. Wilhelm Solf, the first ambassador of the Weimar Republic in Tokyo that relations between Japan and Germany returned to a positive footing. Solf was heavily involved in the foundation of two bilateral cultural institutes in Berlin and Tokyo in 1926/27. These institutes, along with the creation of chairs of Japanese Studies in Hamburg (1914) and Leipzig (1932), were attempts to deal with the imbalance between the few Germans able to read, speak and write Japanese and the high number of Japanese who were interested in German language and culture. During his tenure as German ambassador (1920-28), Solf gained the respect of the Japanese, so that Tokyo asked the German foreign office to extend his stay in Japan because they wanted him to act as doyen (dean) of the diplomatic corps at the official inauguration of Emperor Hirohito as Shōwa Tennō in November 1928.⁹

The slow but steady increase in German interest in Japan led not only to the establishment of the already mentioned institutes in both capitals but also to the foundation of a *Kulturinstitut* in Kyoto in 1934. Furthermore, the 1930s saw the first regular German exchange students coming to Japan. Many of them later returned to Japan as diplomats, teachers or merchants.¹⁰

Due to Japan's victory over Russia in 1904/05 and the widely held image of the Japanese nation as being racially pure, Hitler and his party favored Japan over China.¹¹ Nevertheless, the Nazi seizure of power in January 1933 did not have an immediate impact on bilateral relations, due to a lack of interest in Tokyo. Japan was not only concerned about Nazi racism, but – due to the Versailles stipulations – Germany was too weak to attract much attention among Japanese politicians. Only after Nazi racism was somehow sorted out by the Nuremberg race laws (1935), which identified the Jews as the only inferior race (thus transforming most others to “honorary Aryan” status)¹², the reestablishment of conscription and the build-up of German military power, did the Third Reich gain more attention in Tokyo. The fact that both countries left the League of Nations in 1933 had already created some kind of awareness on both sides.

It would be wrong, though, to assume that German-Japanese Axis relations, initiated by the conclusion of the Anticomintern Pact in November 1936, remained steadfast and solid until 1945. In fact, the pact against the Third Communist International (Comintern, established 1919) was joined by Italy (1937) and some other states but became obsolete after Nazi foreign minister Joachim von Ribbentrop and his Soviet counterpart, Vyacheslav Molotov, concluded the Treaty of Non-Aggression between the Third Reich and the Soviet Union (commonly known as the “Hitler-Stalin Pact”) in August 1939 in Moscow. Approaching the USSR in such a way was a tactical maneuver in preparation for the later surprise attack in June 1941, but as Japan was informed neither about the preceding negotiations nor about Hitler's real intentions, the new treaty was interpreted as a breach of the earlier Anticomintern Pact. The Hiranuma cabinet resigned and diplomatic relations between Berlin and Tokyo came to a temporary standstill. Instead, Japan tried to negotiate some kind of arrangement with the Western powers, an effort that did not lead anywhere because Washington and its allies demanded Japan's withdrawal from China, while Tokyo was not prepared to offer concessions on such a scale.

It was due to events in Europe that German-Japanese relations improved again: After the *Wehrmacht* occupied much of Western Europe, Japan began to consider a potential take-over of

⁹ Despite the fact that Solf played a very important role within German-Japanese relations after World War I, the only biography (Vietsch, 1961) about Solf, who had been governor of German Samoa, Colonial and Foreign Minister before coming to Tokyo, is more than 50 years old and not very informative about his time in Japan.

¹⁰ Ehmcke & Pantzer, 2000, present the remembrance of some 22 Germans, who lived in Japan during the early Shōwa era. Richard Breuer (pp. 117-133) und Franz Krapf (pp. 148-158) are two of those who returned to Japan as diplomats, the latter as West German ambassador (1966-71).

¹¹ There is no doubt that Karl Haushofer played an important role in creating Hitler's positive image of Japan. For further details see Spang, 2013b, pp. 385-393.

¹² The Nuremberg Laws were officially announced in September 1935 at the 7th Nazi party convention and were followed by supplementary decrees later that year, extending the scope of the law to gypsies and people of dark complexion.

French and Dutch colonies in Southeast Asia. To safeguard such a move, the Japanese government wanted to make sure that the Third Reich would not interfere. Therefore, in early autumn 1940, Tokyo approached Berlin (and Rome), leading to the Tripartite Pact, which was aimed at the United States, because the signatories hoped that Washington would be afraid of getting involved in a war in the Atlantic and in the Pacific at the same time. In fact, the war in Europe had direct repercussions on the German community in Japan because the colonial administration of Dutch East India retaliated first by interning all Germans before women and children were allowed to leave – mostly for Shanghai and Kobe, where the majority of them stayed until 1947. Their arrival and life in the Japanese harbor town is reflected in Altschul's recollections as well (pp. 56, 88, 116).¹³

After the outbreak of hostilities between the Third Reich and the Soviet Union in Europe as well as between Japan and the USA in the Pacific, Germany and Japan were fighting alongside each other but there was barely any common military strategy. Despite the fact that Hitler had declared war on the USA after the Pearl Harbor attacks, Germany's main enemy remained the USSR, at least until the opening of a second front in Normandy in 1944. Japan again was mostly occupied by its fight against China and the USA. While Germany was conquered during 1944/45, leading to the Third Reich's unconditional surrender in May 1945, it took a further three months before Hirohito announced the end of the Pacific War on August 15 – after two atomic bombs had destroyed Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

This short overview shows that relations between Germany and Japan have seen many changes and have meandered between cooperation and opposition, depending on the area under scrutiny. There has never been a straight connection between Germany's influences on Meiji Japan's modernization and the attempt to challenge the post-World War I status quo in Europe and Asia, initiated by radical circles in Berlin and Tokyo.

2) The German community in Japan and the German East Asiatic Society (OAG)

After the opening of the so-called "Treaty Ports", the first German merchants came to Japan. Their number grew considerably after the conclusion of the above-mentioned Prusso-Japanese Treaty. Traders were followed by military and legal advisors along with some professors. Furthermore, there were the diplomatic representatives of Prussia first, then of the North German Federation, and finally of the newly founded Wilhelmine Empire. In the beginning, there was only a consulate in Yokohama (est. 1863). Two years later, the main representative, Max von Brandt, moved his office to Edo (Tokyo) before separate consulates were set up in Yokohama and Kobe in 1872 and 1874, respectively.¹⁴

Within a dozen years after the establishment of official relations between Prussia/Germany and Japan, two German Clubs in Yokohama (*Germania*, est. 1863) and Kobe (*Union*, later *Concordia*, est. 1868) along with the German East Asiatic Society (Deutsche Gesellschaft für Natur- und Völkerkunde Ostasiens, OAG in Tokyo, est. 1873) were founded.¹⁵ Thus, the German communities in the three centers of German life in Japan had organized themselves rather quickly. While the clubs in the port cities focused on social events, the OAG was an academic society which held regular lectures. As there have always been OAG members in Kansai as well, some OAG events have been held in Kobe at times, particularly during the interwar years, when an active OAG group existed in the city.

¹³ The male internees were transferred to British India in early 1942. One of the ships transporting them was sunk by a Japanese plane, killing the 480 Germans onboard. 50 years ago, the German journal *Der Spiegel* reported on this event in two anonymous articles published on 22 December 1965: 42-44 (<http://www.spiegel.de/spiegel/print/d-46275481.html>) and on 6 February 1966: 42-44 (<http://www.spiegel.de/spiegel/print/d-46265597.html>) (both retrieved 3 March 2014).

¹⁴ For an account of the lives and work Germany's top-diplomats in Japan, see Schwalbe & Seemann, 1974. Generalkonsulat der BRD Osaka-Kobe (ed.), 1974, contains much valuable information about the situation of Germans in Kansai. The consulate in Kobe was upgraded to Consulate General in 1922, the one in Yokohama was closed after the great earthquake in 1923. A separate consulate in Osaka existed briefly from 1930 to 1934.

¹⁵ For a list of publications dealing with the history of the OAG, check the following section of the OAG-homepage: <http://www.oag.jp/ueber-die-oag/goag/> (retrieved 9 February 2014). See Spang, Saaler, and Wippich (in press).

From 1873 onwards, the OAG edited its own journal, the *Mitteilungen der OAG (MOAG)*, which was one of the earliest academic journals dealing with East Asiatic topics in a Western language.¹⁶ Because some influential Japanese such as Katsura Tarō and Gotō Shinpei joined the OAG, the society developed into an important center of German-Japanese exchanges (Spang, 2013a).

Even though the OAG was meant to be an academic endeavor, there were always many businessmen among its members, with quite a few of them publishing about Japan and East Asia in the *MOAG* and the *Nachrichten der OAG (NOAG)*, the OAG newsletter.¹⁷ Due to its close relations with the three most important groups within the German community in Japan (i.e., academics, diplomats and traders), the past of the OAG reflects the history of Germans in Japan as well as the state of bilateral relations (Spang, Saaler, & Wippich, in press).

When the “golden era” of German-Japanese relations ended in 1895, it did therefore not take long before the OAG also encountered problems. Early in the 20th century, the society not only saw its membership falling but had difficulties finding enough speakers for its monthly lectures. Many things were reformed thereafter: The society acquired the status of a Japanese legal institution (*shadan hōjin*) in 1904, the traditionally close relations with the German delegation/embassy were loosened in 1907, and from 1909 onwards, OAG events were opened to women on a more regular basis. Thus, the OAG followed the zeitgeist by becoming more democratic and less gender-biased, leading to rising membership figures. During World War I, OAG activities came to a standstill, but the Japanese government did not close the society due to its *shadan hōjin* status.

After the war, many of the former German POWs stayed in Japan. A great number of them joined the OAG, which published some of the works these POWs had written while in Japanese camps. However, the rejuvenated society struggled financially, in part because it had lost some of its operating capital due to the war and German hyperinflation. It was the above-mentioned Wilhelm Solf, who was able to provide some help by transferring money that the Japanese government had confiscated from German nationals during the war to the OAG, which could thus balance out its debts and initiate the already mentioned *NOAG* in 1926 (Spang, 2006).

Nature had intervened three years before, however, and altered the course of events for many Germans in Japan. After the great Kanto earthquake had destroyed much of Tokyo and Yokohama on 1 September 1923, many German companies moved to the Kansai region, where Kobe became the home of hundreds of Germans.¹⁸ During the interwar years, the city and its harbor played an extremely important role in Japan’s international trade. According to reports by the local German Consulate General, Kobe harbor handled no less than 58% of Japan’s imports and 60% of its exports in 1935 (Brümmer, 1974, p. 33).

Among the Germans in Japan, supporters of the Nazi Party (*Nationalsozialistische Deutsche Arbeiterpartei, NSDAP*) did not play any role until 1933, but after the establishment of the first official Nazi group in Japan (*Ortsgruppe Tokyo-Yokohama*) in June of that year, it took only months until many of the other Nazi organizations opened their own branches in Japan; these included the National-Socialist Teachers’ Association (*Nationalsozialistischer Lehrerbund, NSLB*) and the Nazi leisure organization Strength Through Joy (*Kraft-durch-Freude, KdF*). There was even a youth organization along the lines of the infamous *Hitler Jugend (HJ)*, only it was called differently here. In fact, the “Deutsche Jugend Japan” (*DJJ*, German Youth Japan) allowed some children to participate who would not have been able to join the *Hitler Jugend*, due to their family background.

Thus, a growing number of Nazi representatives and party members were able to gain control over most formerly independent German institutions in Japan. In 1935, an NSDAP group in Kansai

¹⁶ The OAG still exists today, with its headquarters in Tokyo. See the bilingual (German/Japanese) homepage www.oag.jp for further details about activities in Tokyo and Kobe. After World War II, a separate OAG was founded in Hamburg, Germany.

¹⁷ Examples of this kind of businessmen were Johannes Barth, Kurt Meissner and Heinz von der Laan, who was an acquaintance of Heinz Altschul. While Vol. 1-70 of the *NOAG* had been published by the OAG in Tokyo (with the exception of Vol. 33 [published in Shanghai]), nowadays, the *NOAG* is published by the OAG Hamburg (see Note 16).

¹⁸ The German School Kobe (est. 1909) saw a rise in student numbers after the earthquake. See Lehmann, 2009, pp. 38-39. According to Brümmer, 1974, p. 31, about 200 Germans lived in the Kobe area in 1923.

(*Ortsgruppe Osaka-Kobe*) was established along with a subgroup (*Stützpunkt*) on Kyushu. Thereafter, a Japan-wide umbrella-organization of the NSDAP (*Landesgruppe Japan*) was set up in Tokyo (Bieber, 2010; Nakamura, 2009).

Despite some resistance by people like the Buddhism-expert Bruno Petzold in Tokyo (Schauwecker, 2009) or the protestant missionary Eugen Hessel in Kyōto and Kobe (Nakamura, 2009, pp. 452-456), the Nazis' influence on the lives of most Germans living in Japan was constantly growing. In 1936, an integrated Nazi-controlled community, the so-called *Deutsche Gemeinde Tokyo-Yokohama*, was established. After that, the OAG, for example, was no longer in control of its own building, which was now run by the *Gemeinde* and called "*Deutsches Haus Tokyo*" (German House Tokyo) (Spang, 2011).

It took the Nazis slightly longer to extend their control over the German community in the Kansai area, partly because numerous Germans explicitly lived in Kobe to avoid interference either from the German embassy or from their company headquarters in Tokyo or Yokohama. Some also entertained reservations vis-à-vis the Nazi movement (Daerr, 1974, p. 16). Nevertheless, two years after streamlining the German community in the Kantō area, all Germans living in Osaka and Kobe were integrated into their own *Gemeinde*. From then on, Nazi control over German life in Japan's big cities became increasingly widespread.¹⁹ One example for this was their outspoken push for anti-Semitic policies. German institutions got rid of anyone who was not Aryan; German companies in Japan were pressured to release Jewish employees. The longer the Third Reich lasted, the more complete became the Nazification of the embassy in Tokyo and the Consulate General in Kobe. In various meetings with their local counterparts, these Nazi diplomats tried to convince Japanese officials to put pressure on local universities to stop employing Jewish scholars and musicians. Because the Japanese never fully understood or subscribed to Nazi racism, this endeavor took much longer than the Nazis would have wished.²⁰

3) Recollections of life in Kobe

Heinz Altschul was born in 1903 in Dresden, Saxony, a place which he describes in his recollections as "one of the most beautiful cities in Europe".²¹ After leaving school, he worked for a while in his father's company before going to Japan on board of the SS Trier (II), a 9415t freighter with some passenger cabins, the first of many adventures to come.²² Altschul vividly describes (p. 19) what it meant to go to East Asia on a budget, i.e., not on board one of the much more luxurious North German Lloyd liners like the famous SS Bremen (IV, 51.656t), which he boarded four years later to get from New York to Hamburg:

The next stop after Suez was Perim at the far end of the Red Sea, not too far from Aden. We stopped there for taking on coal. If there is any hell on earth it must be Perim; there is not a blade of grass, no tree, no bush, only hot, red rock and sand. Our portholes on the steamer

¹⁹ Towards the end of World War II, the German *Gemeinden* in the Kanto and Kansai areas were renamed as *Reichsdeutsche Gemeinschaft*. See Bieber, 2014, pp. 1024-1025.

²⁰ Interesting is a report that the German ambassador to Japan, Eugen Ott, sent to the German Foreign Office on 18 Oct. 1939, pp. 2-3 (See Political Archive of the German Foreign Office, R 61439). In this report, Ott mentions that Honda Kumatarō, a high official in the Japanese Foreign Office, rejected firing Jewish professors with the argument that academic ability, rather than religion, was the main hiring criterion used by Japanese universities. That the Nazi-pressure nevertheless had some effect can be seen by the following example. Karl Löwith, a protestant who was considered Jewish by the Nazis, told one of his acquaintances after the war that the president of the Imperial University in Sendai, where Löwith taught philosophy from 1936 to 1941, was asked by the Japanese Ministry of Culture to fire him. Even though Löwith's boss did not do so, Löwith left Japan in 1941 to go to the USA. See Dietrich Seckel in Ehmcke and Pantzer, 2000, p. 49. Another famous example of non-compliance with Nazi race laws were the actions of Chiune Sugihara, who, as Japanese vice-consul in Lithuania, issued about 6.000 transit visas for Jews, which enabled them to flee from the approaching German *Wehrmacht*.

²¹ This evaluation might have been true before the Allies bombed the city towards the end of World War II (on 13 and 15 February 1945). However, some of the famous old buildings like the *Zwinger*, the *Semperoper* and the *Frauenkirche* have been restored to their former appearance.

²² The *SS Trier (II)* was launched only in 1924, which does not really fit Altschul's description of her as "an old, coal-burning steamer, which was mainly a freighter." Possibly, he meant "old-fashioned".

were all closed tightly to prevent coal dust from entering the different cabins, and then the coaling began. A wretched parade of black men, women and children, loaded with baskets, was bringing up the coal over the gangplank into the bunkers, then returning empty-handed over the other gangplank, and this procedure kept on going for hours on end. I ventured out on deck for a short while and within ten minutes I was as black as the natives who were loading the coals.

After arriving in Kobe on 7 April 1926, Altschul worked for Winckler & Co., a German trading company that still exists. Altschul joined the German Club *Concordia* in Kobe, which had around 170 members in the late 1920s (Refardt, 1956, pp. 23, 29, 31-34). A devoted sailor himself, he got involved with the international community in the Kobe Regatta and Athletic Club (KR&AC).²³ He also enjoyed travelling (with his German DKW bike or by train), hiking, and especially skiing,²⁴ thus seeing a lot of his host country before he left Japan in fall 1929.

After a return trip via the Philippines, Australia, Hawaii, and America, Altschul got back to Germany in the spring of 1930 to rejoin his father's company. In April 1931, he married Emma Johanna (Hanni) Giudice in Dresden, where their only son Dieter Robert (Bob) was born in October 1933. With Hitler coming to power, Altschul's situation changed drastically. His father hailed from a Jewish family and his mother had a Jewish grandfather. Even though Heinz Altschul had been raised as a protestant and religion did not play any important role in his family, the Nazis considered them Jewish. Due to this situation, Altschul accepted an offer by Winckler & Co. to return to his former job in Kobe. He did so with the intention to go back five years later. While he went to Japan in late spring 1934 via New York, his wife and son traveled by boat and arrived in September of that year. Naturally, Altschul's new life in Kobe was different from the one he had enjoyed in the 1920s. Now, he was a married man with a little son. Besides catching up with some of his former acquaintances, he and his wife made some new friends as well.

Pictures 1 & 2

(left) Hanni and Heinz Altschul in the garden of their rented house in Kobe; late 1936.

(right) Heinz and Bob around the same time.



²³ The KR&AC still exists today. See the history section of the club's homepage for an account of its past: <http://www.krac.org/history.html> (retrieved 10 February 2014). In Kobe, the biggest groups of foreigners were the British, the Germans and the Dutch. See Harold S. Williams, 1974, p. 20 and p. 23. Altschul's recollections show that there were also various Swiss businessmen living in Kansai in the 1930s and 40s.

²⁴ In Dresden, Altschul had been a member of the local Rowing Club (Dresdner Ruderverein) and its ski department. In the OAG archive in Tokyo, some correspondence between the club and Altschul is available. On 25 May 1934 they told him that they were happy to list him as an external member, but on 30 March 1936 Heinz Altschul's brother Rudolf reported that the club was about to delete both of them from the membership lists because they were considered Jewish. See Herweg, in Herweg, Pekar, and Spang, 2014, pp. 130-131.

Things went smoothly in Kobe until the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese War in 1937. According to Altschul's recollections, the war on the continent took its toll on people's everyday life quicker than one would expect (p. 43):

The war in China made itself felt by certain shortages of items in Japan itself. For example, I recall that gasoline was limited and distributed by quotas as early as 1938. I remember a beautiful three-day trip in my car [a 1934 Ford Model 40B roadster] with a good friend of mine, Dr. [Henry] Wohlrab, through the Yamato Peninsula carrying our own gasoline [...] in the trunk of the car and between our legs in the front, just to be sure we would not run out of gasoline; and we did not. Trucks and buses in Japan were gradually converted from gasoline-burning to wood-gas and charcoal-gas burning, and many of the Kobe buses, trucks and taxis were gradually equipped with wood-burning stoves. The lack of power of these converted vehicles made driving difficult in the hilly streets of Kobe, and going uphill was quite often very slow.

Until 1938, Heinz Altschul was able to work and live without much interference by the local Nazis. Yet, when their number and influence grew, many of his colleagues, acquaintances and even his friends tried to avoid him (in public at least), a behavior for which Altschul later showed a surprising amount of understanding, when saying (p. 65): “[...] relationships had to calm down considerably. [...] I could not blame anyone, because we just were outcasts at that time, and they [...] could not risk any trouble.” It has to be mentioned here again that Altschul had been raised as a protestant and that he and his family did not consider themselves Jewish before Hitler came to power. The following description of Altschul's situation in Kobe shows how Nazi views influenced his life in Japan from the late 1930s onwards (p. 40):

Friends, with whom we had good relationships for years and years, all of a sudden did not know us anymore, or went to the other side of the street when they saw us coming, in fear that if they talked to us, one of the Nazis [...] would immediately retaliate against them; they were just plain scared.

In his recollections, Altschul mentions one particularly striking case where “a super Nazi”, a Mrs. Möbus,²⁵ complained about an acquaintance of the Altschuls, who moved into their house for some time in 1939 (p. 41) while Heinz, Hanni and Bob were on a trip to the United States (pp. 65-66):

To show how difficult and troublesome it could be for other people if they had any contact with us, I remember a situation with a Miss Paula Jantzen, who used to be a secretary at Winckler & Co. when I was there beginning in 1926 [...]. She [later] found a job at the German consulate in Kobe. Sometime after that, my family and I went on vacation, and she indicated that she would like to live in our house while we were away. I thought this was a good idea: our servant was there, the house would be lived in, and she knew us very well, and so she moved in. We were far away and had no connections with her. However, one of the other women who worked in the consulate, a super Nazi, reported that Miss Jantzen had moved into the house of a Jew, and eventually Miss Jantzen lost her job at the consulate. It was apparently sufficient that she lived in a house, which belonged to us at that time. So you could not blame people for staying away from us, because nobody knew what might eventually happen to them if they associated with us.

Due to these circumstances, Altschul left the Club *Concordia* and the KR&AC around 1938 or 1939 (p. 40). Other Jews and the few anti-Nazis in Japan had been excluded from German

²⁵ Even though Altschul knew the name, he did not mention it in his recollections. See Herweg, in: Herweg, Pekar, Spang, 2014, pp. 138-139. In a letter addressed to Heinz Altschul, his friend Arthur Pawlenka not only mentioned the name of the “super Nazi” but told Altschul more details about Mrs. Möbus' commitment to Nazi ideals. See Pawlenka to Altschul, 15 February 1983, OAG Archive, Tokyo.

institutions much earlier, leading to a strong feeling of isolation for many of them.²⁶ In Altschul's case, his family and some foreign friends allowed him to get through this period without affecting his positive approach to life. Generally, the situation of Jews in Japan largely depended on their employers, who were often pressured either by the local representatives of the Nazi Party, the German embassy or by Japanese officials to release their Jewish-German employees. Yet, quite a few companies resisted these demands for some time at least. Winckler & Co. was in this sense just one example. But finally, they had to release Altschul. Yet they did this not without arranging for some money to be paid to him on a monthly basis:²⁷

1938/39 (p. 41): “[...] Winckler & Co., for whom I worked, started to get into trouble as they were pestered constantly by the Nazis to do something about me, to get rid of me or whatever, and they had a hard time at the beginning.”

1939-41 (p. 44): “My firm Winckler & Co. was put under constant pressure to get rid of me, or to at least limit my working time at the offices as much as possible. Winckler & Co. had to be very careful, and told me that I should try to stay away as much as possible so as not to get them into any difficulties. Later, shortly before the war started [in the Pacific] in December 1941, I began staying away completely, and was no longer officially on the staff of Winckler & Co.”

1941/42 (p. 46): “Mrs. Selig, the wife of one of the senior partners, told the office to pay me a hundred yen every month out of her personal account as long as these conditions existed, and I will never forget her generosity. It was a great help, but not sufficient to pay for our living expenses.”

Altschul made some of the most fascinating observations in the late 1930s when he was still working for Winckler & Co. After the outbreak of the second Sino-Japanese War (1937-45), he noticed remarkable psychological changes within former Japanese colleagues when they revisited the company after having spent some time in the Imperial Army or Navy. Following this impressive account, Altschul reports how the remains of the war dead were brought back to their families. Both sections are moving documents of the changes within Japanese society during the late 1930s and early 40s (pp. 50-51):

A few of our Japanese employees in Winckler & Co. were called to the Army or Navy, and there were some goodbye parties [organized] by their colleagues. When some of these men later visited the company in uniform as Army or Navy men, their personalities seemed to be completely changed. Whereas in civilian life they had been very quiet and polite, they now were quite arrogant and offish. It was amazing to see the changes in people you had known for years, and perhaps this explained why the Japanese military was often aggressive and cruel. Later I heard from some of the young fellows who had been inducted, that they were treated very badly in their training, often slapped around and harshly disciplined, so that it was no wonder that they in turn acted in a similar way when confronting other people. The change was very remarkable.

There was the other side of the coin, by which I mean that dead soldiers arrived back at home in growing numbers. They were brought on special trams, which were draped in black cloth. Inside, every seat was occupied by a young recruit in brand new uniform, each with a white face mask over his mouth, and each holding on his lap a white box containing the ashes of a fallen soldier. When these trams, usually two or three in a row, approached, people on the

²⁶ An example of this is the isolation of the German anti-Nazi Dr. Bruno Petzold, who taught at the First High School in Tokyo. See Schauwecker, 12/2009, pp. 33-35, where some related comments by Petzold's Japanese acquaintances are quoted.

²⁷ Nakamura, 2009, p. 451, explains the legal background of this the following way: “In September 1938, at the request of the Ortsgruppen, the German diplomatic establishments in China and Japan ordered German companies and merchants to get rid of their Jewish employees by 1 January 1939.” The 100 yen that Altschul got from Mrs. Selig was generous but not enough to continue living the expatriate lifestyle the family had enjoyed before.

street stood still and bowed deeply as the trams went by. I tried as much as possible to avoid these situations, as they made me very uncomfortable about what to do. These scenes were repeated in the many weeks and months of the war.

After Altschul was forced to leave Winckler & Co., he began selling some of his family’s furniture and glassware to make ends meet. Next, he took an irregular part-time job in Osaka for a while. Later, the family moved to a more rural area, where he began raising chickens and organized the necessary chicken feed not only for his own small flock but also for others, obtaining some money for delivering it by bicycle. He also started his own so-called “victory garden”. In wartime Japan, every empty and unused space was transformed into these gardens, where ordinary people started to grow vegetables for their own families. Rather more often than one would expect in Japan, Altschul’s crops were stolen, though. Once, the thieves left the plants intact but stole the sweet potatoes underneath, undoubtedly a particularly deceitful way of stealing (pp. 59-60).

When food rationing started, Heinz Altschul had to collect his rations at one place while Hanni and Bob had to go to Club *Concordia* to collect theirs. About the same time, German officials as well as some “friends” counseled Hanni to get a divorce, a fact that Altschul recalled decades later the following way (p. 41):

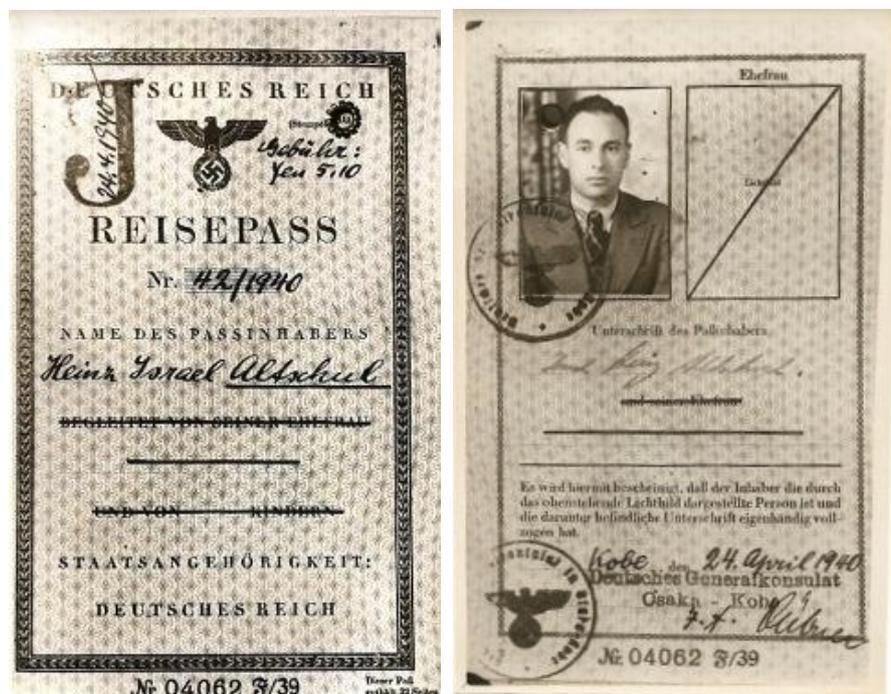
Also at this time, my wife was called to the German consulate, where they tried to influence her to get a divorce from me for her own and our boy’s benefit. She, of course, flatly refused, and that was the end of that particular matter at that time. But there were also some in Kobe, mothers of classmates of our boy in school, who talked to Hanni and tried to show her that it really would be better for her and the boy if she would separate from me. Of course, this all did not carry any weight with her, but it made things certainly more difficult for all of us.

This episode was not the only time when dealings with the German consulate were a source of discontent. In accordance with Nazi legislation, Heinz Altschul’s passport was altered in 1940 by inserting “Israel” as his second name and stamping a big “J” for “Jude” (Jew) into it.²⁸ It is especially thought-provoking to see that there is no entry for his wife (*Ehefrau*), a fact that Altschul does not even mention. As

Hanni Altschul was – according to Nazi laws – “Aryan”, she had obviously been deleted from his passport. In 1941, Heinz Altschul, like all other German Jews abroad, was deprived of his German citizenship altogether.

Pictures 3 & 4

Heinz Altschul’s passport after a capital “J” (for Jew) as well as the compulsory new middle name “Israel” had been added on 24 April 1940.



²⁸ Altschul, 2014, p. 41, mentions the year 1939 as the time when the “J” was inserted but the picture of his passport shows 24 April 1940 as the date of these changes.

Due to such events as the war with China, the growing tensions between Japan and the USA and the arrest of the Soviet spy Richard Sorge in autumn 1941,²⁹ the Japanese became very suspicious of foreigners. One thing that had become dangerous was taking photographs.³⁰ In his recollections, Altschul reports two incidences in which he ended up being questioned in police stations because of this. The more interesting one is quoted below. In this case, Altschul and his friends had not taken a single picture, but the mere fact that they possessed cameras was enough for them to be questioned “in pretty rough tones” and detained for hours (pp. 62-64):

One time [...] in 1938 [...] we decided to make a trip by car to Amanohashidate.³¹ [...] Now we knew that on the way [...] we would pass through the area of Maizuru, which had a naval base that was very strictly watched, and where you had to be very careful.³² We packed all our cameras away, so that there would be no problem whatsoever that anybody could say we had taken pictures. In Japan long before World War II started, there was a great fear of spies, and of course every foreigner was considered a potential spy. [...] As we drove to Amanohashidate [...] all of a sudden I was standing in front of a gate with a Japanese navy patrol standing guard. We had taken a wrong turn a mile or so before, and had run right into the naval base. [...] before I had any chance to move my car, there were two police cars behind us. The policemen requested us in pretty rough tones to immediately follow them. In the police station the first question of course was about pictures and cameras, and we told them [...] that we had cameras but had not taken any pictures. At first they did not believe us, and threatened that they would open all the cameras and destroy all the films. Wohlrab and Hupfer told them [...] we were German, and if they did not trust us when we told them that we did not take any pictures, it would be just too bad. Well, they began phoning, checking our identities in Kobe and elsewhere [...]. We were in that police station at least two to three hours being dressed down. Finally, we were let go [...]. Our experience showed how careful one had to be [...].

One aspect that Altschul discusses at some length is the case of a certain “Mr. Hata”, who turned out to be a secret agent of the *Kenpeitai* (Military Police), and tried to sound him out and to induce him to make some remarks about Japan losing the war, which could then have been used against him. This section shows again how cautious foreigners in Japan had to be in the 1930s and 40s (pp. 69-72):

During the summer of 1944, a young Japanese arrived at our house and introduced himself as Mr. Hata. He told me that a friend of his had told him that there was a German family living here, and since he had studied German in school, he was eager to practice his German with us. This was not unusual with Japanese students. None of us liked Mr. Hata very much [...] Well, Mr. Hata came almost every day for a while [...]. [...] We made all kinds of excuses to try to keep him away, but it did not do much good. [...] Then all of a sudden, it must have been in June or July 1944, he told us that Saipan had fallen, and that now the war for Japan was lost. Here again we were very careful; I told him that this did not mean a darn thing, that this was just one of the small islands. I tried to water down whatever he told us and not to appear that I was taking sides in any way, because I just did not trust him. This kept on going for many weeks. Then one day, when I came back from picking up my food ration in Kobe and stepped out of the Hankyū train at the Ashiyagawa station, here was Mr. Hata sitting on a

²⁹ Richard Sorge was born in Baku in 1895 to a German father and a Russian mother. He was a journalist and Soviet spy in China (1930-33) and Japan (1933-41). He informed Moscow about the imminent attack of Nazi-Germany and that Japan did not intend to join the assault in the Far East. See Whyman, 1996, for more details.

³⁰ Further examples for this can be found in Rudolf Voll's recollections in Ehmcke & Pantzer, 2000, pp. 105-107.

³¹ Amanohashidate is a 3km-long sandbar covered with thousands of pine trees reaching into the Sea of Japan. Along with Miyajima (near Hiroshima) and Matsushima (near Sendai), it is considered one of the three most scenic spots in Japan.

³² Maizuru is a small town in central Honshū (Kyoto prefecture). Since the early twentieth century, the Japanese naval headquarters for the Sea of Japan has been located there.

bench. He saw me right away, told me that he was now a member of the Kenpeitai, and he showed me his identification card. The Kenpeitai was Japan's secret police, equivalent to the German Gestapo. I told him, well, that was a good thing for him [...]. [...] At another time, Mr. Hata told me that his brother was an employee of [...] the City Hall in Kobe, and that [...] in case of further advances by the American forces, all foreigners would have to be evacuated from the coastal areas, including us, too. He told me that [...] we were probably going to be sent to a little village on Lake Biwa, and once we were gone, his brother would move into our house. I said, [...] I do not care who moves into our house once we have left [...]. Anyhow, Mr. Hata constantly acted as a kind of provocateur, and I did not like it at all, but after the meeting at the station we did not see him anymore. After the war, on our ship traveling to the United States in October 1946, I met an American [...] who had been imprisoned in Kobe [...]. I asked him if he met Mr. Hata. He told me that he made it a point to file a special claim against Mr. Hata, because he had been one of the worst people he had ever met; Mr. Hata was acting as an interpreter at the prison, although his German certainly was not good enough [...]. Whenever the people who were questioned by the police gave an answer which Mr. Hata did not like, he hit them over the legs [...]. [...] This episode in our life with Mr. Hata was not very pleasant, and it showed us that we really had to be very careful not to run afoul of authorities. One word from a fellow like Mr. Hata to the police or the Kenpeitai would have been enough to put one of us into prison, and once you were inside, they were in no hurry to let you go. You were guilty until proven innocent, and nobody was in a hurry to prove that. I knew a few people who were imprisoned during the war in Japan, and they had a very rough time, and some of them died.

In relation with the permanent surveillance of foreigners, it must be mentioned here that Japanese servants frequently acted as (secret) informers as well. This meant anyone who employed local staff was almost constantly under scrutiny (pp. 54-55):

All servants who worked for foreigners were drilled by the police to report regularly about what took place in the household. So the police was fully informed of every step we made, of every visitor who came to us, of every place where we went visiting. [...] One had to be very careful to use proper words or not saying anything at all, in order not to be suspected of being anti-Japanese or, worse, a spy. Quite a few foreigners ended up at least being interrogated by the police, and in some cases being imprisoned.

Altschul also provided a first-hand observation of the American attack on Kobe on 18 April 1942. To conduct this so-called Doolittle Raid, the US Navy used sixteen of its brand new B-25 medium-range bombers. Specially prepared planes started from the aircraft carrier USS Hornet to attack Tokyo (10 planes), Yokohama (3), Nagoya (2), as well as Kobe (1). Following the attacks, the pilots tried to reach China because the B-25 was not able to land on any carrier. These raids were militarily irrelevant but they were nevertheless psychologically important. The fact that one of these planes went to Kobe is little known. For that reason, Altschul's report of the attack is a worthwhile reminder of this early episode of the Pacific War (pp. 47-48):

[...] I happened to be with Bob in one of the shopping streets not too far from our house, when all of a sudden sirens sounded all over, and people rushed back and forth very excitedly, not really knowing what was going on. And all of a sudden, an airplane flew overhead, and Bob said to me, 'that is not a Japanese plane.' I had not noticed it, and the craft had disappeared as quickly as it had come and a few minutes later we heard some explosions far away on the other side of Kobe. And as it later turned out, it was one of the Doolittle planes, which had been coming from an aircraft carrier, had flown to Kobe, and proceeded on to China. My wife Hanni had also seen the plane from the balcony; it was so low that she practically was on eye level with it. So there was big excitement, which gradually subsided, and no real big damage was done. But, of course, it made a big impression, and it showed that Japan could be attacked, too.

As the war proceeded, air raids became more and more frequent. One interesting aspect that Altschul's recollections reveal is how foreign residents reacted to this threat to their life and belongings. In Kobe at least, many foreigners apparently exchanged large suitcases with personal effects, so that not everything was lost in case one's house got destroyed in an air raid. Only personal reminiscences like Heinz Altschul's can reveal these kinds of private dealings (p. 58):

So we packed a large sea trunk with clothes for Hanni, our boy and myself, and we left it with a Swiss family, Mr. Kaufman and his wife, in their house in Takarazuka. Also, we left some of our more valuable things like silverware with our very good friends Mr. and Mrs. Zeller, also a Swiss family living in Shioya [...] [,] an English-built compound, which the Americans knew about, and which we were sure they would not bomb.

A few hours before an atomic bomb destroyed Hiroshima, the house in which the Altschuls lived was hit by an incendiary bomb and burned down.³³ This meant that their situation was particularly stern in early August 1945. Furthermore, it was apparently clear that the destruction of Hiroshima (only about 250km from Kobe) added a new aspect to the already precarious situation. Altschul's report also shows again the constant threat foreigners in wartime Japan were faced with: the fear of being seen as a spy by the Japanese (p. 90):

Our house was bombed and burned down [...] in the morning of 6 August. Later that morning we got news that [...] an atom bomb had been dropped on Hiroshima earlier that morning [...]. [...] There was much speculating and guessing, but it was clear that this was a very special event. While we were on the station platform waiting for the train to Shioya, American planes dropped leaflets which fluttered all over the city of Kobe.³⁴ Some fell on the station platform, and a few people grabbed some of them. We as foreigners did not dare to do anything, because we felt we were always under suspicion [...]. Later I learned that the content of these leaflets was an invitation to surrender [...].

One week later, Japan capitulated. Heinz Altschul did not listen to Hirohito's famous radio broadcast himself, but was first informed that the emperor had declared that the war would go on, before someone else told him that this was not true and that the emperor had, in fact, proclaimed the end of the war (p. 94). This is one of numerous examples showing that Hirohito's speech was initially misunderstood by many listeners.³⁵

On 15 August 1945, it was announced that the emperor would make a proclamation at noontime [...]. I happened to be in Dr. Hudececk's office that morning, and when twelve o'clock approached, the doctor, his Japanese nurse, and one of his Japanese assistants went [...] to a place that had a radio. [...] In half an hour or so, the three came filing back into the office with very grim faces, the assistant shaking his head and saying, 'Nothing is happening, the war is going to keep going.' [...] I left and walked down the street, only to run into someone from the German Club who called to me, 'Well it's all over now.' I said, 'What do you mean? I just heard that the emperor said that the war was to be continued.' He replied, 'No, no, no, that's not true; [...] he accepted unconditional surrender, and told his people [...] that the war would be over, and that they should remain calm and follow all forthcoming instructions.' The reason for the confusion was that many people, including my doctor and his staff, did not understand the language spoken by the emperor, a special type of court language which almost nobody could understand.

³³ Selden, 2014, mentions the 1988 anime *Grave of the Fireflies* (*Hotaru no haka*), which is set in Kobe in 1945 and shows the American air raids and their effects.

³⁴ The US-Army leaflets dropped over Japanese cities in 1945 warned the Japanese that their cities might be destroyed soon. There is some controversy about the question of whether these leaflets included clear hints about the atomic bomb before Hiroshima or only thereafter.

³⁵ Similar statements exist from other Germans living in Japan at the time. See Claus Correns and Irmgard Grimm in Ehmcke/Pantzer, 2000, p. 95 (Correns) and p. 207 (Grimm).

After the actual signing of the surrender aboard the battleship USS Missouri in Tokyo Bay on 2 September 1945, Japan was occupied by Allied forces. In this connection, Altschul's report about the arrival of the US army in Kobe presents an interesting view of these events. According to him, the initially very tense atmosphere changed very quickly (pp. 95-96):

I remember that one day early in September, I went with a Swiss family by the name of Broeck to the Sannomiya train station in downtown Kobe because we had heard that the first American occupation troops were being unloaded there. We waited at the bottom of the station on the "kokudō", the main highway linking Kobe to Osaka, and there came the troops out of the station, and lining up on the street. We talked to some of them; one was a minister, who had the cross insignia on his uniform. They were all very nice and very friendly to us. It was here, too, that we saw our first Jeep. We had often read in the papers about this mystery vehicle which had been used through the entire war and had proven to be very essential. It was exciting to finally see one. There was great uncertainty among the American troops, because they did not know how the Japanese population would behave and what was going to happen in this first encounter. The soldiers checked their arms, they had their bayonets and revolvers handy, and they marched into the city. It was towards evening, five o'clock or so, and slowly getting dark, and there were no Japanese to be seen. They were all in their houses, hiding and probably fearful. In the closing days of the war they had been told terrible stories about the Americans, how they would kill people and rape women, and would do all kinds of bad things to them. As the troops moved in, the Japanese were completely invisible, perhaps looking through slits in doors and windows, watching the troops moving by. Well, the whole evening and night passed completely without any incidents or disturbances, and the next day everything returned to normal: the Japanese were outside their houses and found that the American soldiers were terrific, very nice, very helpful, and tried very hard to be friendly. There were regulations that the troops should not fraternize with the local population, but nevertheless they were very normal, very helpful, and in a very short time everything returned to normal. The local population intermingled with the troops, there were no more arms at the ready, and normal daily life returned.

After Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers (SCAP) General Douglas MacArthur and his forces had securely taken over the administration of Japan, Altschul found some employment with the occupation forces, working for the American Red Cross at the Enlisted Men's Leave Hotel (Ryoraku Hotel) in Kyoto.

Picture 5
The Ryoraku Hotel



The Red Cross was apparently very content with Altschul. At the end of his employment, he received a certificate, which stated “his knowledge of Japanese and his efficient management of the Japanese staff of seventy-six was invaluable.” The American superiors concluded that “his work was of the highest quality” and described him as “a highly desirable employee.”³⁶ In autumn 1946, Altschul left Japan with his family. They immigrated to the USA, where he worked in New York City until 1972. Then, he and his wife moved to the San Diego area to spend their retirement in California, where he recorded his recollections in 1989.

4) Concluding remarks

In his memoirs, Altschul nowhere says why he recorded them in that particular year, i.e., in 1989. However, the fact that he mentions Hirohito’s funeral in addition to his recollection of being in Japan when Emperor Taishō died in 1926 (p. 25), seem to indicate that Hirohito’s death on 7 January 1989 made him realize that it was about time to save his life story for relatives and friends. Additionally, Heinz Altschul’s earlier correspondence with Arthur Pawlenka, a former colleague at Winckler & Co., must have brought back many memories.³⁷

Surprisingly, Altschul’s recollections, recorded decades after the events, turn out to be rather mellow when criticizing local Nazis. Mostly, he talks about his family’s life as well as about the foreign community in Kobe. Among his comments about Japanese society, his reports about the *Kenpeitai* and the Japanese fear of foreign spies are very revealing, but arguably his comments about the changing character of drafted soldiers and the return of the ashes of fallen combatants are most striking by vividly recreating the eerie atmosphere of the time.

Picture 6. Heinz Altschul in a reflective moment.



³⁶ The certificate is dated 8 October 1946 and is available at the OAG archive, Tokyo.

³⁷ For information about Pawlenka, see Herweg, in: Herweg, Pekar, Spang, 2014, p. 128. Various letters exchanged between Altschul and Pawlenka (1983-85) are available in the OAG Archive, Tokyo.

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Language Learning and Teaching

Using Blog-Based Communication to Prepare for Study Abroad

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Abstract: This paper explores a language exchange activity using blogs between university Japanese as a foreign language (JFL) students in the US and English as a foreign language (EFL) students in Japan. Blogs are now used as language-teaching tools/materials, and provide an engaging addition to the classroom. This research describes a blog activity prior to the beginning of a study abroad program. The results suggest that the blog activity aided and encouraged students to create a learning community and provided opportunities for language exchange with native speakers. Students were able to raise their awareness of the differences and similarities between themselves and Japanese students, and to better understand people who study their language. This paper reports the positive effects of utilizing blogs to interact with native speakers of a target language prior to arrival in the target country.

Note: Preliminary results from this study were presented at the 2011 International Conference on Japanese Language Education (ICJLE), Tianjin Foreign Studies University, August 21, 2011.

Introduction

Many researchers have extolled the benefits of computer-assisted language learning. They claim that it enables learners to perform at their own pace and maintain higher motivation levels, while functioning as a labor-saving device (Oki, 2005). Learners get the chance to receive sufficient feedback and “work in an atmosphere with an ideal stress/anxiety level” (Egbert, Chao, & Hanson-Smith, 1999, p. 4). Researchers also found SNS data to be beneficial in assessing the learning processes of language students (Back 2013; Stewart 2010). Moreover, some studies have argued that collaborative activities with target-language speakers are highly effective and richer than the traditional education setting (Jauregi & Canto, 2012).

Previous studies have shown that using blogs develops learners’ autonomy and motivation (Fujii, Elwood, & Orr, 2010; Uchida, 2010). Blog activities also develop intercultural competence and enable participants to create relationships (Elola & Oskoz, 2008; Fukai, Nazikian, & Sato, 2008; Sadler & Kim, 2010; Sato & Fukai, 2001). However, blog activities in previous studies were limited to the duration of a given course. The present study focuses on an activity in

which students created blogs before arrival in Japan. It aims to explore the blog’s effectiveness in terms of its motivational benefits and efficacy for language learning done in preparation for study abroad.

Blog Project

Issues of a short study-abroad program

It is crucial for short-term study abroad students to immerse themselves in a target-language country as soon as possible. In other words, learners need to get used to Japan and its culture, and use the brief time allotted to communicate actively. However, in reality it is often the case that the program ends just as students get used to being in their new environment.

“They [the students’ counterparts] were very helpful, and made certain things easier. They made the program a lot of fun, and helped improve my Japanese a lot.”

“I didn’t meet them soon enough.”

“It’s very hard to break the ice.”

“I would to have more time to get to know and have fun with Japanese students.” (Kanazawa Institute of Technology, 2010)

The above comments are from students who came from four sister schools in the U.S. to participate in a 6-week summer intensive-

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Japanese program at a private college in Japan. As the comments indicate, some students mentioned that Japanese students helped them and their Japanese improved through their interactions. On the other hand, some students pointed out that they needed more time to develop a relationship with Japanese students. These comments indicate that even though the students had some opportunities, it was difficult to actually make friends. It is for this reason that the blog project was started.

The Purpose of the blog project

The purpose of this project was to create a smoother adjustment to being in Japan for short-term Japanese as a foreign language study abroad program participants by facilitating interaction with Japanese students prior to their arrival in Japan. Furthermore, the project was designed to raise the participants' awareness of the differences and similarities between students who are studying Japanese and Japanese students. We hoped this would allow them to better understand people who study their respective languages, and keep the students motivated.

This blog project was continued during their stay in Japan, this time allowing participants to share interesting things they found in Japan with their classmates, friends, and anyone else. The purpose of this portion of the project was for students to improve their Japanese language skills, develop an e-portfolio that would act as a record of their language study and time in Japan, and to become more aware of what they could do beyond the textbook and classroom materials. These materials also proved to be illuminating to Japanese students, because many of the things that non-Japanese students found interesting were taken for granted by Japanese students. Seeing their own environment through a different lens provided Japanese students with the opportunity for the development of intercultural competence.

Project activities

The blog project was conducted between JFL (Japanese as a foreign language) students in the US and EFL (English as a foreign language) students in Japan. Participants were 17 students from four American universities and 27 students from one Japanese university.

JFL students were students who applied for a summer intensive program at this Japanese university.

Table 1. *Participants Profile*

<i>Study history</i>	<i>JFL students</i>	<i>EFL students</i>
1 yr. – 2 yr.	1	0
2 yr. – 3 yr.	14	0
3 yr. – 4 yr.	0	0
More than 4 yr.	2	27
N	17	27

First, an invitation and directions handout about participation in the blog project were sent by email to students who applied for the short-term intensive summer program in Japan. During the project, students were asked to create a blog, which was then linked to their name on the blog project page. The blog project page consisted of two columns; one for JFL students and another for EFL students (Figure 1).



Figure 1. Blog front page with links to student blogs

The students who were studying Japanese used Japanese on their blogs, and students who were studying English used English on their blogs. However, when leaving comments, the JFL student commented in English on the ESL students' posts, and used Japanese to comment on the JFL students' posts.

Two tasks were assigned before students arrived in Japan. The first was a self-introduction. JFL students posted their self-introductions in Japanese on their own blog pages and other participants and ESL students in Japan left comments in Japanese. Conversely, ESL students posted their self-

introductions in English, to which JFL students provided their own comments.

The second assignment for JFL students was to list things they wanted to do in Japan, or some questions about the school or local area, and the Japanese students commented, or answered the questions, in Japanese. The ESL students' assignment was to introduce their school and town, to which JFL students commented in English.

During the program, students were asked to post entries once a week. They could upload a picture of "cultural artifacts" and add a short description about each item in Japanese. Cultural artifacts were anything they used/saw daily, or found interesting while living in Japan, such as a town map, a photo, a drawing, a menu, a receipt, a snack container, etc. Students were required to present one of their blog entries to the class on the assigned day.

The posting policy for the blog was limited to student-use only, to avoid influencing student interactions. Instructors adding comments, or getting otherwise involved in posting on student blogs, may have altered the space or created a different atmosphere. Also, grammar mistakes were not corrected, because the primary purpose of this project was for students to get to know each other.

The purpose of the study

The purpose of the present study is to find out how effective the blog project was in allowing students to: (a) communicate with Japanese students before arriving in Japan, (b) make the adjustment to Japan smoother through interactions prior to arriving in Japan, (c) keep students motivated, and (d) provide opportunities to use the Japanese language.

Methodology

Materials

The participants were asked to fill out a questionnaire. The questionnaire was used to collect three kinds of information: Section 1 asked about participants' backgrounds, if they have been using any SNS, and the reason for

participating in the blog project. Section 2 contained questions regarding the blog activity's effectiveness, with participants indicating their answers on the 5-point Likert scale: 1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: neutral, 4: agree, 5: strongly agree. Finally, in Section 3, the participants were asked to list the strong and weak points of this activity.

Participants

Because this study focused on the blog activity prior to the program's beginning, the participants of this study were 14 students who joined the blog project before arriving in Japan. They were from two American private and two state universities.

The background questions revealed that 11 out of 14 participants (78.6%) already had an SNS account, such as on Facebook. The frequency with which all 14 participants accessed the blog site was as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. *Frequency of Accessing the Blog Site*

<i>Frequency</i>	<i># Access</i>
1/ week	5
2-3 times/ week	6
4-5 times/ week	1
Every day	2
Total	14

Results

The reasons that students participated in the blog project were as follows:

Table 3. *Participants' motivation for joining the project*

<i>Reasons</i>	
To make friends before coming to Japan	8
To practice Japanese	2
To make friends and practice Japanese	3
Other	1
<i>n</i>	14

As Table 3 indicates, more than half of the students participated in this project to get to know each other.

Table 4. *Questionnaire results*

Questions	
1. Blogging helped me to communicate with/to meet/to introduce KIT students	4.1
2. Blogging helped my preparation for coming to KIT/Japan	3.2
3. I enjoyed blogging	3.6
4. Blogging improved my motivation for learning Japanese	4.0

Note. 5-point Likert scale.

Communication with Japanese students before arriving in Japan

When asked whether the “students achieved their goals by participating in the blog project before arriving in Japan,” 9 students (56%) answered that they did. Those who answered “yes,” commented that they could meet their counterparts at the welcome party that was held right after their arrival. Most of the students who answered “no,” said that the reason they participated in the project was to practice Japanese. Because students made only two posts before their arrival, they did not feel that this was sufficient Japanese practice.

Overall, the participants’ comments about the activity were highly positive:

It was nice to get to know people before I came.

Fun to communicate with other students.

Meet new people and share ideas

Being able to make friends

I like getting comments from the Japanese students”

Making adjustment smoother by facilitating interaction with Japanese students

As the results above show, conducting the blog activity prior to student arrival in Japan helps students to get to know their Japanese counterparts and make friends.

For the research question – whether the blog activity helped to make adjustment smoother by facilitating interaction with Japanese students – the questionnaire yielded positive results, as corroborated by items 1 and 2 in Table 4. Furthermore, 11 out of 14 (78.6%) participants posted their self-introduction and received comments from

Japanese students, and 7 participants replied to the comments that they received (Figure 2). This indicates the participants had interaction with Japanese students actively before their arrival. In addition, 9 participants answered that they could meet Japanese students, whom they communicated with through the blog, at the welcome party. 2 participants met 5 to 6 Japanese students who were already in contact through their blogs.



Figure 2. Participants repeatedly interacting with each other

The most common topics the participants chose to share during these interactions were hobbies, favorite music, and favorite artists. They also took the opportunity to exchange more detailed information and asked more questions about their posts. Participants left comments to Japanese students in English and had a few interactions on the English blog page, as well. Given these interactions, we can surmise that the blog activity does ease participants into communicating with

Japanese students. moreover, these interactions might facilitate a smooth adjustment to life at a Japanese university, and assist students in making Japanese friends.

The same can be seen on the program evaluation. When asked if the program provided students with enough opportunities to meet and to interact with Japanese students, 82.3% participants answered yes, compared to only 15% in 2010 when the program did not provide a blog activity. The total number of participants is different, but all other program activities were the same, including the welcome party and overnight field-trip with Japanese students.

Table 5. *Did this program provide you with enough opportunities to meet and to interact with Japanese students?*

	2010 (n = 27)	2011 (n = 17)
Yes	15.0%	82.3%
No	70.0%	11.8%
N/A	15.0%	5.9%

Keeping students motivated

As the questionnaire results indicate, the participants enjoyed the blog activity. Likely, it motivated students, as shown in item 4 in Table 4. The first task, self-introduction, was not too difficult for the participants, because most learners began by repeatedly practicing their self-introductions early on. However, reading the Japanese students' comments and replying proved more challenging, requiring students to use and apply creatively what they learned. The instructor posted useful links to the blog page so that participants could reference them when posting their comments to Japanese students. Although the participants expressed what they wanted to say freely, they had to face their language limitations. This may have led them to want to study more Japanese and raised their motivation.

Providing opportunities to use the Japanese language

Free comments from the participants reveal that the blog activity created opportunities to learn Japanese:

Good practice writing sentences

Great practice typing Japanese

Good grammar practice

Helps you organize thoughts and feelings like a journal

The participants also noted that they could learn about Japanese schools, students, and culture through interaction with their Japanese counterparts:

It was nice to get to know people before I came.

Great to learn about other students and the school.

Got to learn about KIT and some of the students.

Learn more about Japan an its culture.

The above comments indicate that participants were able to apply what they learned in a classroom to actual usage, and to practice Japanese.

Conclusion

The results demonstrate the positive effects of utilizing blogs to interact with native speakers of a target-language prior to arrival in the target country. The blog activity helps and encourages students to create a learning community with the opportunity for language exchange with native speakers. Through this activity, students were able to raise their awareness of the differences and similarities between themselves and Japanese students, and to better understand people who study their language.

Although the blog activity was tremendously effective, there is room for improvement, as the following comments show:

Did not have a lot of time between start of blog and start of program, maybe start earlier.

Encourage more blog post.

Due to the nature of this pilot study, the data we collected were not extensive and focused only on JFL students. Moving forward, the study should be expanded to include EFL students who participated in the blog activity and to investigate the impact on

their motivation and intercultural-competence development.

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English as a Medium of Instruction in Japanese Universities

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Abstract: With the increased interest in the viability of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in higher education institutions, teachers and university administrators need further information in order to aid them in their decision as to whether or not to implement EMI in their institutions, what manifestation of EMI to attempt, and how to go about ensuring that students receive the predicted benefits of learning through English, without sacrificing the learning outcomes of their content course. This paper will review some of the theory behind EMI – both for and against – and will analyse and synthesize the findings of research into EMI programs around the world. The goal of this paper is to develop a starter's guide to implementing EMI and identifying the risks and benefits of its various incarnations.

Introduction

English as a medium of instruction (EMI) is becoming increasingly popular in Japan and other countries around the world. However, institutions wishing to implement EMI face many challenges. These challenges include the design and instructional strategy of EMI courses, the expectations in terms of student goal setting and achievement, and staffing issues.

In this paper, EMI and its various manifestations will be explored with a view to illuminating some of the options available to any higher education institutions (HEI) that are considering or intending to implement EMI. An effort will also be made to identify some of the pitfalls and challenges of implementing such courses in HEI contexts. The paper will begin with a look at some of the fundamental second language acquisition (SLA) issues surrounding EMI in tertiary level education contexts: those of age and L1/L2 use. Next, an account of the different EMI options will be given, and some of the results of implementation of EMI around the world will be considered. Following that, the content based instruction (CBI) and content and language integrated learning (CLIL) approaches will be analysed for their applicability to HEI contexts. Finally, the implications of EMI from a cultural point of view will be noted and a summation of

options for various kinds of institutions will be presented. Although research has been done on some of the issues raised in this paper, no papers to date have attempted to draw together these issues and present them as a starter guide to EMI in HEIs.

Tertiary level EMI and SLA

The pursuit of proficiency in English is a topic of considerable interest in Japan. The current system of English education is seen as deficient by many interested parties (i.e., students, teachers, parents, businesses, and educational institutions) and has been criticised for not producing competent speakers of English (Tsuneyoshi, 2005). In recent years, the Japanese government – and in particular the Ministry for Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) – have emphasised the need to develop “Global Human Resources” to increase Japan’s competitiveness in the global arena (MEXT, n.d.). A vital component of “Global Human Resources” is English communicative ability as outlined in “An Interim Report of The Council on Promotion of Human Resource for Globalization Development” (The Council on Promotion of Human Resource for Globalization Development, 2011). The same report also stressed the need to increase the number of foreign students studying in Japan, an initiative that has led to many universities implementing EMI to attract more students and students from differing fields (not just Japanese majors) to study at Japanese HEIs

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(Tsuneyoshi, 2005). It is beyond the scope of this paper to explore all of the implications of these decisions; however, from an SLA perspective, we will look at two issues which are pertinent in the discussion of foreign language mediated instruction (FLMI) in HEI contexts: Age and L1/L2 use.

Age: You can't teach an old dog new tricks?

Much has been written regarding age and SLA (e.g., Birdsong, 1999; Marinova-Todd, Marshall, & Snow, 2000; Scovel, 2000; Singleton, 2001) with many researchers making a strong case for critical or sensitive periods for L2 acquisition. With these theories in mind, it is reasonable to ask if university-age students in Japan with the aforementioned deficits in English proficiency can be expected to function in an EMI environment.

Immersion programs in Canada have seen great success with younger students and late immersion programs (as late as tertiary education contexts) have also met with success in Canada and elsewhere (Hauptman, Wesche, & Ready, 1998; Norris, 1997). Swain and Lapkin (1989) suggested that older students can often have an advantage over those who begin language learning earlier. They posited that older learners can accomplish the same amount of learning in a shorter time and that there are surprisingly few differences between early and late immersion students. The advantage that allows late immersion/adult students to “catch up” with those who have been in immersion environments for longer is posited to be the transfer of literacy skills from the L1, which allows students to achieve comparable proficiency in reading, writing, and often speaking skills after a number of years of immersion (Swain & Lapkin, 1989). The importance of age of onset of L2 immersion was also found to be less than expected by d'Anglejan (1990).

There are, however, important differences between early and late immersion programs at primary/secondary school levels and tertiary education contexts. The amount of contact hours with the L2 in tertiary education would be expected to be far less than the five-day-a-week total immersion offered at the primary

and secondary levels. In addition, the more lexically and cognitively demanding subject matter taught in HEI contexts would further complicate the comparison. This has led some researchers to believe that language learning goals must be adjusted to realistically predict what level of proficiency can be expected from those who are immersed in the L2 at a tertiary level only (Norris, 1997).

L1/L2 Use in the Classroom: English Only?

Given the limited English proficiency of many high school graduates in Japan and the cognitive demands of tertiary level subject matter, the question of whether an English-only immersion policy is realistic must be explored. As we will see in the next section, such a policy has been found to be unrealistic in many EMI courses. However, in this section, we will analyse the question of whether an English-only policy is desirable. There are a growing number of researchers who suggest that L1 use in the classroom may not only be necessary but also favourable (e.g., Gearon, 2001). Dailey-O'Cain and Liebscher (2009) suggested that an optimal amount of codeswitching can indeed enhance L2 development and bilingual communication practices. Swain and Lapkin (2000) also proposed three purposes for codeswitching: (a) moving the task along, including figuring out the order of events, retrieving semantic information, and task management; (b) focusing attention on language; and (c) enhancing interpersonal interaction. Turnbull, Cormier, and Bourque (2011) also found that controlled use of L1 during tasks to scaffold understanding of complex subject matter can lead to deeper cognitive processing of complex content, especially for students with low levels of TL proficiency (as in the case of the majority of university-level Japanese students):

This body of literature suggests that the cognitive benefits of the first language may be especially relevant for learners with a low level of TL proficiency dealing with challenging tasks and content. This making-sense process most probably begins in the learner's L1, where prior knowledge is encoded and needs to be accessed. Content and language learning happen simultaneously while bridging prior and

new knowledge, during learning events that may occur in L1 while bridging towards the L2. Since language is also the tool students use to communicate learning, interactions between L1 and L2 may occur during the making-sense process. (p. 183)

To conclude this section on some of the basic SLA issues surrounding EMI in HEI contexts, we can summarise that age may not be as large an impediment to success in EMI contexts as some would believe; however, it may also be prudent to adjust expectations of the proficiency achievements of students in HEI contexts. Furthermore, taking into account the limited proficiency of many students, some L1 use may not only be necessary for students to tackle complex tertiary-level subject matter, but it may actually play a vital role in helping students to understand and process the content they will encounter.

EMI in HEI Context

In this section various efforts at EMI will be explored with a view to identifying some of the pitfalls and issues that institutions around the world have faced. The following is a transcript of an exchange between a science teacher and a class taken from Arden-Close (1993) that illustrates some of the frustrations associated with EMI instruction:

T [teacher]: As it says, there is a special stability of half-filled subshells which have spherically symmetrical charge distribution. Now, ha ha, do you know what that means? Uh well, I'll do my best to explain. Do you know what spherical is? What's spherical?

S [student]: Round.

T: Round. So, spherical. Do you know what symmetry is?

SS [students]: Same, same as. Two.

T: It's like a mirror. You get mirror symmetry, or uh - how to explain symmetry simply? Uh uh have you come across symmetry in your Arabic lessons, in your Arabic science lessons? It's two things that are related by a mirror, by movement uh. . .

S: XX [words not clear] divides some things into . . .

T: Into two halves, yes. Uh, the two halves are related by mirror symmetry or by

SS: Same, same.

T: They are the same uh. In this case spherically symmetrical refers to the charge distribution. Do you know what distribution means? Spreading out, uh arrangement. But when they refer to spherically symmetrical they're talking about, it means the charge is equally distributed around the sphere. It's not quite regular, it's not quite uniform. That's what they mean by spherically symmetrical charge distribution. It's spherical, round, it's symmetrical because it's the same everywhere, it's uh - we're lost. It's- we're going to have to rewrite that. (p. 251)

The above interaction is typical of the dangers which await EMI projects. In Arden-Close's account of EMI at Sultan Qaboos University, the issues that must be accounted for when implementing EMI are detailed. Arden-Close found that the primary problems in lectures in EMI contexts were lexical, which is in keeping with Pica's (1987) assertion that learners rely on semantic processing to comprehend input (as opposed to syntactic processing). Arden-Close goes on to explain that foreign lecturers (who are common in EMI contexts) often lack any shared knowledge with the students by which they can explain unknown vocabulary (p. 255), which in turn can lead to explanations which end up being even more complicated than the initial item they are seeking to explain (p. 259). Byun, Chu, Kim, Park, Kim, and Jung (2011) also detailed language difficulties associated with EMI in the Korean higher education context. They mentioned that some teachers are uncomfortable using English in their classes and that the texts are too difficult for the students to understand. Furthermore, as many university classes are very large, it is unrealistic to imagine that the teacher could deal with individual language problems in a lecture hall. Apart from language issues, there is a general consensus among many institutions that have implemented EMI courses that the content of the course needs to be adapted and simplified in order to aid comprehension (e.g., Arden-Close, 1993; Byun et al., 2011; Flowerdew, 1997; Sert, 2007), and that less material can be covered over the course.

Sert's (2007) analysis of three forms of EMI in Turkish higher education institutions also highlights this trade-off of language acquisition and content. In his discussion of EMI, he looked at EMI, English-aided instruction (EAI), and Turkish-medium instruction (TMI). EAI consists of lectures in Turkish with English texts and examinations, supported by (general) English lessons. TMI consists of Turkish lectures, texts, and examinations with longer (general) English lessons. He concluded that although EMI was the most effective of the three for gains in English proficiency, the loss to content achievement did not outweigh the gains to language proficiency.

Flowerdew (1993), again at the Sultan Qaboos University, offered some suggestions as to how these issues can be overcome in EMI contexts. These solutions require a great deal of preparation for the course and on-going language and content support for the students in the form of a content teacher and a language teacher.

- It is important to identify exactly what tasks will be required of the students.
- A database of the necessary lexical items and expressions required by the content course must be produced (possibly by means of a concordance analysis).
- Profiles of common student difficulties must be produced.
- Texts must be simplified by language teachers (to ensure comprehensibility) and content teachers (to avoid distortion of material).

Once these measures are in place, the students can be prepared for the lexical challenges that await them in their subject lectures, and English support lessons can be instrumental in ensuring that students comprehend what they have studied. However, some reduction in goals for content achievement will still be necessary.

CBI and CLIL in HEI Context

In the above examples, most of the instructional energy was focused on facilitating the comprehension of the content when that content was supplied in EMI contexts.

Content-based instruction (CBI) and content and language integrated learning (CLIL), on the other hand, take a different approach to the same issue. Instead of language classes designed to support content instruction, in these approaches, content and language instruction are equally prioritised. The basic principle behind these two concepts is that language development is best achieved when it is integrated with content into a single course. This means that the focus is not simply on having the students understand the content (i.e., comprehensible input; Krashen, 1984), but to have those students be able to produce language through spoken and written tasks (i.e., output; Swain, 1993).

An important aspect of these approaches is the sociocultural perspective on language learning, which maintains that language is fundamentally social and has its genesis in the interaction between people (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). This theory is based on the Vygotskian concept of the zone of proximal development, which posits that a learner has two levels of development: the actual level of development, which is characterised by functions which have already matured, and a zone of proximal development, which refers to what a learner can do when interacting or being guided by a more competent other (Vygotsky, 1978). Through this interaction, learners create meaning and deal with subject matter (content) while simultaneously learning language through comprehensible input and pushed output. The teacher supports these activities by providing comprehensible input (often with a proactive focus on form), providing feedback on content and language (reactive focus on form), and guiding students through materials designed to follow Cummins' (1981, 1986, 2000) developmental framework. The developmental framework predicts that if students are introduced to topics in a context-embedded and cognitively undemanding initial step, and if this step leads to steps that are more cognitively demanding and less context embedded, the learner will develop not only more complex understandings of the subject matter, but also more proficient comprehension and productive language skills.

Examples of CBI and CLIL in HEI contexts are not as numerous as those in primary and secondary contexts. Some reasons for this are that the added focus on form suggests much less time to cover content and the difficulty of finding teachers who are both proficient content teachers and proficient language teachers. In the EMI courses studied by Sert (2007), the conclusion was reached that “CLIL in Europe has not been thoroughly examined in HE, and it does not seem to be practical in the Turkish context to train CLIL lecturers” (p. 167). However, some tertiary-level institutions have attempted to implement CBI/CLIL approaches.

Hauptman et al. (1989) met with considerable success using CBI/CLIL approaches for psychology classes at the University of Ottawa. They found that “[i]n general, sheltered courses are a viable alternative to traditional types of second-language instruction for high-intermediate and advanced students, particularly with respect to the development of the receptive skills (listening and reading)” (p. 457). Norris (1997) conducted an immersion-like CBI/CLIL course in Japanese in Australia for future Japanese teachers and found that the student gains in content knowledge and language were considerable; however, as mentioned previously, he noted that with low-level L2 learners expectations regarding final proficiency should be conservative (p. 97).

To conclude this section, we can summarize that CBI/CLIL approaches to HEI courses are viable for students who already possess high-intermediate language abilities, and that they also produce superior results to traditional language classes (Sert, 2007). Regarding content, however, it is likely that expectations of the amount of material covered will have to be reconsidered if the goal of language fluency is to be included.

Is EMI a Good Idea?

Having discussed the various approaches to EMI in HEI contexts, it now behooves us to ask if conducting courses in English (or indeed any FLMI) is a good idea for the student, teacher, university, or country as a whole.

The advantages for the student of EMI are improved English skills, which may prove beneficial when job hunting. Depending on the context, the student may also be exposed to different cultures and ideas through their EMI courses (if the lecturer is from another country, for example). The disadvantages are that the student may not be able to cover as much material as they could in their L1 and may not be able to process it as deeply.

For the teacher, working in English may give them opportunities to reach a wider academic audience as Coleman (2006) notes: “Publication and teaching in English also allow academics in poorer states to improve their career prospects by becoming job-mobile” (p. 6). The disadvantages are that they will need to work significantly harder; it has been estimated that preparing for an English language course requires five times as much effort as preparing for a course in one’s native language (Tsuneyoshi, 2005). Professors in Turkey also lamented that they couldn’t make their classes as entertaining in a foreign language as the students were not capable of understanding the L2 at such a complex level (Sert, 2007).

For the institution, the benefits are attracting more international students and, by so doing, bolstering income from fees, leading Coleman (2006) to characterise the current climate as one in which “[t]he phrase ‘international students’ increasingly means not the ‘organized mobility’ of mutual exchanges but the ‘spontaneous mobility’ of fee-paying individuals” (p. 5). The drawbacks for institutions are that the loss in content could lead to a perceived decline in the value of their graduates and that there is the need for the administration to adapt to foreign students with various expectations not experienced in a homogenous student body (Tsuneyoshi, 2005).

For the country as a whole, or as a culture, more “global human resources” means increased competitiveness in a globalised world. Furthermore, interaction with other universities will enable the sharing of knowledge and research, which will help the culture keep pace with its neighbours and competitors. The drawbacks include a loss of certain aspects of their culture which could be

replaced by English. Coleman (2006) speaks at length about the image of English as a “killer language.” Indeed, some countries have reduced the number of EMI courses in an effort to protect the lecturing style and academic register of their own language (for the case of Sweden, see Airey, 2004).

In conclusion to this section, using English as a medium of instruction holds both benefits and drawbacks for the student, teacher, school, and culture as a whole. These must be carefully considered before adopting EMI in HEI contexts.

What Manifestation of EMI is Most Suitable for Your School?

In this, the final section of this paper, by way of clarification and summary, three possible educational priorities will be suggested and the appropriate form of EMI will be proposed.

“My institution prioritises content over language skills.”

If content and subject matter are your primary concern, and you view language development as a subordinate goal, perhaps EMI is not for you. However, if you wish to adopt EMI, then the approach taken in Turkey of EAI (Turkish lectures with English support lessons) may be the right choice for you. Adjustments to the Turkish situation might be appropriate, for example, by linking the content of the EFL classes with the content of the subject classes to increase motivation and making sure that the tests and textbooks are in the same language as the lectures.

“My institution prioritises language gains over content.”

In this kind of institution, a CBI/CLIL approach would be ideal. Without having to worry about how much content is covered in a term, your teachers are free to spend time fully exploring each topic and allowing plenty of interaction between students as they attempt to master the L2. Motivation should remain high as long as the content area chosen is of interest to the students. Popular areas include Global Studies, Media Studies, and European/Asian Studies.

“My institution places equal importance on both content and language gains.”

Achieving acceptable benefits and gains in both content and language can be challenging in HEI contexts. The large amount of subject matter to be covered, its complexity, and the resulting lack of time to focus on individual student needs, make the balance extremely difficult to achieve. Best results have been achieved when the students were already well grounded in both the L2 and the subject matter (see Hauptman et al., 1989, for an account of a course where the students had already completed one year of Psychology and were judged to be at a high intermediate level of language proficiency). If your students are at a beginner proficiency level, acceptable goals will be difficult to achieve.

Conclusion

This paper has attempted to explore the issues surrounding English as a medium of instruction in higher education institution contexts. As much as possible the ideas in this paper have been based on actual research and case studies from tertiary institutions around the world. There is still very little research in the area of EMI in HEI contexts, and, therefore, any institution considering adopting this approach should consider carefully its reasons for doing so, its goals, and its available resources.

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Lifelong English Motivation and Identity: A Case Study

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Abstract: The current case study investigated the strategies to enhance motivation toward studying English and examined impact of its experience on identity. The author, as an informant, reminisced on his experience regarding studying English from junior high school period to completion of his Master's degree in the United States. The data were interpreted by the author from a third person perspective. The effective strategies to keep motivation were identified as achieving a flow state (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997) and social support (Elwood, 2006). A unique identity as an English-speaker self emerged in his early years of studying English. Although he denied his Japanese-speaking self, after years of struggle, he found his identity between a Japanese-speaking self and his English-speaking self.

Introduction

Global talents travel around the world in last few decades. To nurture such talents who thrive in the trend of globalization, the Japan Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology has strongly promoted communicative English education in public schools. A report of international English proficiency test (EF EPI) said, however, Japanese adults ranked on 26th in 60 countries, and have not improved English in past six years (Education First Japan, 2014). One of the roots of the problem is emphasis on preparation for university entrance examinations (Gorsuch, 2000). Instructions tend to be based on the beliefs of the teachers (i.e., a certain methodology is effective for every student) and lack the perspective of individuality of the students such as psychological state and attitude toward English.

Previous research identified the key factor for successful language learning. Elwood (2006) interviewed nine university students in Japan and found that they had realistic evaluation of their English ability, highly motivated to do something internationally, and strong support system such as friends and teachers. Furthermore, such highly proficient

English learners perceived emergence of identity as an English speaker.

Aforementioned factors are especially strong elements and those interact each other when an individual learn the second language.

Six out of nine informants of the Elwood's (2006) study, however, were returnees. Thus, opinions of the high proficiency in English who had grown up in Japan may have been underrepresented. This article provides supplement information with highlighting a narrative of a person who grew up in Japan and also has high English proficiency. This article also provides longitudinal aspect of language acquisition. Language cannot be acquired in short term. The longitudinal perspective also helps readers to understand how the aforementioned factors interacted in an individual's life. The purpose of this paper is to describe the episodes, thoughts, and emotions of an individual and discuss them in academic context.

Method

The informant was the author. Episodes, thoughts, and emotions regarding English were reminisced about the time between when the author began studying English in junior high school and the time completing Master's degree program in a university in the United States (U.S.). The reminiscence was interpreted in third person perspective.

Background of the informant. The nationality of the informant is Japanese. He

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was born and grew up in Japan. The first time he went outside of Japan was at the third year of high school, to visit Toronto to see a former Assistant Language Teacher (ALT) at his school. While he was pursuing for bachelor's degree at a university in Japan, he went to Toronto for six-month internship at a sports facility. After the college, he worked at a non-profit organization for two years. Then he went for backpacking world trip (Nagata, 2010). He came back to Japan and work for a while, and he went to the U.S. and completed his Master's degree. Now, he is ready to begin his Ph.D. program in another university in the U.S.

Results and Discussion

Junior High School. The basis of the motivation toward English emerged in this era. Intrinsic motivation played a key role. He studied it just because it was fun. He especially enjoyed an external resource (i.e., a radio English lesson program) that was more appropriate level for his ability than the school English classes. The matched level of ability and the task difficulty made him experience flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997). His lost sense of time is the evidence of the flow experience. In its state, learning effect reaches maximum. The effort of listening English every day, at least a short amount of time, was important to nurture the sensitivity to the English pronunciation.

Growing up in a rural town in Ibaraki prefecture, I did not have any contact with English until the age of 12, when I began taking English classes in junior high school. I was not interested in languages until then. By the time of my entrance of junior high school, my mother had assigned me a radio English program (and this was the only thing my parents could afford to do). I do not think the English classes at school was not challenging and interesting, but the English radio program was. I think it was appropriate to my level of ability. I completed one 15-minute lesson a day, and program was short enough for my attention span. I just liked the program because the more I study, the more I can understand foreign language that I had ever thought I had known before. It was a new and fresh experience I had never experienced before. So I often lost time while exploring things that I wanted to know. Two or three

hours are easily passed without I realized. Also, I found it was fun that many of *Katakana* words in Japanese were originated in English. I was especially interested in the differences in pronunciation, so I paid special attention to the sound of the words. I still remember that I wondered why the pronunciation of a word "hospital" was different between our Japanese English teacher and an American Assistant Language Teacher (ALT).

The informant did not have much English speaking opportunity in junior high school. The first English speaking experience came relatively late, but was so positive that made him more devote to the language.

I do not think we had real English speaking opportunity for a while. I remember an ALT came to our class, and we did some conversation pattern practices with her, but it was far from real English speaking experience. I liked to understand listening English, but I did not even think I have expected to learn English conversation then. What really changed my attitude toward English was a personal contact with an ALT. I had an opportunity to participate in English speech contest in the senior year of junior high school. An ALT supervised my speech practice, and I had a casual conversation in English for the first time. The phrases and words I had learned and practiced to use were understood by a person in front of me. That feeling of efficacy was the emotion that I had never experienced before.

High School. As discussed by Gorsuch (2000), high school English education was university entrance exam oriented. Such characteristics were rather welcomed because the informant's school is a *Shingaku-kou*, in which all students aim to enter universities (therefore, strong expectation for grammar and form-oriented instruction by both students and parents).

I was playing baseball in a school team in my high school. The practice was so hard, that I had hard time to maintain my motivation in English (and also in other subjects). The learning contents in English classes were much difficult than that of junior high school, and had little time to study it because of the baseball practice. The class was far from communicative, but based on grammar and

translation practice. So, I little by little began to lose interest in English.

Person to person interaction opportunity using English brought him back to the world of English. The studying methods were similar to Kikuchi's (2008), but he sought more opportunity to speak English in person. Realistic evaluation of his English ability that was discussed by Elwood (2006) was critical importance to achieve continuous improvement (Bandura, 1977). Around then, he began to realize that English speaking self is not the same as Japanese speaking self. Kanno (2003) discussed that an individual who stays in a second language environment develops a certain identity. His level of involvement in English was not as long as the participants of Kanno's discussion, still this may be a sign of emergence of an identity.

The turning point was a Hokkaido trip event led by teachers of the Japan Exchange Teachers (JET) program. The trip was a one-week program that high school students spent time with JET teachers and do activities all in English. This opportunity re-opened my eyes to English. It reminded me of the feeling that English is fun. I was not very good at playing baseball and was almost giving up then. So I came back from the trip, and I shifted my way of life. I quitted it and devoted to studying English.

I played English radio station to make my environment. I bought a few English conversation CD books and made them as a model. I practiced again and again to master the expression. Also, I used TIME magazine for reading materials for reading and vocabulary building. I used an English dictionary to get used to explain things in English and I took class notes in English. I do a lot of things, but all in all, I always check my abilities. Vocabulary levels, reading speed, listening comprehension... I did not use objective assessment tools, but I just cared things like that all the time, and chose the task to try my ability. In addition, I began to find more opportunities to spend time outside of classes with ALTs whom I made friends with. We went out for bowling, for dinner, and for movies.

From then, I began to feel that myself who is speaking English is different from who I was. I thought I was a shy and introverted person, but when I speak English, I was extraverted, active, and open-minded. I think I went out with

ALTs friends because I could feel like I am a different person.

Although he did not enjoy English classes in school, he found the education was helpful when he began his graduate study.

Honestly, I was not very good at English in classes. I was not very big fan of reading and writing, so I was trying not to do it as much as I could. One day, I got a failing grade in writing class. And an English teacher asked me to come talk with him. He said "I know this is not your favorite task for you. But at the same time, I know you like English. Let me tell you, now it might be very tough time to practice English like this, but you definitely will realize the worth in the future. You may not notice now, but writing skill becomes the most important once you go out to the working world". I believed that he said it to me because he trusted me. Such support helped me to overcome the mental barrier of writing. I thought the training that I received when I was in high school was very helpful when I entered graduate school. If I have not tried hard to practice English then, I may have had hard time to complete the Master's degree program.

College and Work. The identity that he realized when he was in high school has become established in this time. Two different identities coexisted inside of him. Similar to one of the informants in Elwood's (2006) study, he was comfortable with it. Perception of the identity may be different because the informant in Elwood's study was a returnee who had to use English to live, but the informant of this paper used English only when he wanted to.

In my life in college, English was around every day. Although I was in Japanese university, seeking for friendship with international students and faculty allowed me to use English quite often. It was everyday thing to speak English and interact with people from different cultures. Attending parties, tutoring international students, visiting professor's office... opportunities were limitless.

Being a different personality when I spoke English was so comfortable. I actually never thought it was weird to have two personalities in myself. I think I rather took advantage of it. I sought English speaking opportunities when I felt tired of Japanese

styles of relationships. I think I could come back and forth easily between Japanese personality and English personality.

For the informant, the motivation cannot be discussed without human relationships. Mentors who showed the future life models were the significant motivators for him. At the time when he had less opportunity to use English when he began working, support system (Elwood, 2006) such as friends and mentors played an important role to keep him motivated.

The biggest impact on my life in this time was meeting with my lifelong mentors. A Japanese professor who finished his Ph.D. degree in the U.S., and an American professor who had completed Ed.D. degree while he taught at universities impacted big time on me. Influence of these people made me think about foreign university for higher degrees in the future.

After I graduated from college, I started to work at a sport organization for people with disabilities. The work was at a typical Japanese work environment that had a strict hierarchy and long working hours. I did not have any opportunity to use English at work. Without English-speaking friends and mentors, I do not think I could keep my interest in English.

Travel & Grad School. The informant for the first time struggled with his identity. He felt distance to the Japanese speaking self. He thought English speaking “me” was real self. He may have reached such conclusion because of the differences in knowledge levels between Japanese speaking society and English speaking society. He may have thought Japanese society is too strict to show their real self because he knew more rules and customs. After when he went to work in the U.S., he learned more rules and customs for the society and somewhat earned balanced view. When he had balanced perspective, the identity problem gradually solved. As Kanno (2003) discussed, he found his identity in between Japanese and English.

My life shifted when I quit my job and began backpacking travel abroad. Again, using English became everyday thing. It was wonderful opportunity to think who I really was. The smiles I had met during my

trip were not fake at all. I thought I was like wearing a smiling mask for being polite at the work even though when I felt like crying. Then, who is the real me? This was the time I realized that the real “me” was my personality when I spoke English.

After the world trip, I was offered an opportunity to go for Master’s degree program in the U.S. It was a struggle for a while because the required level of the language was so high. Classes and work, and assignments and thesis brought me to be in deep thought. I thought I was extraverted, active, and open-minded when I spoke English, But I found in the process that I am more introverted. I thought I found a right personality in between my Japanese one and English one.

Remembering the high school teacher’s words, I felt that his words were true. The basic skills of writing I learned from him were very useful. And I really thanked that the mentors to be so supportive before and during I was working for the degree. I do not think I could finish the program without their help.

Conclusion

Motivation is hard to keep in the process of learning second language. The informant kept his motivation mainly in two ways: assigning appropriate level of tasks that helped achieve flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997), and using social support such as friends and mentors (Elwood, 2006). Consistent monitoring of my level of English ability made possible such effective assignment of the tasks. Challenging to myself and completing the tasks certainly improved his confidence and made him challenge to the next level (Bandura, 1977). Such assignment of challenging task (i.e., $i + 1$) may have followed the theory of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD; Vygotsky, 1987).

Social support played especially important role in keeping his motivation. He had friends and mentors who can talk when he felt down. The trust and friendship kept him in English world. For him, English is not just “a tool”, but something that connect person to person.

Through the English learning process, different identity emerged and established, and finally integrated as one. As Kanno (2003) discussed, the person who was in other

culture for long time follow such development and integration of identity. However, there were significant differences in length of time spent and environment between Kanno's participants and the informant of this paper. It is not clear if such identity process can be applied for every individual. Further research should be done to clarify the process of identity for grow-up-in-Japan population.

This paper focused on one individual's experience regarding English. The findings should not be generalized from this single case study. Still, the information may be useful for language learners, language teachers, or researchers. The elements in this paper should be used carefully.

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*Special Section:
Lessons from OkiJALT*



Lessons from Okinawa JALT

Editors' note: We are obliged to Professor Norman Fewell of Meiō University and Professor George Robert MacLean of the University of the Ryūkyūs for their work in arranging this special section for *OTB Forum* readers.

This issue features a section of teaching ideas from the Okinawa JALT “My Share” event held a few months ago. Teachers often have to operate ‘in their own world’ without cooperating by sharing resources and knowledge gained from multiple trials of their own resources and procedures. This collection of presentation proceedings focuses on practical teaching activities and insight from members of the Okinawa Chapter of JALT. The presentations were useful and dynamic. The written adaptations should provide readers with a similar experience. In the first article, George MacLean gives us tips on teaching pronunciation with emphasis on the “S” morpheme. Tokuyu Uza then provides us a glimpse into his thoughts on language change, discusses groups influencing such change, and argues about the importance of maintaining cultural identity. He also introduces an activity that can be effective in cases where structure may particularly be needed for language learners. The third article, by Michael Bradley, has written step-by-step instructions for a class activity that utilizes comic strips to promote communication and introduces article use. Thereafter Fernando

Kohatsu presents an excerpt from one of his textbook activities for learning verb tenses in Spanish. Moving into a recent format, Norman Fewell explains how to use *pecha-kucha* as a time-saving presentation activity. Meghan Kuckelman then describes a writing activity promoting community involvement and awareness via the *Welcome to Nago* blog. Finally, Tim Kelly shares his wisdom on the importance of considering psychological aspects in language teaching. These articles are useful to reflect upon, and hopefully will add to our readers’ teaching repertoires. If you are interested in presenting and writing about experience garnered from your own teaching, you are cordially invited to participate in similar future Okinawa JALT events. For more information, please consult the Okinawa JALT webpage at

<https://sites.google.com/site/okinawajalt/home>

Teaching Pronunciation of the “S” Morpheme

George Robert MacLean

University of the Ryūkyūs

Pronunciation: To Teach or Not to Teach

Much has been written about maturational constraints governing second language acquisition and a supposed critical period that governs the acquisition of native-like pronunciation (e.g. see Doughty & Long 2003). Many researchers argue that the acquisition of native-like pronunciation is impossible beyond a certain age. Moreover, some sociolinguists have argued that linguistic features such as accent are intimately related to a person’s sense of self, and that non-native speakers actually maintain such linguistic features to express their distinctive ethnic identity (Rickford, 1996). This has tempered my zeal for aspiring to have my students achieve perfect, native-like pronunciation, but I think everyone will agree that learners should strive for comprehensible pronunciation that avoids unnecessary communication breakdowns or misunderstandings.

The case of the “S” morpheme is especially problematic for many non-native speakers. Partly because it is a morpheme and not just a phoneme, it has particular salience for native speakers. In the case of its use as third person or possessive “S,” its absence can contribute to communication breakdowns. Where “S” is used to denote plural, its absence can be even more problematic, as in the utterance “I like dogs.” versus when the “S” is omitted because of pronunciation challenges and becomes “I like dog.” The illocutionary impact of the first utterance conveys the fact that the speaker enjoys the company of furry four-legged creatures known as canines whereas the second utterance indicates a gastronomic predilection for ‘man’s best friend,’ i.e., dogs. With such examples in mind, it seems clear that pronunciation should in some cases be

actively taught, especially where morphemes are concerned.

I personally believe pronunciation instruction should not be excessively prescriptive. If a student’s English is fully comprehensible and they seem to be happy with their speaking then their learning experience has been a success, regardless of whether they sound like a native speaker. Still, my experience of over twenty years teaching language has shown me that many students are able to improve their pronunciation remarkably when they focus on it. I have coached dozens of students for speech contests. Many of them were able to generalize the lessons they learned while memorizing their speeches and apply those lessons to every day speech. The students whose pronunciation improved the most were influenced by three factors: instruction that paid careful attention to their efforts, ample time for practice, and a concern for correctness on the student’s part. This can often be instilled for the most part using game-like activities.

Teaching and learning pronunciation can be fun. It does not have to be about drills and corrections. There are times when explicit instruction is helpful (especially with adults), but it is best if students have chances to model their speech based on clear pronunciation, without undue pressure from the teacher. A game environment lets everyone take part, and embeds the nature of the instruction in a less threatening context. This is important because perfect pronunciation may not be a reasonable goal for all learners, but when the game is perceived as the task, so nobody feels left out. Discretion and setting a good example is the better part of being a good pronunciation teacher.

The Rule

Third person, possessive and plural “S” occur in three varieties: /s/ as in drinks, /z/ as in flies, and /iz/ as in matches.¹ The

MacLean, G. R. (2015). Teaching pronunciation of the “S” morpheme. *OTB Forum*, 7(1), 53-56.

Table 1. *Pronunciation of the “S” Morpheme*

Form	Category		
	/s/ unvoiced	/z/ voiced	/ɪz/ sibilant
Plural	eats	gives	wishes
Third Person	gets	buys	passes
Possessive	Eric’s	Sam’s	Chris’s

consisting of /s/, /z/, /dʒ/, /tʃ/, /ʃ/ and /ʒ/. It would be good to demonstrate these sounds as well and perhaps display examples that do not occur in the activity somewhere so that the students can refer to them.

The Activity

I have used the following activity to teach new vocabulary words, spelling and, in its best incarnation, as an aid to draw students’ attention toward their pronunciation challenges and to heighten their concern for better pronunciation.

Whatever your students’ nationality or nationalities may be, Avery and Ehrlich’s chapter on problems of selected language groups in their book *Teaching American English Pronunciation* (1995) can be especially helpful. In this case, I have selected third person “S” as the target pronunciation form for this activity.

pronunciation of “S” varies according to whether the preceding sound is voiced, unvoiced or sibilant (See Table 1).

It would be a good idea prior to any pronunciation activity featuring “S” to explain the above categories. For voiced versus voiceless sounds, have students put their fingers on their Adam’s apple and say a few of the target words from the activity, e.g., eats, or buys. Students will be able to feel their Adam’s apple vibrate because vocal cords vibrate when a sound is voiced. Where there is no vibration, the sound is voiceless. As for the English sibilants, they are a closed set

Target Level: Beginner – Advanced

Objectives: Develop phonological awareness
 Promote student-student negotiation
 Promote a learner-centered classroom

Skills: Listening and speaking

Materials: F1 Bingo!!! A Sheet and B Sheet (See Appendix A)

Time: Approximately 20 minutes

Procedure:

1. Prepare a list of words according to your students’ pronunciation challenges, for example, third person “S” (See Appendix B). For the student handouts, do not include the phonological information about which category the words belong to.
2. Introduce the target words to the students and practice them. Divide the students into pairs. Give one student ‘A sheet’ and one student ‘B sheet’.
3. Let students dictate their words to each other. Student A has to write the words Student B says in the blanks on his/her sheet and vice versa.
4. Once students have written out all the words, correct their answers as a group using the answer sheet (Appendix B), and address any questions they might have. This is a good chance for supplementary instruction too. Alternatively, make copies of the answer sheet sheet and have the students correct their answers in their pairs.
5. There are twelve spaces in the racetracks at the top of Handouts A and B. Have the students choose three words from each of the columns at the bottom of their handout, and write the words in the blanks on the racetrack at the top of their handout.

6. Let the races begin! (play bingo). The announcer should non-sequentially read one word from each column from left to right until there is a winner. Continue and acknowledge second place and third place. Pick up the pace and finish reading all the words thereafter. It is not uncommon for some students to miss words and thus have words that are not crossed out at the end.

7. Display the target words in the three phonetic categories (voiced, unvoiced, sibilant) and have students evaluate their results (See Appendix C).

Note

¹The phoneme shown here as /i/ is a high, front, lax, unrounded vowel as pronounced in *fit* or *win* in North American English. Depending on the notational system used, it can be written as /i/ or /ɪ/.

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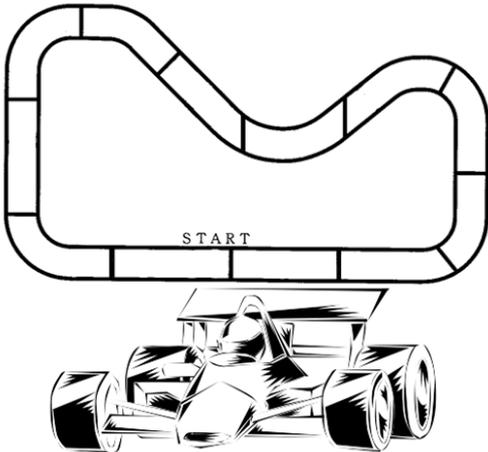
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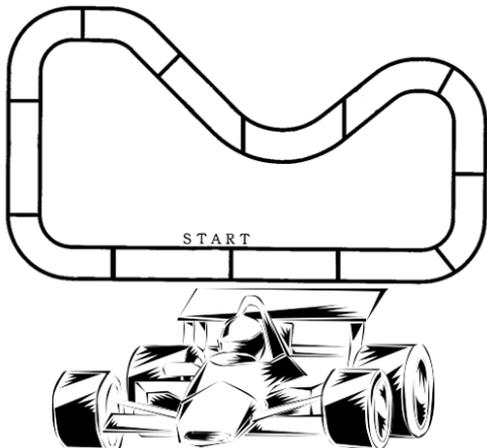
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Appendix A. F1 Bingo Sheets A and B

F1 Bingo!!! A sheet



F1 Bingo!!! B sheet



gives _____	studies _____		
hatches _____	walks _____	buys _____	looks _____
hides _____	takes _____	pushes _____	loves _____
hopes _____	drives _____	drinks _____	matches _____
taxes _____	watches _____	eats _____	moves _____
supposes _____	waxes _____	expresses _____	passes _____
jumps _____	wishes _____	faxes _____	puts _____
lets _____	writes _____	flies _____	reads _____
		gets _____	runs _____

Appendix B. F1 Bingo Answers with Categories Indicated

<i>/s/</i> unvoiced	<i>/z/</i> voiced	<i>/iz/</i> sibilant
hopes	gives	hatches
jumps	hides	taxes
lets	buys	pushes
drinks	flies	expresses
eats	studies	faxes
gets	loves	supposes
takes	moves	watches
walks	reads	waxes
writes	runs	wishes
looks	drives	matches
puts		passes

Appendix C. F1 Bingo Answers with Third-Person “S” Categorized

<i>/s/</i> unvoiced	<i>/z/</i> voiced	<i>/iz/</i> sibilant
hopes	gives	hatches
jumps	hides	taxes
lets	buys	pushes
drinks	flies	expresses
eats	studies	faxes
gets	loves	supposes
takes	moves	watches
walks	reads	waxes
writes	runs	wishes
looks	drives	matches
puts		passes

Where Should I Go?

Encouraging Learners to Put Their Place Into Learning

Kurt Ackermann

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Abstract: The inclusion of ideas of ‘place’ in education, not only Geography, is one way to connect learners with the world around them and more specifically the world with which they are most easily able to interact directly. Incorporating this concept as much as possible into day-to-day lessons was a motivating factor for adapting a more advanced lesson into, initially, a model lesson for junior high school students. “Where should I go?” is an activity to give students the opportunity to think about local places they could recommend to someone visiting their area. It incorporates a background slideshow to silently stimulate student participation with hints about places the students are likely to know, but which may not immediately come to mind within the time constraints of the lesson. Through this exercise, it is hoped that there will be some progress made in realizing the benefits of place-based education.

Introduction

If you were to ask a kindergartner where a good place to eat was, she would likely recommend somewhere not far away. Obviously a kindergartner has little information beyond the places she sees in her everyday life, hears her friends or family talking about, or visits from time to time. Without being aware of it, she has a keen sense of place with regard to her home area, as she probably knows little about other places. As we get older there seems to be a process whereby we are conditioned to think of our local places as being less important, unless we actually live in one of the centers of our society. There may not be a conscious effort to bring about this change in values, but it does seem to happen nonetheless. The situation may even be exacerbated in Japan by the fact that much of the television programming is Tokyo-centric, imbuing younger people in particular with the perception that ‘important’ things happen in places other than their own locale. Perkins and Thorns (2012) give an example of one interpretation where “sense of place relates particularly to the routines of everyday life set in particular local biophysical landscapes” (p.

15), which would suggest that the connections the kindergartner has established are truly components of an identity incorporating place as it is traditionally perceived in Geography. That this may be lost as time passes would also suggest some loss of identity was occurring.

Background

In Geography, the role of ‘place’ is a key concept whose significance, while generally acknowledged within the discipline, prompts a variety of interpretations and valuations from others. By way of introduction to his thesis, de Blij (2009) points out the expanding belief that the world is “flattening under the impress of globalization” and that “the idea that diversities of place continue to play a key role in shaping humanity’s variegated mosaic tends to be dismissed by globalizers who see an increasingly homogenized and borderless world” (p. 3), suggesting that the traditional role of place in human experience is being relegated, as if some type of outgrown anachronism, to the dustbin of history. Though de Blij was countering this argument in the context of highlighting the disparities hidden behind assumptions of ‘flattening,’ we could just as readily question the desirability of such an outcome in the context of wishing to nurture a ‘sense of place’ as a means of strengthening connection to and therefore

Ackermann, K. (2015). Where should I go? Encouraging learners to put their place into learning. *OTB Forum*, 7(1), 57-60.

valuing of one's 'home place' whether that be one's original or adopted home.

The assertion by the 17th century Czech educator Comenius that "Knowledge of the nearest things should be acquired first, then that of those farther and farther off" (as cited in Calkins, 1881, p. 49) expresses one of the central ideas of place-based education (Sobel, 2004, p. 4). Sobel goes on to emphasize the merit of the approach in a wide-ranging array of benefits:

Place-based education is the process of using the local community and environment as a starting point to teach concepts in language arts, mathematics, social studies, science and other subjects across the curriculum. Emphasizing hands-on, real-world learning experiences, this approach to education increases academic achievement, helps students develop stronger ties to their community, enhances students' appreciation for the natural world, and creates a heightened commitment to serving as active, contributing citizens. Community vitality and environmental quality are improved through the active engagement of local citizens, community organizations, and environmental resources in the life of the school. (Sobel, 2004, p. 7)

Elizabeth Templeton, in Baldwin, Block, Cooke, Crawford, Naqvi, Ratsoy et al (2013), sees a focus on place as a way "to resist what has sometimes seemed a troubling sense of fragmentation in time and place" that has ensued partly as a result of the digital revolution (p. 10). She cites Nicholson as observing that the revolution has resulted in a "scarcity of attention" and Menzies as linking "our increasing state of fragmentation to a changing sense of space-time continuum arising from our technological world" – the implications of which educators must contend with in their everyday work. Could it be that a revitalized sense of place might go some way toward recovering some of that attention? It is certainly a major challenge that is only likely to increase, so any positive leads should be followed up on.

Approach

In addition to endeavouring to inculcate a sense of place, the method of teaching also needs to be considered and, a generally

constructivist approach is taken. In their book *Constructivist Strategies for Teaching Second Language Learners*, Reyes and Vallone (2008) note, "sheltered instruction and scaffolding are two modifications that can be used when teaching content in a second language" (p. 9). Although the activity in question is not directly part of a content course, the institution at which it is taught has content-based courses as an integral component of its curriculum, and the approach taken in those is often reflected generally throughout the curriculum. The depth of the activity does not entail any particular scaffolding, but rather a degree of sheltered instruction through the emphasis on having learners consider their local context and specifically places with which they are familiar. This is felt to be the case given that according to Lessow-Hurley sheltered instruction "uses comprehensible input and context-embedded instruction within a social, communicative context to provide access to both the core curriculum and to the English language" (as cited in Reyes and Vallone, 2008, p. 9).

Furthermore, many of the items on a list of "recommended activities for engaging second language learners in constructivist language arts and content area instruction" provided by Reyes and Vallone (2008) on page 62, are present, or may be depending on the examples chosen and overall approach taken. This activity can be considered to include aspects of the following items from that list:

- contextualize instruction to promote language acquisition
- maximize the social context of language acquisition
- teach language through content
- use humor to motivate language acquisition (if examples that amuse the students are included)
- embed instruction in real life experiences; facilitate context-embedded learning
- use cooperative group work
- have students work in pairs
- choose curricular topics of inherent interest to students
- utilize community resources
- encourage students to ask their own

- questions and find their own answers
- use silence as a learning tool (in that the examples are provided via images without a spoken commentary)
- maximize the social context of learning. (Reyes & Vallone, 2008, p. 62)

It is possible that others on the list may also be utilized, though it is equally true that the depth of utilization is certain to vary depending on the approach taken.

Rebecca Alber (2014) advocated having the students “share their own experiences, hunches, and ideas about the content or concept of study and have them relate and connect it to their own lives,” (¶8) with teachers providing scaffolding in the form of hints and ideas, which the students will pick up on and incorporate into their learning. She also recognized the efficacy of visual aids in these processes.

Activity and Procedure

The activity itself originated as a sample lesson for about 12 JHS students that was to be loosely based on our college's lessons, in which “students will be actively engaged in conversation for more than half the class time” (45-minute class).

The original activity was pairwork and would generally involve individual students preparing on their own in advance of tackling the activity. Its inspiration was an activity to “suggest and compare interesting local places” from *English Firsthand 2* (Helgesen Brown, Kahny, Mandeville, & Wiltshier, 2010, p. 6). The concept seemed appropriate for the students, who were likely familiar with their home area.

As the class to be undertaken for the original lesson was a demonstration and the students were unknown to me, I needed to utilize as many shortcuts as I could to stay within the overall 50-minute timeframe. Thus I had the students prepare in groups to accommodate less confident or motivated learners.

A slideshow, consisting of images of about 10 local places which could fit the role of place types expected to be discussed in the lesson, was prepared and set-up to play when the computer was idle for a set period of time. The slideshow provided hints by silently

projecting the selected places while students were engaged in the task. No commentary would be necessary. The computer was being used to show a standard PowerPoint as part of the usual lesson content, or a description of the school when it was part of a demonstration, as in the initial instance.

Actual implementation of the activity is very straightforward. First, preparation includes the following steps:

Find, or take, a selection of photographs of local points of interest. These should be places that would be of more interest to someone who was intending to spend an extended amount of time in the area, rather than someone visiting as a tourist. As with the original lesson from *English Firsthand 2*, the idea is for learners to recommend places that they would actually visit themselves.

If using a Mac, the photographs should be installed in one folder, which would then be selected as the source for the screensaver's slideshow. Presumably the process would be somewhat similar for other operating systems. There are likely to be other acceptable approaches to displaying the images to the group.

It is useful to have the computer up and running before actually having the slideshow run to ensure that connections are working and that the images are displaying correctly on the screen via the projector. Using ‘hot corners’ is a useful way to allow you to begin the slideshow at the moment of your choosing.

Using the Activity

Learners were introduced to the idea of thinking about places by first answering on their own some simple questions about foods that they like, things they like to do, and kinds of music they like. This could also be performed as pair work.

Secondly, they ask and answer questions with a partner about experiences, particularly relating to food, places, music, etc.

The third part is where the slideshow can be used, and involves learners in groups brainstorming places to eat, play and watch sports, enjoy live music, and shop. The final aspect is breaking up into pairs (or forming new groups) composed of members of

different groups, and sharing their ideas by again asking and answering questions.

Conclusion

A focus on place can be incorporated into a wide variety of lesson approaches and may produce a variety of benefits for learners, including a renewed sense of pride in their home area and hopefully motivation to share that area with others via the vehicle of a second language. That other language speakers may actually be interested in one's home area is perhaps a motivational key, which may be manipulated in the quest to encourage a learner to feel a greater sense of ownership of their studies.

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Thoughts on Vocabulary, Internationalization, and Culture

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These days, a lot of people are in environments where one can receive a variety of information via the Internet, television, radio, movies and other media. This availability of information is a great advantage of today's technology. On the other hand, the problem is how to use the information one receives. It is extremely simple to just emulate the received information, but it may not have a good effect on those who use it without truly understanding the meaning behind the words or the information. Therefore critical thinking and cultural awareness are essential components to be taught in language classes in Japan.

The Olympic games will be held in Japan in 2020. With this in mind, as an immediate goal, it is desirable to foster multicultural multilingual citizens who can effectively represent Japan at an international level.

There is unfortunately a misconception in many Japanese contexts that becoming international means losing one's Japanese identity. Okinawa is likely the place where the most contact between Japanese and foreigners occurs, and thus I will refer to the case of M. Kelly as an example that refutes this notion.

Kelly (1991), from Okinawa Japan, explains through her experience becoming bilingual and bicultural that marrying an American did not mean that she lost her first language (L1) cultural identity. Her identity as an Okinawan did not change. According to Kelly, one must first of all possess a strong sense of heritage. In her case, she is Okinawan. She explains that from there, one can be receptive to and adapt to other cultural values: In order to become a truly bilingual and bicultural person an individual must possess pride in their own culture and

nationality. Thereafter, they may adapt to another culture and supplement their primary L1 culture.

By possessing a strong sense of heritage, it becomes possible to enhance one's academic achievement in a diverse cultural environment (Au & Kawakami, 1994; Foster, 1995; Gay, 2000; Hollins, 1996; Kleinfeld, 1975; Ladson-Billings, 1994, 1995).

As an example, when a Japanese teacher teaches the Japanese language to American students, the teacher must overcome the barrier of being from a different culture. In such cases, the most important element is to articulate and illustrate how each culture expresses various values. Students need to be aware that difficulties may occur because of differences due to cultural misunderstandings. If this happens, it is helpful when one is secure about one's primary culture (Yamazato, 1991). This essentially means that one must retain and value one's cultural identity and avoid negative cultural schismogenesis (Erickson, 1987). Emulating and uncritically adopting other languages without understanding the meaning behind the words and the cultural underpinnings they entail can cause a person to lose respect and understanding of their own culture. This has been the case for numerous civilizations and it results in an immense loss in the form of moribund or declining languages, such as those of Okinawa in the current age. There exists a certain responsibility for parents to 'pass on' values and also language to the next generation.

Particularly in a mass media world that is saturated by western values, it is possible for emerging generations to lose perspective about their own culture and its value. According to Tanaka, Higuchi, Iemura, Igarashi, Shimomiya, and Tanaka (1994), younger generations characteristically tend to create a new range of vocabulary, which is a central way for them to distinguish and define

Uza, T. (2015). Thoughts on vocabulary, internationalization, and culture. *OTB Forum*, 7(1), 61-63.

themselves. Often, foreign words are considered as being “cool”. For example, approximately ten years ago, the word respect was used frequently among many younger people in Japan. The direct translation of the word respect is 尊敬 (*sonkei*) in Japanese, and it means exactly the same in English.

However, the content of the meaning has different nuances. Japanese *sonkei* has numerous other implications. It is possible (and even likely) according to the research cited thus far that, for example, using the word respect for the purpose of being “cool” can lead to a decline in the significance of the fundamental meaning of *sonkei* in Japanese.

Vocabulary and culture are intricately entwined even in one’s own language. When people misuse words, it can detract from the primary (and respectful) meaning of cultural concepts, and diminish their impact and significance for future generations. As another example, the word おもてなし (*omotenashi*), meaning hospitality, has become a common word in Japan and a lot of people used it lightly by just ‘parroting’ the phrase without any sense of the underlying meaning of the word.

Using the word おもてなし (hospitality) without understanding its real meaning reduces the value of the word and this can also contribute to dilution of its fundamental cultural value. According to Genjiro’s English translation (2013), *omotenashi* is a complex word that includes generosity, modesty, and similar meanings, whereas it has been spoken rather perfunctorily at times in popular parlance when it is used without proper attention to its cultural origin.

In the case of Japanese people, our ancestors have bequeathed us a vast lexis that one hopes we can retain in our hearts despite the pace of ultra-modern Japanese society today. One of the beauties of Japanese culture is its vibrancy and its ability to adapt to a modern world – all the while retaining its fundamental cultural values.

It is important for Japanese teachers of English to make sure to teach not only the English language, but also to teach the differences in how cultural values are expressed. The most important element in teaching the English language in Japan is to

teach students not to forget that they are Japanese. Without understanding one’s own culture and language, how can one learn another culture and language? Losing one’s cultural values is akin to when a library burns down: Incalculable loss of knowledge and culture occurs.

Japan is experiencing rapid cultural change and aspiring to become more international with such events as the 2020 Olympics. With all this in mind, it is desirable for Japanese people to embrace international culture but to also honour, retain, and foster their own identity while integrating into an international (global) society.

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A Communicative Way to Teach Article Use

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It's a truism that Japanese students of English have difficulty using articles, since there is no direct equivalent in their own language. This activity is designed to get students thinking about the purpose of articles – why and when we use them. The first part of this consciousness-raising exercise is a classic information gap focusing on meaning. The second part focuses more on form. In traditional language classes, grammar points are usually presented first, then practiced before students are asked to produce them in some kind of freer activity (the so-called PPP approach). By inverting that process and getting students to first produce, (and making mistakes in the process,) they will hopefully be more likely to appreciate the need for the grammar point in question, when it is introduced later in the class.

Quick Guide

- Keywords: collaborative storytelling, negotiating meaning, articles
- Learner English level: Pre-intermediate to upper intermediate
- Learner maturity: High school and above
- Preparation time: 10 minutes
- Activity time: 25 to 40 minutes
- Materials: A copy of the suggested comic strip and a whiteboard (or blackboard)

Part 1: Preparation

Step 1: I use a short comic strip which is printed on Page 57 of the recommended *Pairwork 2* book (and copied below). I use the comic strip in a different way from that suggested in the text.

Step 2: There are seven pictures in the comic strip. I cut the strip into individual pictures, arrange the students into groups of seven and give each student one picture.

Bradley, M. (2015). A communicative way to teach article use. *OTB Forum*, 7(1), 64-66.

Step 3: If the number of students in the class is not divisible by 7 – I will either make some groups bigger (which will mean giving two or more students the same picture,) or if there are not enough students, I will give some students two pictures.

Part 2: Procedure

Step 1: I tell the students to reconstruct the story without showing their pictures to their partners, and without speaking Japanese. The activity is not as straightforward as it sounds because it has a twist.

Step 2: If the students are having difficulty getting started, I will invite them to describe their pictures in turn. (If their level is low, I will pre-teach some vocabulary, e.g., tie, untie, fence, etc.)

Step 3: During the activity, I will circulate between the various groups, making sure there are no major misunderstandings. If necessary, I will ask leading questions, such as, “How many people are in this story?” or “Who is the young man with the black hair?” or, “Who owns the dog?”

Step 4: If after 15 minutes or so the students still can't work out the story, I will allow them to lay the pictures out on a desk so they can all see them and figure out what's happening.

Part 3: Performance

Step 1: I ask the students to tell me the completed story. As they are doing so, I write it on the board. While writing, I correct any grammatical errors EXCEPT for those relating to the use of articles, which I will faithfully include.

Step 2: Once I have written the entire story on the board (for an example see below), I will underline all the nouns in a bright color and ask the students to identify any mistakes with article use. The students discuss this in pairs.

Step 3: I go through the story again, and the students tell me where to insert/delete/change articles.

Step 4: Once we have agreed on a corrected form of the story, I ask the students, in pairs or groups, to come up with a rule for article use. Hopefully, they will arrive at something like, “We use ‘a’ for the first reference to single countable nouns, and ‘the’ for subsequent references”.

Step 5: I erase the story on the board, give each pair of students a copy of the complete comic strip and ask them to retell the story, paying particular attention to the use of articles.

Conclusion

Even on its own, the first part of this activity ticks a lot of boxes for language educators. It is a genuine communicative activity where students have to negotiate meaning with their classmates to complete the task. Lightbown and Spada (2006) define the negotiation of meaning as an opportunity for learners to, “express and clarify their intentions, thoughts, opinions etc, in a way that permits them to arrive at mutual understanding” (p. 150). There is “mounting evidence” concerning how such negotiation of meaning “can promote second language learning” (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013, p. 161). Advocates of the benefits of interaction have argued that learners will notice new language features “including articles” during negotiations of meaning (p. 161). However other researchers, including Michael Long, now believe that interaction by itself is not sufficient for learners to acquire grammatical items: “Corrective feedback has been identified as one feature that is believed to play a crucial role in helping learners make connections between form and meaning” (Lightbown & Spada, 2003, p. 151). Thus, it is no longer unusual for otherwise communicative activities to incorporate an element of formal grammar instruction. Applied linguists have realized that “second language learners cannot achieve levels of grammatical competence from entirely meaningful-centered instruction” and this has led them to “propose that learners can benefit

from form-focused instruction” (Laufer, 2006, p. 4)

In my case, I thought the story reconstruction exercise provided an excellent opportunity to focus on the usage of articles. As Scott Thornbury (2010) observed, “[T]he definite article can only be taught, explained, and practiced in contexts that are normally larger than a sentence” (¶3). Of course, I realize that the grammar rule that I introduce – “a” for the first time, “the” for subsequent references – is neither comprehensive nor absolute. Raymond Murphy’s intermediate *Grammar In Use* (1989), seen by many language instructors as the Gold Standard in grammar teaching, devotes eight units to the various rules governing article use. Likewise, Michael Swan gives them ten pages in his reference book, *Practical English Usage* (1980). Swan goes on to say, “[T]he correct use of articles is one of the most difficult points in English grammar” (p. 54). Notwithstanding their complexity, and acknowledging that the rule – “a” for the first time, “the” for subsequent references – does not always apply, I felt that if my pre-intermediate students were able to grasp that articles are often used in this way, it would go a long way to eradicating many of their mistakes with this tricky piece of grammar.

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Appendix

This is the story which one of my intermediate classes produced: One day, fat bald man tied his dog to gate. Then fat man smashed car's window because he wanted to steal computer from car. Car owner saw this and shouted, "Hey you, what are you doing?" Fat man ran away without his dog. Car owner called police. Policeman came and untied fat man's dog. Dog went back home and policeman followed. Finally policeman arrested fat man in his house.

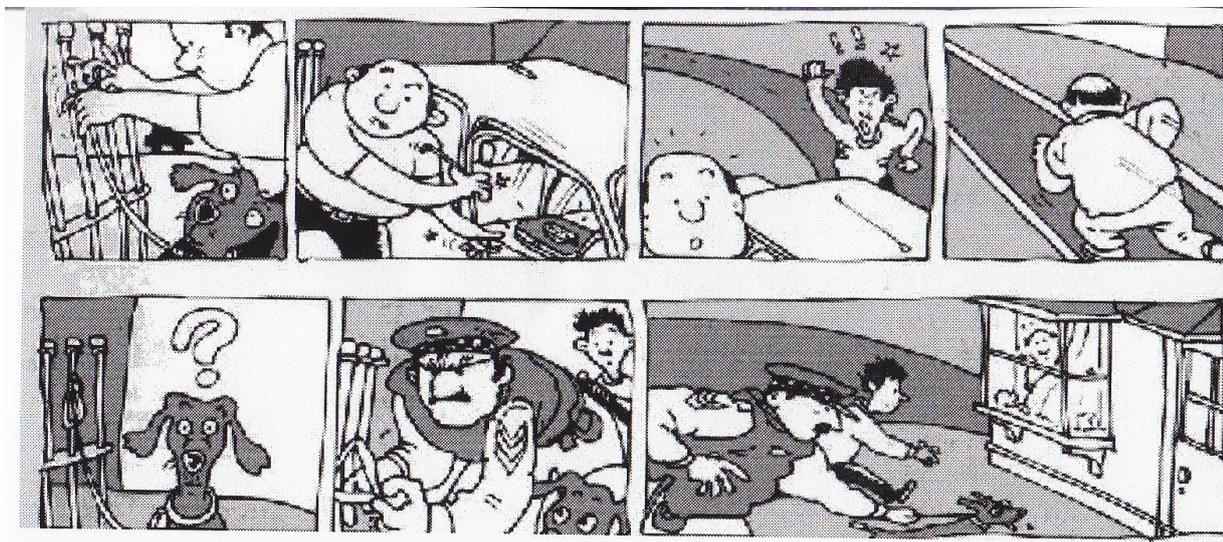


Figure 1. Comic strips (Wacyn-Jones, 2002)

Utilizing the Pecha-Kucha Format for Presentation Activities

Norman Fewell

Meio University

Quick Guide

- Keywords: presentation, pecha-kucha
- Learner English level: beginner to advanced
- Learner maturity: elementary and above
- Preparation time: 10-30 minutes
- Activity time: 6 minutes 40 seconds
- Materials: Projector, PowerPoint,
- Pecha-Kucha slides

As the media buzz surrounding a number of sensational presentations held in the TED Talks venue continues, a renewed interest in the mastery of public speech seems to have taken hold. In the crevasses of public speaking lurks a relatively less-known form of delivery known as *Pecha-kucha*, appropriately named from a Japanese onomatopoeia meaning chit-chat. Pecha-kucha events are often held at local venues with interested spectators attending to learn something new and participants simply wanting to share their insight with the public. The sharing of information is more freely available with the inclusion of everyone, and this is one aspect that distinguishes Pecha-kucha from TED Talks – the absence of a rigid screening process. Admittedly, quality issues are in question at times. One could even critically describe Pecha-kucha as being an amateurish version of TED Talks with its informal approach to public speaking. Nevertheless, the magic of Pecha-kucha is in its basic presentation format. The delivery of presentations, most often via PowerPoint, is limited in one important respect – time. Presenters are given a limited number of slides, 20 in total, and they are given a time

limitation of 20 seconds per slide. These are welcomed restrictions for any audience member who has ever sat through a dreadfully long speech. Another peculiarity with Pecha-kucha is a rule that slides must contain only images. Texts are not allowed. This forces the audience to focus exclusively on the presenter's speech for key information.

Pecha-kucha is not only an attractive option because of time efficiency; additionally, it offers a multimodal dimension to teaching with the utilization of auditory, visual, and tactile sensory modalities (Tomsett & Shaw, 2014). However, it could be argued that the creativity often prevalent in many Pecha-kucha presentations may cover the full-range of multiple intelligences, as each presentation is unique. As Gardner (1983, 1999) pointed out, each individual has at least seven – and quite possibly eight intelligences – at their disposal. Gardner's multiple intelligences categories include linguistic, musical, logical-mathematical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, interpersonal and intrapersonal. The distinctiveness of our individuality ultimately effects the way we utilize these intelligences. In essence, the basic framework of Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences (MI) presupposes that all of us are wired somewhat differently.

It is recommended that educators create conditions in the classroom that are ideal for developing these intelligences and a balance in introducing these intelligences could maximize the benefits of strengthening underutilized intelligences for all learners (Haley, 2001). In order to promote success in learning, teachers must present material to students in ways that are most receptive (Beckman, 1998). Nolen (2003) states that

Fewell, N. (2015). Utilizing the Pecha Kucha format for presentation activities. *OTB Forum*, 7(1), 67-69.

material used in a foreign language class should be presented in ways that address all or most of the intelligences since these are available to every learner. Providing students with more variety leads to more accessibility to understanding and learning. As Pecha-kucha presentations may ultimately provide more presentations in a shorter time span, learners would likely be exposed to multiple delivery styles and content. In using Pecha-kucha in the language class, students are provided with a wider array of input to stimulate their interests and learning, a shared concept with MI theory.

The basic format of Pecha-kucha may be ideal as a class presentation activity. Due to differences in time availability and language proficiency levels, teachers may adjust the number of slides and the number of seconds per slide. Essentially, there are an unlimited number of ways to carry out class activities based on the Pecha-kucha framework. For instance, students could create their own slideshows for class presentations, or they could choose from thousands of slide sets available on the official website, www.pechakucha.org. One time-saving strategy for teachers is the use of in-group presentations that can be done simultaneously. For instance, one main Pecha-kucha slideshow could be displayed from a class projector while students in their respective groups engage in separate in-group presentations. Below, the basic instructions for such an in-group Pecha-kucha activity are outlined.

Preparation

Step 1: After determining the amount of time available and student proficiency levels, set a time limitation for each slide and decide on the number of slides for the entire slideshow.

Step 2: Choose the theme/content of the slideshow. Original slideshows may be

created with software such as MS PowerPoint. A collection of slideshows are also readily available on the website [pechakucha.org](http://www.pechakucha.org).

Step 3: Provide slideshows to students in advance, especially to English language learners at the beginner to intermediate proficiency levels.

Step 4: Encourage students to prepare and rehearse their presentations before class.

Procedure

Step 1: Divide the class into groups.

Step 2: Explain the procedure to the students, i.e., number of seconds per slide, etc.

Step 3: Play the slideshow and let the students perform their presentations.

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Call for abstracts: The next issue of the *OTB Forum* is planned for the summer of 2015. The review process is ongoing, so authors are encouraged to submit a short abstract (about 200 words). Please send abstracts to editor@otbforum.net



Aprendizaje y Fijación de los Verbos Regulares en Español: Una Idea Más

Fernando Kohatsu

University of the Ryūkyūs

Abstracto: Cuando los estudiantes japoneses intentan aprender la lengua española se encuentran con la dificultad de memorizar las conjugaciones verbales. En este caso presento una actividad que me ha dado muy buenos resultados en las clases de español que dicto en dos universidades de la prefectura de Okinawa, y la cual se ha visto plasmada ya en el libro ¡Bienvenidos a Japón! de la editorial Asahi (lección 5, página 25). Esta actividad oral promueve la fijación consciente (e inconsciente luego de la práctica) de los verbos regulares del español. Un grano de arena para activar la enseñanza comunicativa de idiomas en las aulas japonesas de ELE.

DESTREZA: oral

NIVEL: básico

EDADES: estudiantes de secundaria o universitarios

DESARROLLO DE LA ACTIVIDAD: libre

DURACIÓN: 10 a 15 minutos

ORGANIZACIÓN: Por parejas (estudiante A y B)

PREPARACIÓN: Una clase antes de llevar a cabo la actividad pedir a los estudiantes la memorización de la conjugación de los tres verbos regulares base: hablar, comer y vivir.

MATERIAL: Lista de verbos regulares en español y algunos ejemplos de

oraciones para calentar motores.

Ejemplo:

-ar: trabajar, bailar, cantar, cenar, cocinar, comprar, desayunar, etc.

• Yo hablo español, inglés y japonés.

• ¿Trabajáis vosotros hoy?

-er: aprender, beber, comprender, correr, creer, leer, recorrer, etc.

• Ellos beben *sake*.

• Nosotros aprendemos italiano en la universidad.

-ir: abrir, escribir, partir, recibir, subir, etc.

• Ella no vive con su familia.

• Tú escribes cartas en español.

Pasos

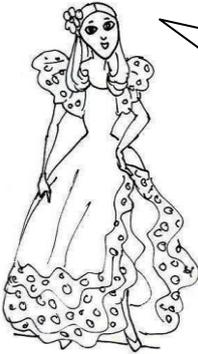
1) El estudiante A dice un verbo regular conjugado (Ej.: “Comemos”) y el estudiante “B” piensa y responde a cuál pronombre personal (o a cuáles) pertenece la conjugación dicha (Ej.: “Nosotros”). Abajo, la actividad y sus respuestas.

	hablar	comer	vivir
yo	hablo	como	vivo
tú	hablas	comes	vives
él/ella/usted	habla	come	vive
nosotros/nosotras	hablamos	comemos	vivimos
vosotros/vosotras	habláis	coméis	vivís
ellos/ellas/ustedes	hablan	comen	viven

Kohatsu, F. (2015). Aprendizaje y Fijación de los Verbos Regulares en Español: Una Idea Más. *OTB Forum*, 7(1), 70-71.

1. Practica en parejas siguiendo el ejemplo.

A) Ej.: “Comemos”



① “Viajas”
② “Corréis”
③ “Leo”
④ “Caminan”
⑤ “Cree”
⑥ “Abrimos”



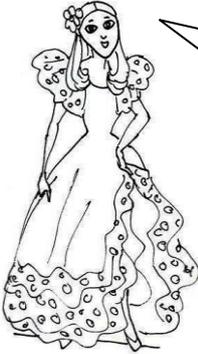
① _____
② _____
③ _____
④ _____
⑤ _____
⑥ _____

Respuesta

1. Practica en parejas siguiendo el ejemplo.

Ej.: “Comemos” → Nosotros

A) Ej.: “Comemos”



① “Viajas”
② “Corréis”
③ “Leo”
④ “Caminan”
⑤ “Cree”
⑥ “Abrimos”

B) → Nosotros



① Tú
② Vosotros
③ Yo
④ Ellos, Ellas, Ustedes
⑤ Él, Ella, Usted
⑥ Nosotros

Referencias

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“Welcome to Nago” Website: A Sophomore English Writing Project

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The impetus behind this semester-long English writing project comes from my desire to have students think of themselves not as merely “students” of the English language, but real “users” of that language. Much has been written about Japanese students’ struggle to communicate effectively in English, regardless of their English test scores, and thus I’m interested in improving basic communication abilities and confidence. The question is, though, how can this be best accomplished in a writing class?

My solution is inspired in part by the concept of the “ideal L2 self,” which links a student’s sense of personal identity to their L2 abilities (Takahashi, 2013). I want to provide opportunities for students to be able to “imagine themselves as being English users” (Takahashi, 2013) and to be able to present an image of themselves and their identity to the world at large. I decided that this goal could be best accomplished through an online writing project that would have tangible benefits for the students and their community.

The course is two sections of a first-semester sophomore writing course at a small university in Nago, which is a medium-sized town in the northern region of Okinawa. I created a semester-long writing project in which students from both classes, working in small groups, will build a single website describing their favorite places to go in Nago and the surrounding areas. Though there is a good deal of information about Okinawa in English on the web, much of it is from the perspective of those with connections to the US military, such as the quite large blog www.okinawahai.com. Other online English-language information on northern Okinawa, which is much more sparsely populated than the southern half of the island, can be obtained through a rather hit-or-miss survey of travel websites like TripAdvisor. All these

factors work together to create a situation in which the vision of Okinawa presented in English to the non-Japanese-speaking world is not a local perspective. Given the rather fraught state of Okinawa’s current political situation—which necessarily includes an international element—I wanted to change that, while at the same time helping my students develop their English composition skills.

One of the main ways that college-age students use their own language is through online activities, whether general web browsing or social networking applications. It makes sense, then, to transition this tendency toward foreign language learning. As Black (2009) points out, integrating online work with language instruction, particularly in a group setting, “provides options for [students] to use language and other modes of representation for authentic communication with peers, teachers, and other experts that they may encounter in their research and explorations... thus extending learning outside of the classroom walls.” Before publishing their writing, then, my students were asked to leave the comfort and safety of the classroom and to venture out into the community. They were asked, in fact required, to make key decisions without the guidance of their teacher and turn those decisions into a publishable writing project.

Plan

First, I created a very basic website using Google’s blogger.com platform. This platform is quite easy to use and can be accessed using a simple Google account login (I created a Meio Writing account for this project). All the students were given access to the account. My own access allowed me to proofread and edit their work before it “went live,” ensuring that web illiteracy (which a surprising number of the students have) would not damage any good writing that was done.

The project itself was divided into eight “meetings” throughout the semester:

Kuckelman, M. (2015). “Welcome to Nago” website: A sophomore English writing project. *OTB Forum*, 7(1), 72-74.

- Class 1: Introduction to the project
- Class 2: Groups formed; planning session
- Class 4: Individual roles assigned; visit(s) planned; examination of www.Okinawahai.com
- Class 7: Work on entry outline
- Class 9: Rough draft of entry due; peer review; explanation of how to use blog platform
- Class 14: Revised rough draft of entry due; peer review
- Class 15: Class proofreading of website (upload entry and pics to site by this class)
- Class 16: Presentation of website

In between classes 4 and 7, the students visited their chosen location. Groups visited local tourist attractions, favorite restaurants, sweets shops, and more. I suggested to them that they try to imagine what a foreign exchange student would want to know about Nago before moving here for a year.

After the groups visited their chosen sites, the website meetings became very lively, productive sessions, as they selected pictures, decided the best way to organize their text, and worked with me to find vivid language and exciting hooks (which they had practiced in a description essay midway through the semester). One of the most difficult parts of the project for most of the groups turned out to be writing driving directions to their sites. Because streets in Japan do not generally have names, the students were forced to use very precise language that accurately described the geography of the city (for example, “turn right at the stop light in front of the large resort”). They also had to imagine navigating the streets without the benefit of being able to read Kanji. Thus, they had to stretch their language abilities because they were using that language in a very precise communicative situation. Imagining a foreign visitor to Okinawa lost on the mountains of Motobu was a much more compelling motivation for precision and correctness than any test or essay prompt I could have devised.

My own workload on the project was minimal until the end of the semester. Then, I met each group individually during class time

for proofreading. I also ended up having to do quite a bit of editing on the blog itself, as most of the students didn’t really consider design and readability when they set up their entry on the blog. Unfortunately, this is not something I foresee being able to change, as I don’t want to take away class time in a writing class to provide instruction on using the blog platform beyond the most basic steps.

At the end of the semester I distributed a survey to the students about their assessment of the project. Only about half of the students in one section of the class were able to take it, as a typhoon cancelled the last day of class. However, the overall satisfaction rate was high:

58% of students were “very satisfied” and 39.5% were “somewhat satisfied” with the project.

25.6% of students “strongly agreed” and 55% “somewhat agreed” that the project helped them develop confidence in their English writing abilities.

Nearly 70% found the project more helpful than the textbook, though they were much more divided on whether it was more helpful than the regular course essays (28% said “more helpful,” 42% said “less helpful” and 30% said “both were helpful”)

Below is a small selection of comments the students made about the project. They have not been edited for grammar. (Most comments were in Japanese and these have not yet been translated, so this is a limited selection of the English comments.)

I wrote my sentences carefully than usual because once we publish, many people in the world have chance to see them. Also this was a great chance for us to contribute each other as we work together....If we can advertise this website more, that would be better.

Essay[s for class] and this is different. ‘How to get there’: This is not write in essay. I could learn how to write something except essay.

In this time, we didn’t see the example. Next time, to show the example more.

I didn't think I can do this project first time. Because I had never written long story in English. However, I tried to write English. Of course it was difficult though I liked spending time to make this website! I want everyone to know this website and come to Nago! It think this project is good way to improve my English skill and know about Nago!!

I can make friends thanks to this project. And I was glad that I visited the place I have never been to by this project.

You should identify the purpose of this project more so your students will do your best more.

The biggest problem I ran into during the semester was that only a few groups managed to meet all the draft deadlines I'd set for them. Several groups arrived at their proofreading appointment with a number of differently sized pieces of paper covered in handwriting instead of the typed draft I'd asked for. During the next iteration of the project, I plan to make rough draft deadlines a part of the project grade.

I have a few future plans for the project. First, each spring, my sophomore writing classes will add to the site, forcing students to travel further and further out of their comfort zones to find new places to visit in Nago. Second, eventually I would like to shift the site from a blog platform to a real website. There, entries could be arranged by topic instead of by date. I'd also like to make the site searchable. Third, if the site proves successful, I'd like to present it formally to the Meio community and the city of Nago as a

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way of enhancing the ties between our university and the local community.

The course in which this project was embedded is a general essay writing course. The following English writing course in our curriculum focuses exclusively on academic writing. Most of my students in the more academic writing course had participated in the website project. I noticed that they were very comfortable thinking of their writing as something they had control over and which could/should be revised again and again before it was finished. They saw me as a guide, not as a towering authority. As the project continues to evolve each spring, my hope is simply that, by providing students a chance to formally publish their English work in a way that tangibly benefits their school and community, students will begin to imagine themselves as users of English, not simply passers of tests.

The site can be found at

<http://welcome-to-nago.blogspot.jp/>

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A Focus on Functional Language

Tokuya Uza

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Introduction

There is a critical need to improve conversational skills for EFL learners. The way to improve these skills is to focus on the functional language at the core and foundation of communicative interaction. Functional, in this sense, refers to basic phrases one will need to master in order to gain the confidence and automaticity needed for communication. Below, a detailed explanation is given for an approach that may assist teachers to handle such concerns.

- Target Level: Beginner to Advanced
- Objectives: Lessen fear about learning English; get accustomed to speaking the English language aloud; acquire the English language instead of simply learning about it.
- Materials: Any class textbook.
- Time: 5 seconds per flashcard on the Verbal Test and 30 seconds on the Written Test in both English and Japanese.
- Speed Reading Test: 10 to 20 seconds
- Keyword: Iteration learning
- Purpose of Verbal Test: By using flashcards and participating in peer work, students will be able to verbalize the acquired phrases instantly without thinking.
- Written Test: By giving a time limit, students will write as fast as they can, and in order to do so, the students must write a lot. By the end of memorizing all the phrases, students may not be able to explain the grammatical structure, but they can gain a 'feel' of whether the grammar is right or wrong. Furthermore, the students may explain what they have learned and mastered in the class.
- Speed Reading Test: By reading a book out loud as fast as possible, the students' pronunciation speed will fit more

Uza, T. (2015). A focus on functional language. *OTB Forum*, 7(1), 75-78.

naturally into the English language.

Procedure

1. The teacher must select approximately 100 appropriate phrases from a textbook.
2. Give students the lists of the selected phrases and ask them to write down the phrases on a flashcard, on a one side in English and the other side in Japanese.
3. Give a quiz. Start with 10 phrases and add another 10 phrases per a week. (Note you must be cautious about overloading. When and if students seem overloaded, avoid adding the additional phrases and give the same quiz the next week or take a break.

The basic principle of initiating this quiz is to make pairs and the students test each other. Tell students that cheating will not help their partner to improve their English skills and be very strict about the right and wrong answers. If time allows, you can give students the test five times with different partners and take the individual's average score.

The teacher may begin the quiz either from the verbal test or written test, but it is a good idea for students to decide which one to start from.

Verbal Test (5 seconds per flashcard)

1. Make pairs. (Make sure to make a different pair for each quiz.)
2. Swap the individuals' flashcards and shuffle the flashcards.
3. Teachers should use a stopwatch equipped with an alarm.
4. Set the timer. The quiz time will be 5 seconds per phrase (e.g., with 20 phrases, 20 phrases x 5 seconds = 100 seconds or 1 minute and 40 seconds).
5. Student (A) will give the phrases in Japanese by looking at the shuffled flashcard (randomly in order), and student (B) will translate the given Japanese phrases into English. During the quiz, while student (A) is

giving the phrases by watching the flashcard, student (B) must not see the flashcard.

6. Since time is limited, student can say “pass” if they cannot answer. When the examinee says, “Pass,” the tester should move the phrase to the end of the flashcard and retest again until the alarm goes off.

7. When the answer is wrong, the tester should move the phrase instantly to the end of the flashcards and retest it until the alarm goes off.

8. When the answer is correct, the tester must remove the flashcard from the stack.

9. Every paired student begins the quiz at the teacher’s signal.

10. When the alarm rings, students must stop taking the quiz. (Have students count the answered phrases later.)

11. Students’ scores will be the percentage of correct answers (e.g., 15 correct phrases out of 20 phrases [$15 \div 0.20$] = 75%).

12. When the students’ scores are lower than you expect, you may give them two more chances and calculate the average scores. (Let students work with different partners).

Written Test (30 seconds in both English and Japanese)

1. The students will write whole phrases without looking at any materials. (The students must memorize the provided phrases).

2. Remove all materials from the desk. (Allow only writing materials).

3. Teachers should use a stopwatch equipped with an alarm.

4. Set the timer. The quiz time will be 30 seconds per phrase (depending on the length of the phrases; for example, 20 phrases = 20 phrases x 30 seconds = 600 seconds, or 10 minutes).

5. All students begin writing on the teacher’s signal. (The teacher starts the timer.)

6. When the alarm rings, the students must stop writing.

7. Swap the individuals’ completed paper and check the phrases (i.e., spelling check, translation check, and punctuation check). (Make sure students are not cheating while checking

the answer sheet and inform them that cheating will not help their friends).

8. The English phrases can be in random order, but the phrase and the translation must be written as a set.

9. Both the English phrase and the translation must be correct to get credit.

10. When checking the answer sheet, the students can look at their flashcards for confirmation.

11. Students’ scores will be the percentage of the correct answers (e.g., 15 correct phrases out of 20 phrases = 75%).

Speed Reading Test (10 to 20 seconds)

1. The teacher must select approximately 10 appropriate-length paragraphs out of the textbook.

2. The length will be approximately from 5 to 20 seconds to complete the reading. (By the time students reach the assigned time, they will have memorized the whole paragraph without noticing it and they may choose not to look at the textbook to increase the speed).

3. Teachers must prepare a stopwatch equipped with an alarm.

4. Set the timer. The quiz time will be 5 to 20 seconds to complete the reading. The time varies depending on the length of the paragraph. During the quiz, students may look at their textbooks. Have all the students stand up and begin reading out loud on the teacher’s signal. (The teacher starts the timer).

5. Start with 15 seconds, and if the students were not able to read within 15 seconds, they sit down and their score will be zero. If the students did make it on time, they remain standing and they will go to the next level, which is 14 seconds. Whenever students sit down, they need to remember their time and the scores, e.g., 10 seconds = 100 points.

15+ seconds = 0 points

14 seconds = 60 points

13 seconds = 70 points

12 seconds = 80 points

11 seconds = 90 points

10 seconds = 100 points

9 seconds = 110 points

8 seconds = 120 points

7 seconds = 130 points

6 seconds = 140 points

As you may have noticed, the first quiz will provide bonus points, so students can get a high score. By allowing a high score, it will help to motivate the students.

A student's final score will be the individual's percentage of the total score.

Flashcard quiz = 75 points

Writing quiz = 75 points

Fast reading quiz = 120 points

The total of the score = 270 points

The average of the total = 90 points

Every week, the students will learn new 10 phrases and add to their flashcards. The first quiz will be 10 lists of phrases. The second week will be 20 phrases. The third week will be 30 phrases. When students reach around 40 phrases, the teacher will need to be cautious with the students' stress level. When and if the students' seems stressed out, the teacher must slow the pace of the amount of phrases, e.g., give students a week off from the quizzes. (For the next quiz, the teacher may add additional phrases or just do the same quiz as a review, depending on how well student cope with the volume of work).

The author of this study strongly believes that the learning process can be accelerated by nurturing repetitive behavior. By following the author's instructions, students will be able to acquire the targeted language more naturally. The key is the time in the sense that students are told that they have a limited time to complete the activity, so most of the students practice over and over to attain their goals.

Despite the negativity towards repetitive tasks in language learning activities, some scholars believe that repetition can reap benefits. According to Bygate, Skehan, and Swain (2013), "...in the TESOL context, repetitious and repetitive are hardly the most exciting adjectives to apply to a classroom task. Despite the evidence that immediate task repetition led these learners to change and improve their spoken English" (p. 159). Furthermore, Chase and Johnston (2013) divided the learning process into three levels of early English proficiency that include *Level 1: Emerging*; *Level 2: Beginning*; and *Level 3: Developing*. Based on the early English

proficiency levels, the repetition is under *Level 3: Developing* and requires repetition and rephrasing of new material.

In a study by Gashan and Almohaisen (2014), the authors strongly recommended that "...researchers and teachers might find it very beneficial to devote some of their time to design effective task repetition to help language learners improve their oral production" (p. 36).

Azimzadeh (2014) studied the impact of task repetition on accuracy, fluency and complexity of EFL learners' oral production and the results of his study indicate that "task repetition has a significant impact on the development of learners' oral production in terms of fluency and accuracy" (p. 95). In addition, Azimzadeh argued that "performing the same task for the second time with the time interval of one week had a significant effect on the improvement of participants' fluency" (p. 101). The activities described above can assist students in gaining a solid foundation of basic communicative phrases. In some cases, repetition can lead to automaticity in communication.

Notes

1. Begin with 10 phrases and by the end of the semester, the students will be able to express at least 100 phrases instantly.
2. Let the students learn the phrases prior to using the textbook.

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Psychological Considerations in Teaching

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While educators give a lot of thought to the methodology they will use in their classroom while conducting their classes, they tend to focus on activities rather than psychological considerations regarding the students. One factor that strongly affects students' in-class performance and foreign language (FL) learning is anxiety. Levine (2003) found that students with lower grade expectations had greater anxiety, which led to less target language (TL) use. Ganschow et al. (1994) confirmed that, while approximately 25 percent of high anxiety students are successful FL learners, the majority of high anxiety students tend to exhibit poorer language skills and FL aptitude. Hewitt and Stephenson (2012) also found that higher anxiety had a negative effect on oral accomplishment: the more anxious students were, the poorer the quality of their English, and MacIntyre (2011) concurred that anxiety has a significant effect on both language learning and communication. Liu and Jackson (2008) found that Chinese students of English were apprehensive about public speaking, feared being negatively evaluated on their speaking, and that their unwillingness to communicate in the FL correlated significantly with their FL anxiety. Horwitz (2000) refuted claims that anxiety is a result of poor FL performance rather than a cause and stated that the idea that anxiety can interfere with performance and learning is one of the most accepted phenomena in psychology and education.

All of this has direct implications on the classroom and indicates the challenge we face in motivating our students, and lower ability level students in particular, to choose to participate in class. MacIntyre (2007) stressed the importance of adapting methodologies to focus on the process of how students choose

whether to initiate or avoid SL communication, and Young (1991) discussed the importance of creating a low-anxiety classroom environment. This might be particularly difficult in Asian classrooms. Japanese students are notoriously risk averse, and although FL students everywhere often cite having to speak in front of the class as the most anxiety-provoking aspect of FL classes, Japanese students can be particularly reluctant to volunteer to speak. Analyzing the psychological ramifications of classroom activities and processes can help us turn speaking in class from a punishment into a reward. Consequently, I have developed a number of activities incorporating psychological considerations.

Everyone Stand/Speak to Sit

When reviewing materials, or when I want students to volunteer to ask or answer questions, I often have everyone stand. Students are told to raise their hands to either ask or answer a question. Once they do either, they can sit down, but the answer must appropriately respond to the question asked. This has a number of benefits.

First, it is sound practice from the theoretical viewpoint of being student centered: all the instructor does is call on students and judge the acceptability (grammaticality, content, suitability) of the utterances. The students do all the talking. They generate the ideas and content for the questions. In addition, they have to interact with each other, i.e., they have to listen carefully to the question in order to be able to answer correctly. It can add a communicative content to the activity that is sometimes missing in pair work activities.

Next, this also introduces, perhaps surprisingly since I have enumerated the problems associated with anxiety, facilitative anxiety, which is slight pressure that purportedly improves performance. Since students are not permitted to repeat questions, they

Kelly, T. (2015). Psychological considerations in teaching. *OTB Forum*, 7(1), 79-82.

must pay attention to what questions have been asked, and the longer they wait, the harder it is to think of new questions.

To counteract any negative consequences this pressure might have on students, they should be explicitly taught strategies to deal with the situation. For example, the sooner they speak, the more possible questions they have to choose from; volunteering sooner provides more opportunities.

This method also helps students develop communication strategies. They must decide whether, given the flow of the activity, it is easier to ask or answer a question. Also, by following the flow of the questions and answers, they can tell when the speaker is about to finish, so they can raise their hand and gain the floor (turn-taking skills). Students can also express their creativity in the questions they ask. They can ask humorous questions, and they can ask short or more advanced questions based upon their own language confidence, all of which are rewarded equally by being able to sit down.

The main value in this type of activity, though, is that it turns volunteering to speak in front of the class into a reward rather than a punishment. Rather than the students feeling aggrieved by being singled out by the instructor to speak, they are self-selecting. If the activity is conducted quickly, it develops a momentum with students wanting to quickly participate. Many times, the least interested students suddenly are clamoring to speak first so they can sit down. Furthermore, since numerous students are volunteering at the same time, instructors can discreetly use the speaker selection process to encourage students they feel could particularly benefit from successful participation in a timely manner.

Caution

The first time I do this, I go through the entire class just to give them the idea they will eventually have to participate. After that, though, I only occasionally continue until everyone has spoken, instead finishing after varying percentages of students have participated. Variable-ratio reinforcement schedules produce a high rate of responding; students are never sure how long the activity

will continue, so reluctant students have to weigh whether they can safely hang back and hope to outlast the activity against the possibility that they will end up standing for a long time and become increasingly visible to the rest of the class. In addition, this process can become time consuming and tedious in a large class if everyone speaks every time. If the process drags out and takes too long, the momentum is lost, and it starts to lose the ability to excite and motivate students to participate. The psychological benefit of the activity is lost.

Correcting Assignments

Correcting assignments in class can be very anxiety inducing for students. Not only are they being singled out by the instructor to speak before the class with everyone watching them, there is the real chance the instructor will tell them directly that they are wrong. This is problematic for a couple of reasons. First, in Japanese communication style in Japanese, people do not like saying no directly. To be directly told they have the wrong answer can be embarrassing for students. Take the following situation:

Instructor: Kenji, what's the answer to question 1?

Kenji: True.

Instructor: No, I'm afraid not.

Not only is Kenji embarrassed, but who is taking all the responsibility for answering the question? Obviously, it is the instructor. If the instructor continues, "Yumiko, what do you think?" even if Yumiko has true, the instructor did not like that answer, so she will probably answer false.

Instead, when I correct such exercises, I call on students for the answers and write whatever they say on the board without comment. The first time I do so, I see many students changing their answers to match what the instructor wrote, assuming they have the wrong answer. After the questions are all answered, though, I ask if anyone has different answers. I write any different answers offered on the board without comment. Then, when everyone is finished, I go over all the questions and confirm the

correct answers with the information that explains why questions are true or false.

There are a number of psychological reasons for doing it this way. First, it removes the correction from the student who made the mistake. Rather than a student being directly corrected by the instructor, one of two answers on the board is crossed out. By that time, the direct connection to whomever gave the answer has been broken, and the students have greater anonymity for wrong answers. With less fear of being singled out, they have greater willingness to answer.

Next, responsibility for the correction is being removed from the instructor to classmates. The instructor does not indicate the wrong answers initially; students are increasingly trained to speak up and initiate responses. Even if they make an incorrect correction, they also are not directly contradicted. This helps accustom students to volunteering, initiating communication rather than just responding to direct questions, and it provides a less threatening classroom environment where anxiety is reduced.

“Voting” in Class

A variation on the “everyone stand up” tactic is useful when students are reluctant to commit to an answer in cases such as T/F or multiple-choice questions. Some textbook questions are poorly written or are particularly difficult, and many students have each of the answers. If I ask, “How many think the answer is T? How many think it’s F?” and only a few of the students raise their hands, I have everyone stand. I then tell everyone who thinks the answer is T to sit down and then those who think it is F to sit down. Usually, everyone will sit down, although some do so hesitatingly. I then say, “Good. Everyone voted that time.” This is a lighthearted way to encourage everyone to make a decision. Even if they are afraid of being wrong and will not risk raising their hand, even students with no clue or who did not answer the question will usually sit down for one of the choices; it is a group action. I want to convince them that communication is the goal, rather than perfection.

This is particularly useful for poorly written questions where the answer is

ambiguous: they are all right! The point is, though, that I don’t care if they have the right answer to the question or not – I just want them to commit to an answer. There is no punishment, and since everyone is participating, they are not singled out (unless they get embarrassed by being the lone person standing there not knowing what to do, which usually only happens once, in which case I just pause for a few seconds and they usually sit down). If they are unwilling to take a risk and say true or false, they are unlikely to be able to speak up in public or participate in conversations. This has the further advantage of waking everyone up and getting them to pay attention. A little exercise is good for the blood flow, and for those not paying attention, it focuses their attention on what the question is.

Pairwork

Certainly everyone knows the rationale for using pair work in class. Besides the obvious benefit of greatly increasing the amount of time students spend speaking in class, though, having students work in pairs also has psychological benefits. When answering questions in pairs, they have a chance practice their answers. They can receive feedback from their partner about their vocabulary and grammar, which can help develop increased confidence to give their answers in front of the whole class. In addition, they can consider the content of their answers before having to perform in front of everyone. The added advantage for more open-ended questions is that they have the opportunity to think of more answers and more details. The depth and breadth of answers tends to expand when students have a chance to try them out on a partner first. By increasing the chances of a successful response, we reduce anxiety and encourage the will to respond.

Conclusion

When the instructor calls on only a few students to speak in class, there is much more pressure on the few who are chosen. The speaker sticks out, feels vulnerable, and anxiety rises. If everyone is speaking a lot in pairs, though, speaking and listening to other students in class is not unusual, and there is less of a spotlight when a sole student speaks.

If we can normalize the practice of speaking in class, if we can accustom students not only to speaking willingly but also to initiating speech, if we can maximize their chances of success and reduce any perceived negative results for mistakes, we can reduce the anxiety that using the TL produces. In the process, we can psychologically empower our students to take an active role in class, to gain confidence in using the FL, and to increase their fluency in it.

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The Techno-Tips

What Are My Students Thinking?

Setting Up an Online Survey to Gather Student Feedback

Brent Wright

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Ever wonder what your students are thinking? I certainly do. How do they feel about the textbook? The pacing? The level of vocabulary? The question that was recently on my mind was whether or not I use too much Japanese in my English classes. The easiest way to get an answer to this question would be to simply ask them, but I've found the majority of my 1st- and 2nd-year EFL students to be less than enthusiastic about sharing their opinions. And these are exactly the students I really want to hear from.

I created an online questionnaire that students completed on their smartphones to find out what they thought. The results were positive in that the online survey immediately gave me easy to understand results and since the responses were anonymous, I believe that students were giving me their candid opinions.

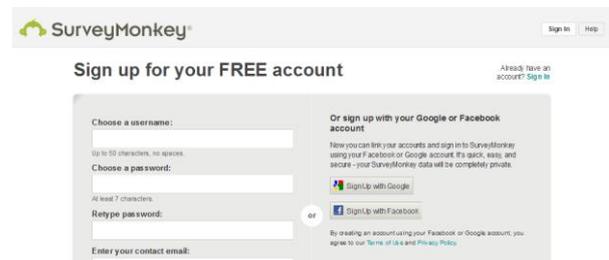
Here is the general process: (a) create an online questionnaire, (b) embed the link to that survey in a QR (abbreviation for Quick Response) code, (c) project the QR code on a screen or print it on a handout so students can access it with their smartphones, and (d) analyze the results.

SurveyMonkey and Google Forms are two online platforms that I have had success with. Both get the job done, but SurveyMonkey has less moving parts is probably easier for first-timers. The following steps and screenshots are based on SurveyMonkey using the Mozilla Firefox web browser; however, the steps will be similar for Google Forms. The following steps include some of the highlights and potential snags you may encounter. Most of these steps are completed online so keep in mind that options and buttons may have

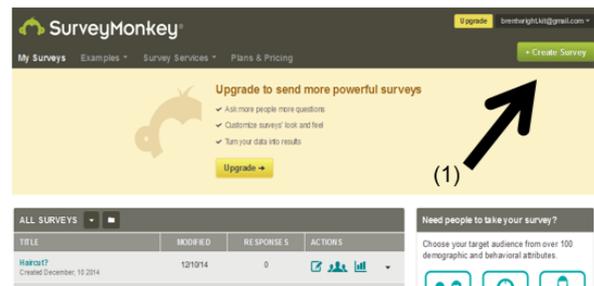
changed slightly by the time you are trying this out.

Create a Survey

Go to www.surveymonkey.com and either create a new account (for free) or sign in with a Google or Facebook account.



On the upper right side of the screen, click “create survey,” which is labeled (1) in the image below.



Enter the title of your new survey (“English Topics mid-term survey template”) (2). Once you finish creating the survey, if you want to administer it to multiple classes and keep results separated by class then you can click the “Copy an existing survey” (3) button and give the survey a new title. The “Category” selection is optional. Click “continue” (4) and you’re ready to begin building the survey.

Wright, B. (2015). What are my students thinking? Setting up an online survey to gather student feedback. *OTB Forum*, 7(1), 84-87.

Create Survey

Click “+ Add Question” (5) to enter your first question: “What do you think about the teacher using Japanese in the classroom?” (6).

There over a dozen different question formats to choose from. For my question I’ll choose a rating scale (7) (set to 5) and add descriptors for the ratings (e.g., 1 = Too much Japanese, 3 = Just the right amount, 5 = Not enough Japanese) (8). In addition, I can give the option for students to add text to elaborate on their choice. (9)

Click “Save & Close” to finish the question. There is no limit to the number of questions on one page, but if there are too more than five questions, you may want to consider using multiple pages (using the “add page” button at the bottom) (10) so that students can focus on a few questions at a time. When you are finished adding questions, click “Send Survey” (11) at the bottom of the screen.

There will be a link created for your survey. Copy this link (12) to generate a QR code in the next step. One setting change that should be considered is whether or not the survey can be completed multiple times by the same device. The default is set to one device. (13)

This link to your survey will not change, even if you alter the content of your survey.

Create a QR Code

A QR code is a simple way of making a website link (or any text) into a picture so that a smartphone with a QR code reader can take a picture of it and be taken to that website. There are many websites that will allow you to create a QR code for free. Search for “QR code generator” using any search engine and choose one. (Most QR code generating sites will have similar features.) Here is one that has worked well for me: <http://www.qr-code-generator.com/>

Now, take the link you copied and paste it into the QR code generator. (14) Click “Create QR code” and you will see the QR code on the right side of the screen (15). Click “Download” to save it as an image to your computer. (16)



Show QR Code to Your Students

The next step is to show the QR code to your students. You can put it into your slide presentation for the day, print it on a handout, or simply enlarge it on your computer screen and have students snap a picture of it with their smartphones. The nice thing about having students complete the survey on their own device is that they are doing it on their own “turf”, the smartphone they spend hours each day using to communicate with friends, play games, and obtain vital information. I like to think that this, and that the responses can be submitted anonymously, encourages students to respond candidly.

Analyze the Results

Analyzing the results is the easiest part of this process. Once students have completed the survey, click “My Surveys” (17) to see all of your surveys in a list. Click the one you want to analyze, and then click the “Analyze Results” tab (18). SurveyMonkey lets you view numerical responses as several different

kinds of graphs and text responses either as individual responses or with all respondents’ answers on the same page.



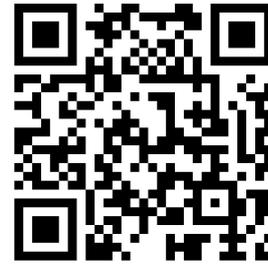
This is great for simple surveys if you only need to see tendencies or read individual responses. If you want to run statistics on collected data, then Google Forms will serve you better. Google Forms will take the results and create a spreadsheet file for each survey. You can either run your analysis in the Google spreadsheet program or download the file and open it on your computer. SurveyMonkey will let you do this with its paid service.

I have had success administering dozens of surveys using this process. Once I knew the questions I wanted to ask, the first time setting up the survey and QR code took about 30 minutes. When you figure out which survey site fits your needs and you find a QR code generating site that works for you, it shouldn’t take more than 5-10 minutes to create a short survey. This is much quicker, and more environmentally friendly, than printing and making copies of a survey. I appreciate the flexibility of being able to tailor my surveys up to the last second before students take the survey. If you have several different classes you want to give the survey to, use the same QR code to get aggregate results. Making a copy of a previous survey and generating a new QR code will let you keep class results separated. One important setting choice that can work to your advantage is whether you will allow one device to respond to the survey multiple times or not. The default setting for SurveyMonkey is that one device can only complete the survey one time. Changing this setting will allow one device to complete the survey multiple times. This lets students who don’t have a smartphone to use their classmate’s to submit their responses.

What did I find out from my survey? Most students appreciated that I used a lot of Japanese in my lessons, and there were always a few (more than I expected) who thought I used too much Japanese. I most often resort to Japanese when I give instructions, so the results encouraged me to think of better ways to give my instructions in English.

If you are having trouble setting up your survey or generating a QR code, feel free to email me and I will gladly help.

If you have time, please leave me a comment here:



Happy surveying!

Websites

QR Code Generator. Available at
<http://www.qr-code-generator.com/>

Survey Monkey. Available at
<http://www.surveymonkey.com>

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The Text-to-Speech Function

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An exciting feature for almost every major computing device (if not all) is the text to speech (TTS) function/extension. I recently demonstrated it to my students and I could easily see that they were awed by this feature. Without overstating the case, TTS is an extremely useful tool for teachers of foreign languages (FL) and primary reading. This tech tip will explain how to activate TTS on the most commonly available devices (Apple, Microsoft, Google, Amazon), and briefly discuss some apps such as Read&Write that enable TTS and added features.

Since this is a tech tip, I won't go into lengthy details about research, but there is a brief explanation about shadowing and oral reading below. Shadowing and oral reading are frequently used tools in many FL classrooms, and most teachers would immediately and intuitively agree that such activities are very useful for language learning and beginning readers.

The most useful learning activities facilitated by TTS would be shadowing and oral reading. Oral reading is when students read out loud i.e. vocalize what they are reading. Shadowing is when students imitate a teacher or an audio recording of a conversation or a text by repeating what they hear. Numerous teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) have published studies showing improvements in students' listening abilities attributable to shadowing and oral reading (e.g. Mochizuki & Kiritani, 1991). These activities have also been reported to improve students' prosody and pronunciation (e.g. Mori, 2011), and even reading skills (Kadota & Tamai, 2004; Kuramoto, Shiki, Nishida, & Ito, 2007).

Tim Murphey suggested in his 2001 study that shadowing may lengthen a student's short-term auditory memory. John Wiltshier's

2007 article about shadowing is a good brief explanation about shadowing and oral reading in their various forms. Wiltshier also summarizes research that indicates such activities require learners to attend to the information they are repeating or reading such that it enters their working memory and the chances of it being retained in long-term memory increase (See Figure 1). As such, TTS could promote transition from bottom-up to top-down reading skills and it may also be useful for effective retention of vocabulary for language learners.

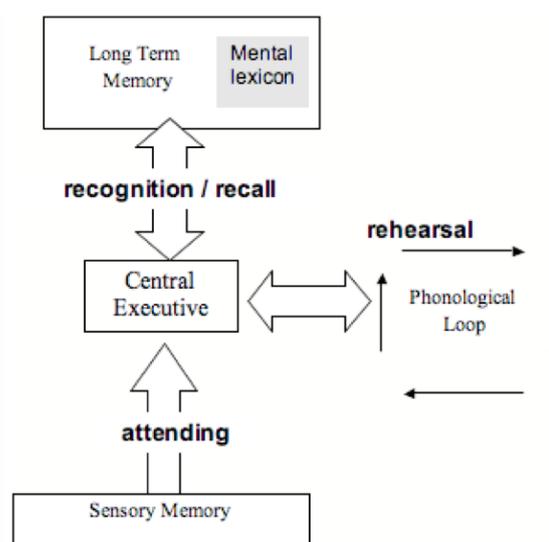


Figure 1. Memory. Reprinted with permission from Wiltshier (2007, p. 500).

Until fairly recently, beginning readers were stuck if they didn't know how to read a word, unless they had someone to help them. Furthermore, TTS and oral reading required someone to do a model reading of target text, such as a teacher or an assistant language teacher (ALT). The alternative was often a bulky device such as a cassette/CD radio player where there was one device for all learners, thus precluding learners being able to go at their own pace. This is no longer the case since the advent of computing devices and mobile phones.

Gone are the days when students had to attend language labs for individualized

MacLean, G. R. (2015). The text-to-speech function. *OTB Forum*, 7(1), 88-92.

opportunities for shadowing and oral reading. Most computing devices now have TTS and any student with a mobile phone, computer, or tablet can now access phonological input about any enabled written text.

Overview

As far as native TTS functions go, Apple is far ahead of both Google and Microsoft, although the most impressive app that I could find works with Google's Chromebooks (Read&Write). I may have overlooked something, but Microsoft seems to be far behind where TTS functionality is concerned. Without further delay, here is an explanation of how to activate and make use of TTS on the most common computing devices available today.

Apple

Apple computers have used synthesized speech since their inception. TTS is automatically enabled for HTML websites and in iBooks. It is also possible to control speaking rate and to choose between different voices by going to System Preferences > Dictation & Speech (See Figure 2).



Figure 2. Options for TTS with Apple Computers.

Apple's TTS is easy to use. Simply highlight a section of text, right click, and choose Speech > Start Speaking (See Figure 3).



Figure 3. TTS with Apple Computers.

TTS is not automatically enabled for iPads or iPhones, but this is very easy to do. Open settings > General > Accessibility > Speech > Speak Selection, and a number of options will appear that allow users to control features such as speaking rate, language, and voices (See Figure 4).

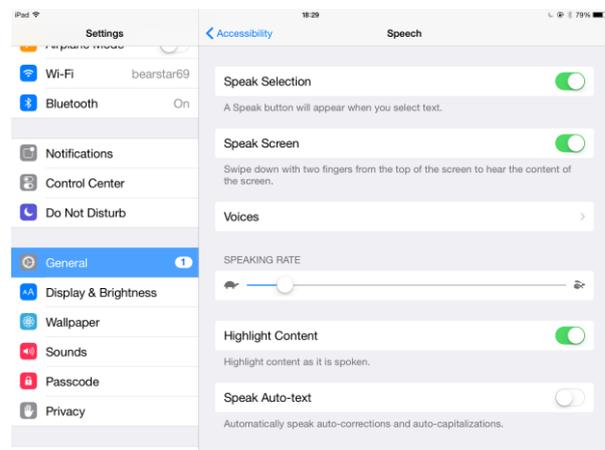


Figure 4. Enabling TTS for iPads and iPhones.

Be sure to activate Speak Screen on iPhones and iPads. It will then be possible to have any pages read to you by swiping down from the top of the screen with two fingers. After swiping down once with two fingers a dialog box will appear on any screen (See Figure 5). The dialog box allows readers to play, pause, and speed up or slow down TTS. Click "X" to exit TTS mode.



Figure 5. TTS Speak Screen for iPads and iPhones

Google and Android

Google's native TTS feature for its Chromebooks was somewhat disappointing compared with Apple. It is an accessibility function that gives play by play of everything

the user does, and it is thus rather annoying when users only want to have selected bits of text read. To do that one needs a special app, although there are several free ones readily available at Google's Web Store. YouTube also has limited TTS functionality.

Text-to-speech is easy to activate on Android devices such as mobile phones, go to Settings > Language & Input > Text-to-Speech Output in order to activate features such as speaking rate, language, and voices (see Figures 6 and 7).

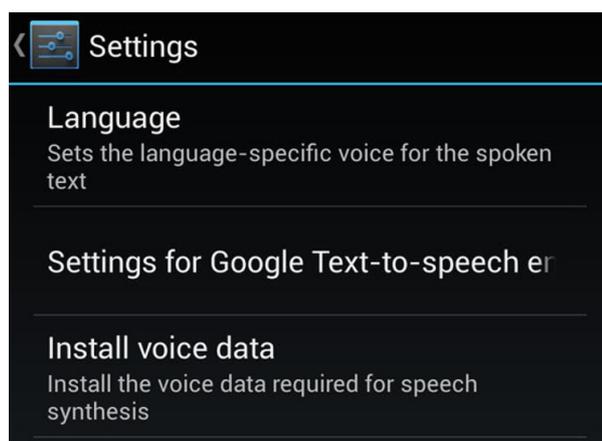


Figure 6. Enabling TTS for Android devices.

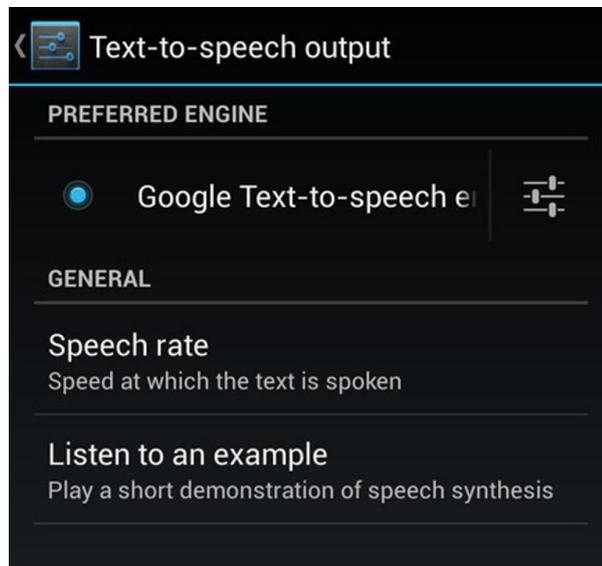


Figure 7. Enabling TTS for Android devices continued.

A final TTS feature from Google that bears mention is found within its browser on the Google Translate page. There is a small Speech icon on the left below both translate boxes that allows users to hear the text they have input in either the original text or

translated version (See Figure 8).



Figure 8. TTS at Google Translate.

Microsoft

Microsoft's native TTS extension is Narrator. It was a little difficult to find using Windows 7, but I was able to locate a link inside Microsoft's help page that allowed me to activate it. Once Narrator began working I almost immediately began trying to turn it off, as it spewed out a constant blurb according to where my cursor was hovering. Again, turning Narrator off was a little cumbersome. So much for Microsoft's native TTS extension. Microsoft also has an app (ingeniously) called Microsoft Reader Text-to-Speech for English, but it was only reviewed by four users at the site where I found it, and they gave it one star out of five so I didn't try it.

Skype

Microsoft is of course an agglomeration of corporate entities that is has gobbled up over the years. Amongst these, Skype has fairly decent TTS as shown in Figure 9.

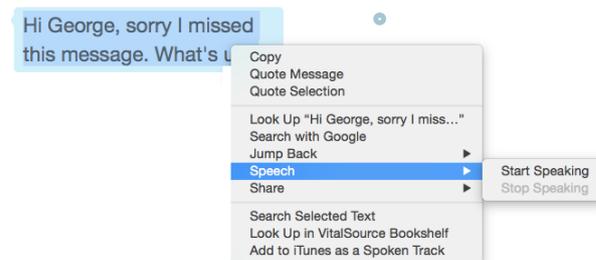


Figure 9. TTS with Skype.

Amazon

Kindle Readers also are enabled for TTS. Used on an iPad, the Speak Screen extension described above works very well. Additionally, it is possible to highlight individual words and see their definition and hear them read (See Figure 10).

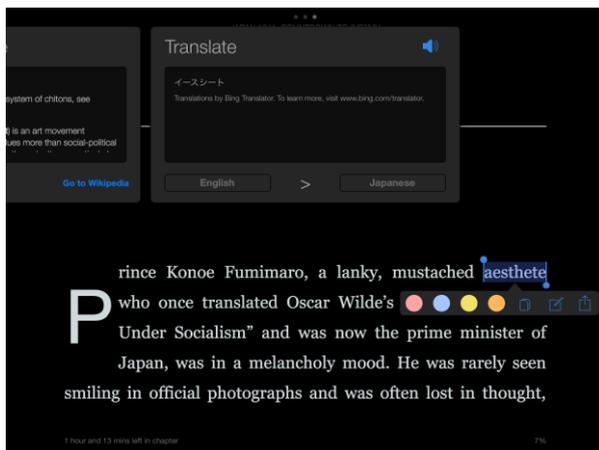


Figure 10. TTS with Kindle

Whispersynch for Voice is another amazing TTS feature by Amazon, but it is actually more of an audible book and rather expensive, so it is not covered by this review.

Applications

If I had one general criticism of all the TTS functions reviewed so far, it would be that TTS is not available at the same time as highlighting and dictionary extensions (e.g., Apple's Preview PDF reading software). This would be a powerful learning tool, and it seems one company has realized this and is prospering because of it.

The most enticing TTS application I have seen is Texthelp.com's Read&Write for Google. Using this application, users have access to:

- TTS with dual-color highlighting
- Talking and Picture Dictionaries
- Highlighters and the ability to collect highlights
- A Vocabulary Builder to easily create a list of words with text definitions and images
- Annotations (for PDFs and ePubs)
- Navigational tools (PDFs and ePubs)
- Word Prediction
- A Translator
- A Fact Finder

Moreover, Read&Write is free for teachers. For learners, it allows for a 30-day trial of the above paid features after which it reverts to a basic TTF reader where Text-to-Speech and Translator on the Web and in Google docs remain free. I'm very optimistic about

Read&Write. I contacted them with a few questions and they responded to my query almost immediately. For a video explanation of Read&Write, see Hard (2014).

Beyond Read&Write, there are a number of other free apps for TTS. For a summary of paid apps, see Posey (2014).

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Consider yourself invited to peruse the multimedia offerings of the *OTB Forum*. On our publications page (<http://www.otbforum.net/publications.html>) you'll find several audio files and one video. Enjoy!

Outside the Box: A Multi-Lingual Forum A Couple More Things...

Visitors to the *OTB Forum* webpages and readers of the journal might be curious about the imagery employed. Allow us to explain.

Why is forum used in the title of this journal? We envisioned this journal as a meeting place that would welcome viewpoints from various people and quarters and in various languages. In history, the word forum referred to an open square which served as the center of business and public discussion; the etymology of forum is the Latin *foris*, "outside." Of course, the Roman Forum (*Forum Romanum*) was such a center of commerce and government.

Why a column? As the reader may have noticed in the issue in your hand or on the screen, the *OTB Forum* employs this image of a column quite often. This image is of the top third of a large column located quite near the Foreign Language Center at the University of Tsukuba, where the *OTB Forum* originated.

The column is in the Corinthian style, the latest of three main Greco-Roman column styles: Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian. Corinthian columns were used to support temples and other important public buildings. They were erected to celebrate victories in military campaigns and to commemorate posthumously the greatness of certain emperors such as Trajan. The scrolls found at each corner of Corinthian columns were a key symbol of civilization for the Romans. They signify respect for the written word and its facility to convey law, history, and other information. These columns were also used to separate areas of different religious importance, such as each god's alcove in the Roman Pantheon. Hence, their use in the *OTB Forum* as a border between different sections is intended as a continuation of a time-honored tradition, albeit only for literary purposes. (See http://www.ehow.com/about_6570954_symbolism-roman-columns.html for an excellent explanation of Roman columns and symbolism, and a photograph of the interior of the Pantheon with its Corinthian columns can be viewed at <http://www.trekearth.com/gallery/photo1114648.htm>.)

On some of the pages of the OTB Forum webpage, you will find a gray brick background. This refers to the roads built by the Roman Empire.

Finally, ***the viaduct below*** is located in Segovia, Spain. This, too, is a vestige of the Roman Empire (and it makes a fine divider in its current incarnation).



Outside the Box: A Multi-Lingual Forum

Submission Guidelines

These are the categories we've arrived at for the *OTB Forum*. We encourage submissions in any of these, and we further welcome submissions that do NOT fit these categories—this is, as the name suggests, a forum.

Articles (formerly **Theory and Other Dangerous Things**) is devoted to theoretical issues and academic articles of interest to language teachers and practitioners.

Language Learning and Teaching addresses issues relevant to the traditional sides of the language acquisition context.

Experiences focuses, as the name suggests, on experiences (!) relevant to language. These can be, of course, as a learner, teacher, or practitioner.

Teaching Tools & Techniques deals with classroom advice and tips.

Around the World deals with international topics (i.e., outside Japan), including but not limited to travel, living abroad, and studying abroad. In this category, photographs would be an excellent addition (see Nagata, 2011).

The Techno-Tip addresses the expanding use of technology in the classroom.

Creative Writing welcomes any type of creative writing: short stories, reflections, poetry, among many other possibilities.

Reviews may address any medium (e.g., books, music, film, theater) and should include ISBN, ISSN, and price information.



General Guidelines

In your articles, please adhere to the following general guidelines.

- Submissions should be, in principle, a maximum of about 6000 words in length for academic papers and about 2000 words for all other submissions.
- To make your article as accessible as possible, abstracts in both English and Japanese are encouraged. If the paper is not in English, then an English abstract is required.
- Use **Times New Roman** font for Latin-based languages, and use **MS 明朝** for Chinese and Japanese.
- The text should be 12-point font.
- Use the **format/paragraph/special indentation/first line** feature to indent paragraphs (please do not use spaces or tabs).
- The *OTB Forum* uses APA style for references. Please consult the latest edition (currently the 6th edition) for details.
- For section headings, please consult past issues for general guidelines. Please note that we do not use numeration (e.g., 1.1, 1.1.1, 2.1) in section headings.
- Figures such as photographs and images are acceptable. The author should provide images and indicate approximately where images should be located in the text (see Davidson, 2010, and Rude & Rupp, 2008).
- May include footnotes for explanations (e.g., Bode, 2008; Kenny, 2010; Racine, 2010).
- Use of copyrighted material is allowed, but responsibility for obtaining copyright permission lies WITH THE AUTHOR, not with the *OTB Forum*.

Call for abstracts: The next issue of the *OTB Forum* is planned for the summer of 2015. Authors may submit a short abstract (about 200 words) for planned submissions.

Please send abstracts to **editor@otbforum.net**

Outside the Box: A Multi-Lingual Forum
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Spring, 2015

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