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Articles

Language Learning and Teaching

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Call for abstracts: The next issue of the *OTB Forum* is planned for the summer of 2018. 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*. 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**, features three works. In the first, **Bruce Miller** a provides an in-depth look at the use of gestures and how inappropriate usage in cross-cultural contexts can lead to communicative failure. The second article features the work of Sherlock Holmes expert **Jeroen Bode** on similarities in different works of detective fiction. In the third piece in this section, **Tetsuji Tosa** then examines the rhetoric used in advertising in Japan and offers a classification system. In the final piece in this section, **Norman Fewell** offers an ethnographic study of two Okinawan families and their adjustment to life in the United States.

In the **Language Learning and Teaching** section, we are pleased to offer four manuscripts. In the first, **Kiyomi Fujii** and **Etsuko Inoguchi** examine and compare the teaching of politeness by teachers of Japanese as a Foreign Language and by teachers of English as a Foreign Language. **Takaaki Hiratsuka** then addresses how the strengths of native speakers of English and of non-native speakers can be utilized in tandem to effectively instruct English. Next, **George Robert MacLean** offers an in-depth look into the process of adopting Google Apps for Education for classroom use. In the final essay, **David Kluge** outlines steps undertaken to prepare students for a debate event.

As always, we invite you to join us online at

http://otbforum.net

As 2017 approaches its conclusion, we would like to wish our readers a joyful, safe, and relaxing holiday season as well as all the best in 2018.

編集者より

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、この出版物の目的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で、三本の論文を掲載しております。最初の論文ではBruce Miller氏がジェスチャーの使用についての詳細な考察を通し、異文化コミュニケーションでの不適切なジェスチャーの使用がコミュニケーションの失敗につながることについて説明します。二本目の論文は、シャーロックホームズの専門家であるJeroen Bode氏による、様々な推理小説における共通点について議論しました。そして三本目の論文では、Tetsuji Tosa氏が日本の広告における修辞法の使用について考察し、分類法を提唱しました。このセクションの最後の論文では、Norman Fewell氏による、沖縄出身である二家族のアメリカでの生活への適応をエスノグラフィー手法を用いて調査した研究を掲載しています。

言語学習と教育のセクションでは、四本の著作を掲載しています。一つ目の論文は、Kiyomi Fujii氏とEtsuko Inoguchi氏が丁寧さを教えるということについて、外国語としての日本語とESLの教員の間での比較を行いました。次の論文では、Takaaki Hiratsuka氏が英語教育においてどのように英語ネイティブスピーカーとノンネイティブの強みを活かすかについて議論しました。次の論文ではGeorge Robert MacLean氏がGoogle Appsを授業で教育的に使用するためのプロセスについて詳細な説明をしました。最後の論文では、David Kluge氏が学習者をディベートイベント参加への準備をさせるためのステップについてまとめました。

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2017年も終わりに近づいています。読者の皆さんが楽しく、安全に、リラックスした休暇を過ごされること、そして素晴らしい2018年を迎えられることを祈っております。

Articles

Wrongful Moves in Unfamiliar Meaning Spaces: Gesture Usage and Implications for Cross-Cultural Gestural-Pragmatic Failure

Bruce Miller
Tokyo, Japan

Abstract: *Gestural expression whether accompanied by speech or not, is fundamental to human interaction. We are continuously enacting meaning (Zeuschner, 1997). These meanings are sieved through the cultural landscapes of the users who use them within a shared cultural-speech community without much disruption. Conversely, in cross-cultural and inter-cultural interactions, a much greater likelihood exists for pragmatic failure; that is an interlocutor misinterprets the intended pragmatic force of an utterance. This can account for an interlocutor to fail to achieve their speaking objective. This paper considers this socio-cultural framework to focus in on specific, culture-bound gestures in a Japanese L1 context, which can be problematic in the L2 (English). As a result, negative consequences arising from non-verbal, culturally-imbued 'sign-posts' can occur if not otherwise noticed and consciously applied (Schmidt, 1993). Therefore, a rich array of interactive, and 'real world' cross-cultural and intercultural experiences need to be provided that take into consideration opportunities existing in Japan for Japanese L2 learners to draw their attention to the importance of gestures and the pragmatic weight they can carry, outside their own cultural scope. By doing so, the broader gains can not only co-compliment pragmatic competence development but also intercultural and cross-cultural competence.*

Keywords: cross-cultural competence, intercultural competence, pragmatic (i.e., gestural) failure, pragmatic competence; gestural competence; pragmatic transfer; situational-based utterances (S.B.Us)

Editor's note: A shorter version of this paper will appear in the *Center for Language Education and International Programs Journal, 4,* (Jissen Women's University) in March, 2018.

Introduction

"You can't *not* communicate" (Zeuschner, 1997, p. 86)

Picture the following EFL conversational situations in Japan. In a small group adult conversation at least one male student sits with his arms crossed whether speaking or not during much of the lesson. In another half-lesson, half casual conversation scenario outside the classroom at a coffee shop the same gesture is exhibited in a one-to-one encounter with the addition of the interlocutor removing their watch and putting it on the table (also frequently seen inside classrooms).

Back in another classroom, some students can be seen doing pen-twirling actions repeatedly while otherwise seeming to pay attention. When one of them is called upon they raise their finger to their nose and say, "Me?" Meanwhile, a serious topic dealing with whether Japan should bear more responsibility for taking in more foreign refugees of conflict or not, mostly produces embarrassed smiles with silence or simply nervous laughter or perhaps a strained sounding 'cough' or two by those who are willing to produce some kind of 'oral reaction.'

These are just a handful of examples of how gestures as well as the mannerisms, or habitual ways of speaking or doing something which may accompany them, can arise in situations where they may not be entirely understood (i.e., misunderstood) or desired. Such occurrences can 'throw off' or otherwise adversely affect otherwise meaningful and positive communicative interaction, particularly where there are abrupt chasms between cultural values and assumptions as might be especially encountered in an

Miller, B. (2017). Wrongful moves in unfamiliar meaning spaces: Gesture usage and implications for cross-cultural gestural-pragmatic failure. *OTB Forum, 8*(1), 7-18.

ESL environment of widely disparate cultural-linguistic communities (Hinkel, 2014). Conversely, such episodes that might be regarded as gestural and mannerism failure in a different speech community could be considered de rigueur and therefore acceptable or at worst possibly considered unsophisticated yet mostly tolerated (Brosnahan, 1990) in a Japanese cultural context (particularly within Japan) because they 'fit' the cultural-linguistic community space they arise from. However, the reverse may certainly not hold true in classrooms or non-classroom environments outside Japan, where the messages they may or may not intentionally be sending could jeopardize not only the opportunity for otherwise positive and effective communication, but also produce disadvantageous and serious setbacks to building stronger rapport and even empathy from the language community whom they might be having to interact with either in a temporary or long-term basis. What is clear beyond these observations, however, is the essential realization that culture for whatever effect it may have as it shifts from one cultural backdrop to another, is manifested throughout all facets of human experience, thought, and expression from not only non-verbalized gestural interaction but also much broader conceptual considerations such as notions of time and emotive-laden situations of particular importance to a given cultural-linguistic community (Hinkel, 2014). With such a fundamentally overarching realization, the stakes for consideration of just how important building not only pragmatic competence, here defined by Ellis (2008) as the knowledge base used by both listeners and speakers "to engage in communication" as well as the knowledge of how "speech acts are successfully performed"(p. 975) but also intercultural and cross-cultural competence, including the gestural knowledge that accompanies it, would therefore seem high. Both of the aforementioned terms are often used synonymously and hold similar concepts, that is, having the abilities and skills (i.e., socio-cultural as well as pragmatic knowledge base) to interact appropriately with members of different speech communities regardless of the confluence of cultures. It has been noted by Barrett, Byram, Gaillard-Mompoint, Lázár, and Philippou (2013) that possessing certain attitudes and attributes, such as understanding, respect and empathy among others, also plays into both intercultural and cross-cultural contexts. This would seem to bear out Zeuschner (1997) about how greater access to information towards positively connecting individuals does not necessarily guarantee the production of understanding, empathy, and good will.

From this assessment of the centrality which non-verbal communication holds over any kind of interaction, and more specifically, cross-cultural/ intercultural encounters, it would now seem opportune to briefly outline some key areas which shall be looked at more closely in this paper. In the first section, a general overview of gestures will be discussed and followed up on again later in the paper for consideration of how certain gestures (and in some cases their accompanying mannerisms), which are commonly found and used in Japanese socio-cultural contexts, might induce problematic outcomes for learners, particularly in L2 cross-cultural and intercultural settings particularly outside Japan. There will next follow some considerations of various theoretical positions and concurrent research looking at how gestures have been approached, both from a wholly gestural (i.e. 'stand-alone') stance (Gullberg, 1998, 2010; Holler, Kelly, Hagoort & Ozyurek , 2012; Hoshino, 2013; Kendon, 2000; Kita, 2000; LeBaron & Streeck, 2000; MacNeill, 1992, 2000; Stam, 2006; Stam & Ishino, 2011) and a singularly pragmatic one (i.e., studies without specific gestural focus; Beebe & Takahashi, 1987). This has been attempted in order to try and highlight what seems a crucial nexus of two parallel systems operating under the same guise of making meaning. Therefore, the inclusion of some brief mention of possible implications that could be speculated upon to extend themselves to and accommodate gestural usage as an aspect of pragmatic competence (this author's viewpoint) would seem worthwhile. As such, an attempt will be made to try and view gesture with notions of consciousness (Baars, 1983) upon pragmatic knowledge (Schmidt, 1993) and thus perhaps extend gestural (this author) awareness to *situation-bound utterances* (SBUs) framed around pragmatic acts (Kecskes, 2010, 2014) and suggestions of transfer (Beebe & Takahashi, 1987). In the meantime, several distinct examples of Japanese gestural behavior that seem 'locked into' a Japanese speech community and others that are not will be used to demonstrate how 'transfer-like qualities' (Kecskes, 2014) might be applied via direct examples to pragmatic failure occurring in cross-cultural/intercultural settings as a potential reason for its occurrence (Charlebois, 2003), and a further suggestion of interlanguage development upon gesture (Stam, 2006) will then follow. The final section will provide further thought for classroom learning and pedagogical implications as well as suggested ideas for teaching with room for some concluding remarks and suggestions. It is hoped that by following such suggestions, gesture usage could be given more prominence in EFL/ESL classroom instruction. Ultimately making learners more aware of the importance of gestural impact as it could be conceivably applied to pragmatic socio-cultural aspects, both cross-culturally and inter-culturally (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; Bardovi-Harlig, Hartford, Mahan-Taylor, Morgan and Reynolds, 1991; Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003; Hinkel, 2014; Özüorçun, 2013; Thomas, 1983; Thornbury, 2005, 2013) could also serve to more actively and perhaps effectively draw them into more enriching communicative interaction.

Background of Relevant Gestures

Gestures have been defined in numerous ways which in all their semantic graduations will not be analyzed here in depth. (For a more concise and detailed description, the reader is advised to refer to Gullberg, 1998; Kendon, 1988; McNeill, 1992). However, generally speaking, it would seem fair to say that they involve bodily movement whether by the hands, arms, feet, legs, facial extremities or overall body posture. They can be non-verbal or can accompany speech. There are also varying forms of gestures, ranging from gesticulation (with no conventionalism, but speech attributable) to highly conventional (and speech attributable) such as sign language. This was put into illustrative form most famously by Kendon (1988) and subsequently coined as Kendon's continuum (McNeill, 1992, p. 37). Thornbury (2013) points out that along this continuum, it is possible to make a key distinction between what constitutes substitution for speech versus enhances speech.

Types of Gestures

McNeill (1992) mentions iconic gestures, which share semantic qualities with speech as well as metaphoric where more abstract concepts rather than concrete ones are depicted. There are also beats that utilize two movements, whereas a majority of gestures rely on three, and pointing or deictics and lastly, pantomime and emblems discussed in further detail below. Certainly, this is only a very basic definition because manual movement is not always connected to language meaning, such as rubbing one's eye or scratching (Gullberg, 1998). Therefore, what would seem more important is that they are backed by communicative intent to the concurrent speech act (Gullberg, 1998). She has also claimed them to be "speech-associated movements of the hand(s) and/or arm(s), except self-regulators (i.e., gestures that have no language basis)" (p. 44). McNeill has also pointed out the predominant tendency of such gesticulation (i.e., iconic) defining gesture in his 1992 work, to be connected to speech acts rather than act alone. Stam and Ishino (2011) also proposed something similar but more adroitly by including "employed intentionally and meaningfully" (p. 4).

In addition, there are also pantomime and emblems, and the latter in particular warrants further discussion due to the distinctive nature especially the latter plays among several of the upcoming Japanese gestural examples. The role of emblems is to essentially act out and represent an entire concept and replace speech altogether. Thornbury (2013) makes a key distinction between mime and gesture, saying that the latter is not a speech replacement but rather co-acts alongside it. However, the gestures presented are still entirely meaningful (Stam & Ishino, 2011). Subsequently, unlike 'used-once' gesticulations, overlapping enactments can be created from mimed gesture (McNeill, 1992). Mime has also been called a gesture that draws upon a "conceptual strategy" to what it refers to (Gullberg, 1998, p. 34). Conversely, emblems are highly conventionalized and closer to approximating speech, often being highly lexical in meaning and clearly formed and "are consciously selected and performed" (Gullberg, 1998, p. 39) but rarely overlapping and without a grammatical framework (McNeill, 1992). Additionally, emblems are often strongly culturally referenced, or "culturally codified" (Stam & Ishino, 2011, p. 4). It is for this reason that, by and large, specific cultural knowledge would be most advantageous for learners to be aware of (McNeill, 1992).

Lastly, as the upcoming examples will illustrate, they should be highlighted as part of any pragmatic/socio-cultural awareness regime. Unlike most gestures which are not easily taught due to their spontaneity and unconventionality, emblems relevant to the TL should be taught. Thornbury (2013) mentioned that they are not numerous among gestural usage, so learning them is feasible. (This will be addressed later in implications for pedagogy and activity suggestions).

Some Speech-Gestural Relationship Claims

In addition to defining gestures, there have also emerged some very interesting proposals as to the relationship existing between gesture formation and speech. McNeill (1992) has claimed that gestures are far from being random movements that act on their own. Kendon (2000) has echoed similar notions calling the relationship between speech as being "co-expressive" and "composed together as components of a single overall plan" (p. 60). Perhaps most daringly in contrast to proponents of the McNeill/Kendon position has been LeBaron and Streeck's (2000) claim that gestures are not mind-centered (i.e., cognitive-centered speech), but rather arise from the kinesthetic (i.e., tactile) and practical experiences that speakers naturally form as they work their way through 'hands-on' processes. In other words, by virtue of these experiences, our hands 'pick up' these natural embodiments of represented actions. Therefore, it would as McNeill (1992) mentions seem that having the 'know how' to read them could reveal their rich meanings that complement those of spoken language. Taking this into account, combined with heightened tendencies for gestural misunderstanding in intercultural/cross-cultural encounters to occur, otherwise well-meaning intentions, as well as potentially important opportunities can be quickly upended. At best, this could be a source of amusement and concurrent befuddlement. In the wrong situation, offense, provocation or worse might result depending on the severity of the perceived symbolism communicated by the gestural inference and/or mannerism(s).

Gestural and Pragmatic Research Conducted to Date

Gestural

Interest in gestural influences upon speech in both L1 speaker communities as well as cross-cultural communication issues has been looked at for some time. Perhaps one of the most famous early pioneers of gestural research in modern times has been David Efron. In the early 1940s, he examined the gestural usage of Jewish and Italian communities in New York to try and determine how much of their gestures were influenced by L1 and L2 environments, or ethnicity. In the end, he distinguished and grouped four main gestures: batons, pictographs, ideographs and emblems, and he found that gesture was not necessarily dependent on pictorial representation but also lexical ('linguistic') was important. In addition, he compared 'assimilated' and less assimilated groups and not surprisingly found that those who were more assimilated displayed less L1 gestural behavior (Tozzer, 1942, pp. 715-716). Other seminal research in the gestural studies field has been done by David McNeill and Adam Kendon, both of whom have extensively studied over a number of years about themes such as language and thought, gestures and language origins and gesture among others. In more recent times, a concurrently paralleled and robust interest in pragmatics and sociolinguistic-cultural related interests affecting ESL/EFL education seem to be well-matched and timely to the exciting and still unfolding importance that gestures are proving to have on how we communicate. In the following section, a selection of gestural studies will hopefully help to illustrate this ongoing and rich area which still continues to be widely open to rigorous inquiry. This will then be followed by a look at some complementary pragmatic-oriented studies.

Very much like McNeill ,whom he has had some influence on, Kendon (2000) feels "speech and gesture are co-expressive of a single inclusive ideational complex, and it is this that is the meaning of an utterance" (p. 61). Yet he goes on to suggest that though they work in tandem, their roles differ (i.e., speech sounds out what gestures might show). McNeill (1992) for his part has vigorously maintained numerous like-minded positions with his continuous central belief that while gestures and language hold numerous differences, they also contain numerous similarities which link them to a common expressive framework. He has also suggested that gestural-utterance formation arises from a single process where both gesture and linguistic components work together in a primed-like linkage of gestural preparation and image followed by an utterance which complements it both semantically and pragmatically.

Specific gestural behaviors have also been studied to further try and assess the potential impact they might hold over communication. This seems to return back to the integral conception of the speech-gesture-unit (McNeill, 1992) which is “assumed to be an integral unit” (Stam & Ishino, 2011, p. 8). Holler et al. (2012) looked at how gaze direction affected comprehension in co-speech encounters. They found that the demands put on cognitive resources are divided between watching a speaker and the iconic gestures they make. That is, there is no attention typically directed towards one or the other. When un-addressed participants tried to respond to a question or request, it took them longer due to what seemed to be the increased cognitive focus on only gesture rather than gaze. There was also an implication (termed by the authors, the fuzzy representation hypothesis), which seemed to suggest that an un-addressed recipient (whereby eye-gaze was averted by a speaker towards a listener) would process gesture differently than if directly addressed. Hoshino (2013) also considered gesture effects and self-repair attempts by looking at distinctions between pragmatic and iconic gestures. (This would seem perhaps to be an obvious redundancy, as she has stated that “gestures function as moves or acts by speakers in the accomplishment of speech” [p. 58]). Not surprisingly, what was discovered was a clear illustration of the fine boundaries between pragmatic and iconical gesture function. Or more specifically, iconic gestures can act as pragmatic gestures for facilitating self-repair. This was evident during turn-taking with her participants. Subsequently, the distinction Hoshino was initially questioning was not evident.

This view of gestures and language belonging to the same underlying system has essentially been upheld to varying degrees by more recent research. Gullberg (2010) has examined the connection of gesture to SLA and bilingualism, with an interest towards knowledge and its gestural representations as a language product, as well as their deployment in real time and how they might be altered during acquisition. A similar interest has been to try and discover what characterizes gestures in different languages and how they can be interpreted. More recently, it has been shown how gestural usage will be affected differently by essentially the same lexical item (2015). For example, the verb ‘put’ has three different ways of being expressed in Swedish. This is basically expressed with one gesture in English, whereas in Swedish it is done several different ways to express how and where something is put. Thus, this helps to illustrate the “language specificity of representational gestures” (Kita, 2000, p. 167) which has been demonstrated in similar work by Kita and others. It also helps to provide new evidence contrary to Kita’s information packaging hypothesis (2000), which was thought to predict a representation of spatio-motoric thinking that would produce the same type of gestures among speakers due the same spatio-motoric experience, but, as has been shown, does not always occur. Stam (2006) has looked at gesture from the perspective of how it relates to SLA in order to try and get a more concise picture of “learners’ thought processes in action” (p. 3). Using Slobin’s (1987) thinking for speaking hypothesis as a chief influence (which will not be elaborated on here other than to say that it suggests learners do not simply learn a language based on rules and the constraints they impose, but instead, each language has its own unique imposition which is placed on how meaning is construed by its users and in effect influences our ‘thinking for speaking’), she examined gestural expressions of path between monolingual Spanish and English speakers recounting narratives of motion as well of those of learners learning English. It was found that gestural manifestations of both the L1 and L2 were apparent to varying degrees in the learners’ accounts, demonstrating the possibility for gesture to provide a glimpse of learners’ acquisition processes as reflected by their thinking processes. Ellis (2008) has referred to the same phenomena as gesture interlanguage. With this in mind, might it be equally possible to try and get closer to understanding where L1 and L2 visible (gestural) communication crosshatches itself in failed pragmatic attempts arising from L1 culturally-imbued, thinking-for-speaking processes? Thus, perhaps pragmatic acquisition in all its forms might also be better ‘tracked’ and paid attention to not unlike more scrutinized aspects of acquisition involving lexical, phonological and syntactical development have been.

Pragmatic

As has been brought up previously, what seems to be a valid co-joining of pragmatics and gesture will now be given some attention to some of the work that might provide relevant bearing on gesture research and the highlighting of gesture as an important and more recognized contributor or perhaps even 'sub-discipline' of pragmatics (this author). Such work might include themes of consciousness and other pragmatic-oriented areas of interest such as through the usage of formulaic language tied to SBUs (Kecskes, 2010, 2014) or pragmatic failure due to transfer-oriented effects, (to be discussed in more detail in the implications for pedagogy and suggested activities section) as typically either in the classroom (Charlebois) or as a cross-cultural issue (Thomas) or as an issue to address and provide instruction for in order to build up pragmatic competence (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003; Hinkel, 2014; Johnson & Rinvolucri, 2010; Thornbury, 2005, 2013) or provide certain advantages for learners to achieve it. Each will now be considered in more detail before moving onto some examples of gestures encountered in a Japanese socio-cultural context.

Pragmatic Implications for Consciousness

In Schmidt (1993) the question arises if pragmatic knowledge (i.e., competence), is gained consciously or not. In fact, he acknowledges that we often can not go back and consider why we may or may not have inferred something. As a result, not everything becomes part of our conscious knowledge, for sometimes even when it is readily available, we still do not notice. When applied to pragmatics, Schmidt has said about his own language learning experiences that "each case of successful learning also involved more than just noticing the forms used, but also an application of their functional meaning" (p. 31). This might very well carry over to gestures as well and will be brought up again in possible implications for pedagogy and suggestion activities. Baars (1983) took a more cognitive-informed position with consciousness and although he did not take pragmatics specifically into consideration, there are certain interesting parallels with Schmidt in terms of notions of noticing or not. However, his reasoning for stimuli going unnoticed was due to a lack of becoming incorporated into what he has called a global data base which he equated to a central interchange or something very similar to 'working memory' (p. 42). That is, when information becomes widely available to all neural processors, or in other words, a global representation, it is considered to then become global information. The potential downside from this may allow for such global information, if experienced repeatedly, to produce subsequent redundancy, and stimuli may then go unnoticed either due to being undefined (i.e., irrelevant) to specialized processors or due to being hyper-stabilized as global input. Again, there could be some interesting claims drawn to Baars ideas which might help to provide another point of reference for viewing a possible trajectory between consciousness (i.e., noticing) and gestural acquisition for L2 learners.

SBUs

Situational influence bears what would seem to be a clear impact over gestural usage. Therefore, it would seem reasonable to posit a possible relationship to SBUs, which are "highly conventionalized, prefabricated pragmatic units" (Kecskes, 2010, p. 2891) and are "tied to particular social events and situations" (Kecskes, 2014, p. 71). As their name implies, they are lexically oriented with a pragmatic function. Although this author is not aware of any direct studies linking SBUs to gesture, might there perhaps also just as easily exist the possibility of a gestural compliment to SBUs, or what might now be termed by this author as SBGs? That is, are there gestures which arise under the same conditions (i.e., formulaic patternings)? Since "formulaic language use makes language use native-like" (p. 71), it might therefore seem to warrant more scrutiny to closely examine and discover what type of gesture might parallel such highly ritualized speech conventions.

Effects of Transfer

Effects of pragmatic transfer have also been researched. One well-known earlier study by Beebe and Takahashi (1987) found that Japanese learners of English (both inside and outside Japan), when compared with NS of English, exhibited transfer effects for refusals, especially at the higher proficiency levels. Conversely, this was not as prominent with lower proficiency learners. Lastly, transfer effects in both ESL/EFL situations occurred with more arising in the latter. The authors surmised that the higher-level learners with more overall L2 knowledge found themselves compromised by their abilities becoming the "rope to hang themselves with" (p. 151). In contrast for lower level learners, more limited L2 proficiency meant less self-exposure to the likelihood of failing pragmatically.

Charlebois (2003) has also cited pragmatic transfer as a potential source for failure with the aim for more pragmatic cross-cultural instruction.

Gestures as Pragmatic Failure

Some Japanese Non-Verbal Examples and Analysis

In the beginning of this paper, a typical classroom scenario that can be found playing itself out in countless classrooms across Japan illustrated various non-verbal communication examples and some of their accompanying mannerisms. Looking back at some of them again briefly to see how they might loop back to some previously mentioned theoretical concerns is important for developing broader aims of (a) demonstrating the importance of gestural competence (this author) or an ability to gauge appropriateness of gestural usage from contextual cues vis-á-vis the sociocultural background they occur in and the impact it might have upon social interaction, to learners as both communicative enhancer and facilitator and subsequently, and (b) giving more robust consideration and recognition to gestural competence that situates it squarely within an overall pragmatic competence framework, needs encouragement and to be taken up as an area to draw attention to when considering pragmatic aspects for instruction. To not do so otherwise, would seem to have the potential for setting up learners for situations whereby "not understanding the sociocultural expectations can negatively impact learners' ability to function in an L2 community" (Hinkel, 2014, p. 3). Pragmatic awareness then of the impact our gestures and other non-verbal behavior can have in an L2 environment (or in the case of Japan, happenstance episodes with non-Japanese), is where attention will now be focused by looking at various potential cases of gestural failure for Japanese EFL learners. It is hoped that this might further help set in motion additional thought and action towards actual 'contingency plans' for avoiding the sort of gestural failure that underlies the pragmatic failure hovering over it.

As an immediate disclaimer, it first needs to be stated the following behaviors represent perhaps some of the most visible ones especially inside classrooms, but there are equally just as many outside and even these often will overlap between environments. The five examples chosen have been ranked by their perceived 'violation severity' (one being least and five being most) in regards to a cross -cultural/L2 environment from least likely to provoke serious repercussions to most likely. They are as follows:

1) Pointing towards one's face (particularly nose) to confirm oneself as the recipient of information. This deictic gesture seems to occur anywhere as it is commonly part of any sort of conversation. It is not bound to cause any serious problems cross-culturally and when accompanied by "me?" bears little chance of being misunderstood. What then might be cause for concern? In this instance, the biggest drawback for learners might be a certain amount of bemusement and/or confusion by another non-Japanese English speaker at why someone would not seem certain of who they were, as this particular gesture at first glance might seem to convey. Taken in a more serious context, it could appear as if the individual were not perhaps taking things seriously enough (i.e., at a job interview) and with the wrong interviewer, the non-Japanese NS/NNS might feel as if they were being 'played for a fool' and our learners could lose both credibility and chances to the job in a second.

2) "Hands up" gesture is an emblem most often seen by this author in the classroom, but it is suspected that it might arise whenever perceived or actual intervention occurs. Essentially, it also could be viewed as a 'give up' sign. The usual circumstances are such moments as leaning over a student's desk to place something in front of them, add a comment and so forth. Similar to nose pointing, the overall effect towards pragmatic failure is not severe and might be more likely to produce reactions of amusement or perhaps mental notes of "why are you doing that?" Again, if some speculation is allowed, there frequently seems to be a strong inbuilt 'impulse' (as I have heard enough in English) to "give up" among our learners that unfortunately can seem to be preset for instant activation during moments of perceived difficulty whether imagined or not! Perhaps this also is a sign that many learners simply lack confidence and have not found the means to be intrinsically motivated enough.

3) Putting one's watch on the table or desk As both a metaphoric (?) gesture and mannerism, which can commonly be seen most often in classrooms, it

appears to be a seemingly practical function. In the experience of this author, I have seen it done in classrooms without clocks. Therefore, it would seem that removing it and having it directly in front of oneself 'saves a step' of having to avert the eyes or pull up a sleeve from time-to-time. (Interestingly, and perhaps as an aside, I have seen it done more by males than females). In and of itself, it seems harmless enough, and yes, practical as well as widespread and seemingly tolerated in Japanese classrooms by instructors (myself included). However, a potential problem lies with how it might be interpreted in a cross-cultural environment. In fact, it could be sending the wrong message to the effect of suggesting impatience and boredom. A professor or interviewer or even a new potential friend might think they are being told to "get on with it" because "my time is precious." It would seem therefore to come across too abruptly and thus give the impression of appearing rude. A case in point outside the classroom: This author had the personal experience of meeting an acquaintance at a coffee shop in Japan, for what was meant to be part lesson and part non-lesson. Surprisingly, the watch nevertheless came out and stayed upon the table the whole time. Imagine the effect if it were done in an actual L2 environment in such otherwise casual settings. So this begs to ask why? While this author has no clear answer beyond the practical ones mentioned earlier, I would like to tentatively re-postulate the possible socio-cultural implication of chronomics, (that is how a culture perceives time and expresses it non-verbally) (/en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chronemics – accessed 5 Dec 2015). If looked at more closely, Japan reveals itself as a taking monochrome nature to time interpretation. More exactly, such a society tends to exhibit less risk taking tolerance and a greater desire to 'stick to plans' (/en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Intercultural_competence – accessed 5 Dec 2015). Regardless of the reasoning, this would seem to be a non-verbal behavior (gesture + mannerism), that Japanese learners in certain L2 environments or cross-cultural encounters might be mindful of.

4) Folded arms across the chest There are different positions for holding one's arms some higher, some lower. If arms are folded across a table, it might just seem a person is relaxing and neutral. Conversely, arms held higher across the chest tends to seem more defiant and perhaps giving the impression of wanting to remain inaccessible. However, Brosnahan (1990) has pointed out that in actuality, the lower held, crossed arm pose, which this writer in fact has more rarely noticed among Japanese learners, could be due to the opposite in meaning. Nevertheless, while it is possible that arm crossing (again witnessed numerous times particularly in smaller classes, with again, more oftentimes male learners than female), might simply serve as a "psychological protection(s) in moments of nervousness" (p. 85), it very much creates a similar potential outcome for gestural-pragmatic failure to give perhaps an unintended negative impression in L2 cross-cultural settings.

5) Giving the middle finger There is no mistaking the strongly insulting value of this emblem which by all accounts is perhaps safe to say internationally recognized. This aside, it is also a very curious example of how such a visible and obviously powerful gesture does not always carry the same degree of semantic weight cross-culturally. A rather astounding example of this was seen by this author in a Japanese junior high school. In said example, done openly in the teacher's room, a PE teacher 'flipped off' a student all seemingly in good banter, during the course of some animated exchange between them. While it is difficult to provide with any certainty any attempt to try and quantify the seeming neutrality of using this gesture in Japan, I would like to put forth a possible tentative implication for future research, that might draw attention to a generally more permissive and even lighthearted attitude towards issues such as sexuality as more of a whimsically grotesque spectacle, rather than as something weighted down by western immorality. Such a culturally-imbued attitude can be seen throughout Japanese history. Despite this possibly interesting cultural backdrop, for our learners the need to address this potential misuse cannot hold out for such analysis as it could result in the severest forms of pragmatic failure (i.e., threatening situations including perhaps even bodily injury).

Teacher Gestural Usage

One final note worth mentioning for gestural examples in the Japanese context are those that the teacher may make, which, if they are non-Japanese, can affect learning flow, rapport and other classroom dynamics essential for a positive and productive learning experience. Kusanagi (2015) has pointed out the benefits of 'teacher gesture' which teachers tend to use to help guide learners. She mentions that among other things, clarification, speech reinforcement and speech redundancies can be lessened through their usage. Students and teachers can and do also rely on gestures as mediational aids. On the other hand, if teachers are not aware or mindful of their own L1 gestures and mannerisms, students can also be left with negative impressions. Such examples include postural behavior. Traditionally, Japanese learners are not used to seeing teachers lean against furniture or sit on desks or tables or even walk around the classroom while lecturing (Brosnahan, 1990). Fortunately, the last example does not seem to be an issue anymore for most students in L2 courses.

Implications for Teaching and Some Possible Activity Suggestions

From the previous section, it was shown how certain selected gestures that feature commonly in Japanese classrooms as well as daily life could place learners in the unwittingly unfortunate position of what this author has termed gestural failure and thus be drawn into pragmatic failure. Unquestionably, this is a situation which teachers should try and prepare their students for. However, to do so requires some foresight and perhaps a multiple approach for trying to work out what cross-cultural issues might be at stake. Initially, it would seem that it might be necessary to try and assess what might produce gestural-pragmatic failure. Culture, being as complex as it is, connects individuals deeply whether visibly or not. As teachers we often do not realize the unviable impact that our own cultural assumptions and values make upon the classroom any more than our learners do (Hinkel, 2014). As a result, cross-reciprocity of an unceasing wash of differing cultural values, norms and ideas becomes juxtaposed and when there are attempts made at understanding and empathy is allowed in, a ‘good class’ may result, but when they abut each other and minds are not ready or willing to draw in broader perspectives, everyone faces having the prospect of the dreaded ‘bad class.’

Learning about how others live and, more importantly, think about life should be a logical place to start for any L2 course. Nevertheless, this not as simple as it might seem, particularly in an EFL learning environment which, from the onset, lacks any real resemblance of a multicultural citizenry and society, such as Japan’s still overwhelmingly appears to be and perhaps remains distant from. Stepping into another culture can be bewildering, challenging and even threatening, but these things can all be changed by attitudinal shifts to varying degrees if windows in the mind are opened and allowed to be released of their accumulated hubris of stereotypes and other ‘lock-step’ mind blockages. How would be the best way to take on this? Without meaning to entertain an idealistic chimera more than necessary, I would suggest as a first step that students should be given ample consciousness raising (CR) activities that allow them to actively explore outside the classroom as much if not more than in the classroom. This means chances would need to be created for students to interact with speakers outside their own language communities. In a sense, perhaps somewhat ironically, our learners in Japan seem to need to experience more communication breakdowns as doing so might actually produce more benefit towards putting them more closely in touch with those scattered pockets of NS/NNS of whatever L2 they are learning.

By learning firsthand how gestural misinterpretation is an illustration of not being familiar with issues of cross-cultural diversity (Özüorçun, 2013) and the complexities it involves, new ways of thinking might in turn open our students up towards potentially gaining more intercultural competence. This ties in with several ideas suggested by Bardovi-Harlig et al. (1991) which are aimed at CR for pragmatic competence. The first deals with having a surprise ‘guest’ enter the classroom, whereby students can just happen to witness how their teacher might happen to interact (i.e., model) using the appropriate pragmatic features of the interactional situation. Another example worth mentioning for its approach towards trying to strive towards authenticity is through data collection where they must go outside the classroom to find authentic samples of the TL ‘in use.’ This writer suggests something similar to a ‘fact-finding mission,’ whereby learners might go do interviews with immigrant communities. In Japan, perhaps trying to talk interview-style, with groups who are not necessarily on the radar of many of our students when ‘foreigners’ are thought of, such as the Myanmarese community in the Takadanobaba area, Brazilian-Japanese, residents of lesser known South East Asian countries, various individuals from African nations and so forth, might provide a very eye-opening experience. This might also have the added benefit of bringing forth the notion of encouraging intercultural competence as well as pragmatic competence by promoting CR and noticing activities that would also supplement pragmatic instruction in the classroom (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998). Thornbury (2005) feels that we should apply any cultural awareness raising tactfully, as it can be risky to do or even irrelevant to do so otherwise, especially where it might actually be needed for going to study or work abroad. He also suggests having learners embark on two kinds of planned outings, one that could be deemed successful and the other that might lead to embarrassment/failure (p. 4). It is not specified how this might be enacted, but it seems to offer some good potential. If learners could even be encouraged to try using some gestures to see if it made getting their point across easier or helped them to carry along a story better, that should also be strongly supported and encouraged. Another noteworthy means of promoting pragmatic-socio-cultural awareness in the classroom comes from Johnson and Rinvolucri (2010). As teachers we need to do a lot more work with recognizing our learners' "target-culture norms and behaviors, cultural beliefs and norms, try to look beyond stereotypes and nurture more empathy" with the ultimate aim being to "develop a much more profound awareness of their home culture" (p. 16). Certainly, it should also be kept in mind that in order for this admirable prescription to gain true legitimacy, it should ideally traverse bi-directionally between learners and teachers.

Learners need chances to become more attuned to the importance of non-verbal communication and how it affects their pragmatic skills to manage a number of different social situations. As it has been mentioned, increasing pragmatic awareness is one of the key ways to do this. Charlebois (2003) tried to pinpoint what might cause cross-cultural pragmatic failure so as to then turn into action a plan for better teaching pragmatic competence in Japanese classrooms. While he mentioned "pragmatic L1 based transfer to L2 usage, inadequate pragmatic knowledge and different realizations of speech acts cross-culturally" (pp. 36-40) as three main reasons, which are certainly reasonable, the full situation might not be as straightforward. If we consider what Kecskes (2014) tells us, "'Transfer' may not exactly be the right term to describe what takes place in the bi- and multilingual mind" (pp. 77-78). In actuality, what learners borrow from their L1 in terms of cultural values and norms may in fact cause varying disparities of errors in lower level learner and some occasionally unnaturally composed (i.e., 'out-of-tune') constructions at higher levels.

Conclusion

As Hinkel (2014) mentions, "not understanding the socio-cultural expectations can negatively impact learners ability to function in an L2 community" (p. 3). In this paper, a number of issues have been looked at which cross both boundaries of pragmatic and gestural competence. Failure can occur in each area when socio-cultural aspects of the L2 are not known or adhered to. Certain areas such as the influence of consciousness to help with noticing what non-verbal language might be important to pick up on as well as the potential usefulness of SBUs to help learners memorize formulaic speech segments, might be worthwhile for additional study and application towards gestural usage. This author would like to see how applying gestures to SBUs might enable learners to better propel themselves along as well as get them 'locked in' not only on what they need to say and how to say it but also how to round it out with 'thinking for gesturing' that can allow them to maneuver around those social-cultural pitfalls which their L1 selves might still believe 'works' in the L2 environment but does not always do so. And lastly, as teachers, we also need to not only give our learners the opportunities to 'test out the culture' in safe and comfortable ways, but we also have a responsibility to help equip them with the knowledge they need for making informed choices about how to monitor and be attentive to aspects of their own non-verbal language in other socio-cultural environments, that might cause offense. Thomas (1983) believes we should allow our learners to 'flout' the rules of speech just as NS do, as long as they do it with the realization of what they are doing, or in other words, have control of the meanings they are making. Thus, we must attend to our own body language in our learners' meaning-spaces too. In the end, what we choose to show whether with words or not, creates meaning, and with that, the choice to be empowered or disempowered.

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Narrative Similarities in Detective Fiction

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Abstract: *In the literary genre discussed in this article various ways are employed to tell a story. There is an integration of narration, dialogue, and description at work. In this article the emphasis is on description similarities between four authors. Two are British, one is of the United States, and one is an author writing in Japanese. Except for the U.S. author, the others write mainly detective fiction. It seems that at times authors of the detective genre refer in homage to each other. Although there is no direct reference to other works the observant reader knows immediately that ill-will plagiarism is not intended. Some references show a disagreement with other authors, for example, how Sherlock Holmes valued Dupin's detective qualities.*

Introduction

An interesting point in literature is the phenomenon that some of the authors selected in this article refer to each other's work intentionally or more hidden in honour of fellow authors. It is the duty of the accomplished reader audience to discover these treasures. In this article I will refer to two British authors, namely: Sir Arthur Conan Doyle (1859-1930), and Wilkie Collins (1824-1889). Washington Irving (1783-1859) is an U.S. author. Ikari Uhito (1960-) writes detective fiction in Japanese. In an earlier article in the OTB journal (Bode, 2014) I wrote on the authorship controversy regarding the Sherlock Holmes canon. As an example I referred to another work of Conan Doyle, Strange studies from life and other narratives: The complete true crime writings of Sir Arthur Conan Doyle (The Bravoes of Market-Drayton, p. 49), to show that the text part within the canon shows similarities with that. This time it is necessary to broaden our scope and look at other literary works as well. From Andrew Lycett' biography (2007), and from O'Brien's exposition (2013) as well it becomes clear that Conan Doyle was an avid reader of world literature (pp. 39, 47). His own writings might sometimes quite naturally contain similar descriptions and narratives of other author might have been caused by other factors: conscious or unconscious.

Bode, J. (2017). Narrative similarities in detective fiction. *OTB Forum, 8*(1), 19-24.

Literary Evidence: Body of the Crime—The Detective

In the detective genre the detective can differ immensely from a "mild-mannered" detective like Sherlock Holmes (UK) to a more "hard-boiled" disposition such as Philip Marlow (US). A wide range between these bipolar extremes are richly available in this literary genre. Hercule Poirot and Sugishita Ukyo are not strictly private detectives as the former two are. Hercule Poirot was a police officer in Belgium and became a private detective after he arrived in the UK. Sugishita Ukyo belongs to the Metropolitan Police of Tokyo and is quite at odds with the other three fictional characters. Interesting also to note is the sharp divide between Holmes and Poirot in matters of religion. Holmes regards his methods to be based on purely scientific methods, while Poirot regards his extraordinary ability as being blessed by nature or god.

Thomas (2002) shows throughout his discussion that the detective is a product of society he/she is part of. Therefore, the detective cannot be considered as an unalterable entity in the detective genre.

"Every contact leaves a trace."

Everything the reader has the opportunity of acquiring is a "contact" that leaves a trace in the mind. Although not consciously registered completely at the initial stage it tends to be matched with later similarities in other literary works (empirical experience of the present author, 2015-2016). The unconscious "trace" becomes active when reading similar ideas such as were experienced by the author through literary works stated below with quoted sections for reference. The exchange-principle of trace is actually developed by Edmond Locard (1877-1966) and applies to forensic science (Gilbert, 2010; Swanson et al. 2011). From the initial "contact", the mind receives it as a "trace" and reconstructs it in a three dimensional structure as if the story is for real. This point is further addressed by Gilbert (2010, p. 36) in his book on criminal investigation:

> The present-day investigator must have both imagination and curiosity – and the ability to use them advantageously. To simply assemble the facts of a case may not be enough to "get the whole picture". Imagination – forming mental images of what is not present or creating new ideas by combining previous experiences – is indispensable in the many investigations that are not complete.

Also Sherlock Holmes (see Conan Doyle, 2007) emphasizes as well the importance of imagination in his particular method of criminal investigation:

> [I have been sluggish in mind and wanting in] that mixture of imagination and reality which is the basis of my art. (The problem of the Thor Bridge, p. 996)

As an example in a short time frame of one year April 2015-April 2016 the present author came accidentally across the following text fragments in his selected sources. In The Bravoes of Market-Drayton (p. 49) written by Conan Doyle 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. (p. 49)

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. (p. 277)

In one of his stories, The Legend of Sleepy Hollow, Washington Irving (2010) refers also to the dichotomy of rural and urban conditions. Not so much the criminal possibilities are referred to for these rural areas, the boondocks in other words, as the superstitious inclinations do flourish in isolated districts. In this case the rural locality is not equal to the urban locality as in the earlier cases.

> Local tales and superstitions thrive best in these sheltered long-settled retreats; but are trampled underfoot by the shifting throng that forms the population of most of our country places [=cities?]. (p. 28)

It is impossible to state positively whether Conan Doyle had read this particular story and subsequently included this stylistic idea in his own works. There is a similarity and difference nonetheless visible. And if he actually has knowledge of this particular statement then also perhaps an exchange principle is at work in his writings. In Tim Burton's film edition (1999) of Washington Irving' story, for example, he changes the storyline even more. Turning it into a detective story wherein Ichabod Crane (Johnny Depp), instead of being the school teacher/ priest in the original, is a police constable in New York sent to investigate a mystery. Therefore, the film edition is an adaptation of the story and in itself an interesting departure from the original.

The above cases are all literary cases. In a recent perusal of a 19th century British source (Smethurst, 1914) not written by a literary professional but instead by a police constable in one of the smaller cities, namely Stalybridge, of the UK there is idiom visible and comparable with Conan Doyle's. PC Thomas Smethurst (active duty 1888-1890; 1894-1920) kept a notebook of cases and incidents occurring during his professional life. Having read the Sherlock Holmes canon before, some idiom appearing in Smethurt's notebook seem to resemble Conan Doyle' but probably not intentionally chosen for that purpose. More likely to be a stylistic feature of 19th century English. The idiom therein can be listed through the selected quotations as follows:

> .. I concluded that I was on the right scent and took him to the police office." (p. 16)

In the Sherlock Holmes canon "scent" is a recurrent idiom as a reference to investigation and appears as much as 47 times. (see appendix 1).

In another section, although not exactly a match of what the dog did do ("barking") recorded by PC Smethurst and that the dog did do nothing (not even barking) in the Sherlock Holmes adventure strikes one as somehow peculiar.

> At times, the nights would be still and silent and nothing could be heard but the sound of our footsteps on the frozen ground as we paced to and fro, or the distant barking of a dog at some farm-stead on the hillside. (p. 24)

In the Adventure of the Silver Blaze there is the famous observation of the singularity that the dog did not bark:

> [Inspector Gregory] "Is there any other point to which you would wish to draw my attention?
>
> [Holmes]: "To the curious incident of the dog in the night time"
>
> [Inspector Gregory]: The dog did nothing in the night time."
>
> [Holmes]:"That was the curious incident." (pp. 302 - 303)

A third passage refers to the phrase: "knock up" (wake up):

> The Sergeant and I visited the beer house, knocked up the landlord and asked him why he had given us a false explanation on our previous visit. (p. 45)

In the Adventure of the Speckled Band there are sequential knock up incidents starting with Helen Stoker waking up Mrs. Hudson, who in term wakes up Holmes, who then wakes up Watson.

> Very sorry to knock you up, Watson," said he, "but it's the common lot this morning. Mrs. Hudson has been knocked up, she retorted upon me, and I on you. (p. 214)

It is very likely that both, Conan Doyle and Smethurst, shared a common way of expressing themselves in a style that was in general use at the time. Although people who need to write as a work requirement (PCs included) might have availed themselves to good models. According to sources on Conan Doyle (Lycett, 2007; O'Brien, 2013) the Sherlock Holmes adventures had a large number of readers at that time as well. Police constables were also likely to be part of Holmes readers. It would not be surprising if PC Smethurst was one them. It is necessary here to emphasize that PC Smethurst is not the same person as Dr. Smethurst (Wade, 2013, pp. 36-38) who, it is strongly assumed, poisoned his wife in 1859 (the birth year of Arthur Conan Doyle).

The Secondary Transfer of Traces

As Poe influenced Conan Doyle (O'Brien, 2013), Conan Doyle crossed border and landed in Japan where Ikari Uhito (penname of Torikai Hisahiro) has written five novels with the police inspector Sugishita Ukyo as the main character. In *The Casebook of Sugishita Ukyo* [Sugishita Ukyo no jikenbo] (2010) there are four direct references to Sherlock Holmes and an indirect marked idiom taken from the original and appropriately translated into Japanese. Right on the second page of the first story (The Fog and the Casket) as an explanation to the reader the setting shows that Sugishita is strolling around in Edinburgh, "the city where Arthur Conan Doyle was born; the creator of Sherlock Holmes" (p. 7).

On page 18 one of the characters (Susan, the mother of the distillery owner; Sugishita came to this distillery through an introduction) comments: "well, well; you must then be a regular Sherlock Holmes from Japan," after confessing of having the bad habit to thrust himself into a conversation centered on crimes. A few more similar statements follow on pages 119 and 120 to emphasize the general impression people have of Sugishita as the Sherlock Holmes from Japan. With these initial introductions of Sherlock Holmes at the beginning of the casebook, it will not be difficult to observe indirect references: creative borrowings or homage to the canon cases. In the second story (p. 161), The Forest Spectre, of the notebook there is the indirect reference without any biographical information towards the Sherlock Holmes canon. However, the observant reader is well aware of its source. In this part of the story the reader will see Sugishita's familiarity with the case details. The description that follows states: "Sugishita takes out the necessary information from his brain storage room."

In the Sherlock Holmes canon this storage room is referred to as "the brain attic" by Sherlock Holmes in the following sections. On page 15 (Conan Doyle, 2007: A study in Scarlet) Sherlock Holmes explains to Watson his thoughts on the matter of the brain.

> "I consider that a man's brain is like a little empty attic.. Now the skillful workman is very careful indeed as to what he takes into his brain-attic.. It is a mistake to think that that little room has elastic walls and can distend to any extent.. It is of the highest importance, therefore, not to have useless facts elbowing out the useful ones."

Actually Sherlock Holmes resumes the issue on page 182 (Conan Doyle, 2007: *Adventure V-The five orange pips*) again and actually elaborates further on the brain-attic and the function of the lumber room:

> .. a man should keep his little brain attic stocked with all the furniture that he is likely to use, and the rest he can put away in the lumber room of his library, where he can get it if he wants it.

In the canon the attic appears as a physical entity without any reference to the brain at five locations: p. 177 (2x); p. 178 (2x); and p. 579 (1x). The lumber room as a factual space is mentioned merely twice (pp. 177, 182), and also there in connection with the aforementioned attic. Conan Doyle uses these idiomatic elements in a literal (as actual places) as well as figurative function (the brain).

Conclusion

In this article I have attempted to describe a situation wherein literary works can go through a process of contact and trace in the application of the exchange principle which originally has been developed for forensic science by Edmond Locard during his lifetime. The transfer within the same language (English) within the body of works of the same author (Conan Doyle), or of separate authors (Conan Doyle/Irving) can be considered as the primary transfer although the evidence for the connection between Conan Doyle and Irving is not conclusive and needs more instances to make any strong claims in this light. The secondary transfer would be from one language to another such as I described comparing Conan Doyle's influence within the novels of Ikari Uhito.

Primary and secondary transfer are actually connected to Locard's principle of exchange of materials (blood, hair, and other physical evidence) and because of its clear implications here transferred to a literary discussion of the detective genre.

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About the author: **Jeroen Bode** began working at Tsukuba University as a lecturer in 2005 and was promoted to 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 1

Occurrences of Scent in the Sherlock Holmes Canon

Page	# of Occurrences
17, 19, 22, 31,	1
33	2
80, 81, 83	1
85, 87, 88	2
89, 93, 95, 117	1
168	2
195, 228, 267, 371, 416, 417,428, 477, 520	1
541, 550, 577, 617, 708, 747, 756, 761, 771	1
775, (895 + ed), 948, 996, 1042, 1078, 1112	1

Appendix 2

Visual Representations of Detectives

Sherlock Holmes (Source: Strand facsimile)
Philip Marlow (Actor: Humphrey Bogart)
Sugishita Ukyo (Actor: Mizutani Yutaka)
Sherlock Holmes (Actor: Jeremy Brett)
Hercule Poirot (Actor: David Suchet)
JBSH (Actor: himself)

Sherlock Holmes

Philip Marlowe

Sugishita Ukyo

Sherlock Holmes (Jeremy Brett)

Hercule Poirot

JBSH

A Tentative Classification of Rhetoric in Japanese Linguistic Expressions in Advertising Contexts

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Abstract: *This paper studies rhetoric used in Japanese linguistic expressions in advertising contexts. Using actual expressions that appeared in advertisements which were granted Grand Prix and 2nd Grand Prix awards for creative advertisements in newspapers, it was found that most advertisements have various kinds of rhetoric and that a few incorporated loanwords.*

Introduction

Today, various kinds of rhetoric are used in linguistic expressions in a variety of situations. Especially in advertising contexts, advertisers seek to raise awareness of their firm or commodities. Therefore, they have a tendency to use a lot of rhetoric in their advertisement so as to draw more attention from their future customers. Then, if there is a classification about rhetoric by way of similarity of its usage, it is useful for advertisers, firms or individuals to analyze the effect of using rhetoric in their advertisement and decide how they express their appeal points.

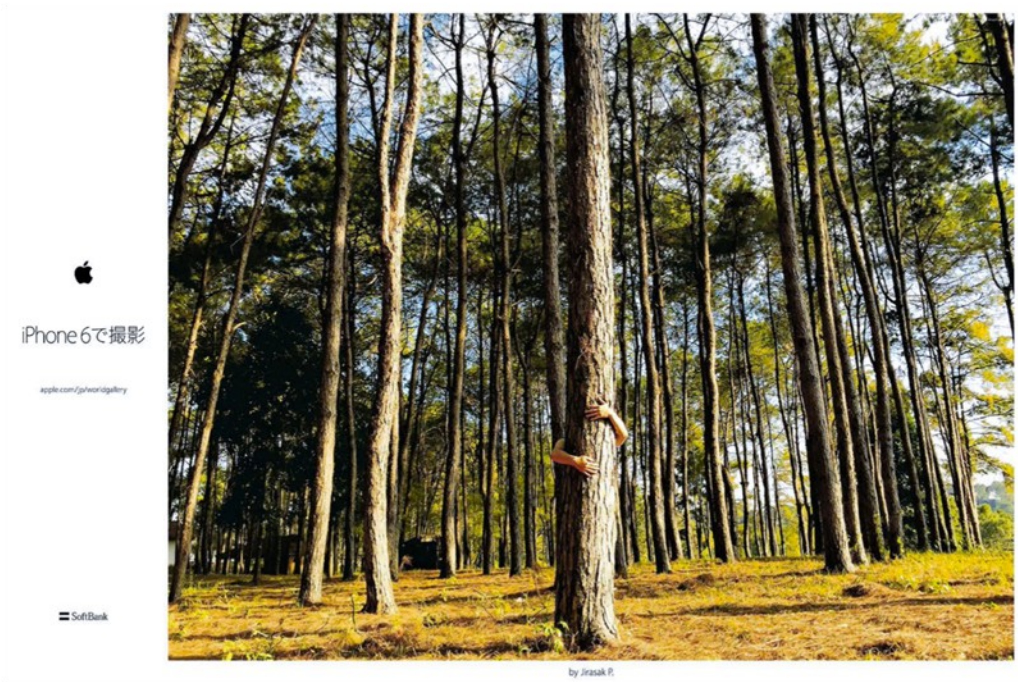

Figure 1. Taking a photograph with the iPhone 6.

A taxonomy about rhetoric in English linguistic expressions in advertising context was put forth by McQuarrie and Mick (1996). The taxonomy is divided into two modes which consist of *scheme,* which shows excess regularity, and *trope*, which shows irregularity. Each mode is divided into two categories. Scheme consists of repetition and reversal, and trope consists of substitution and destabilization.

However, in searching existing articles, it is unclear whether there are any classifications of rhetoric in Japanese linguistic expressions, especially in advertising contexts. Then, if proper classification is not found, making a new classification system by analyzing existing advertisements might be helpful. This paper tried to establish a tentative classification while exploring the advertising world in Japan.

To begin with, do you know the Yomiuri Advertising Awards? Those are major awards for creative advertisements in newspapers. In June 2015 the 31st award ceremony was held for advertisements in 2014 by Yomiuri, which is a Japanese major newspaper company. Then do you know who won the Grand Prix in the advertiser section of this award? Shown in Figure 1 is the Grand Prix of 31st award.

Tosa, T. (2017). A tentative classification of rhetoric in Japanese linguistics expressions in advertising contexts. *OTB Forum, 8*(1), 25-29.

Table 1. *Proposed Classification Scheme*

Lexical Content	Repetition 反復	Reversal 倒置	Substitution 強調	Destabilization 比喩
All Japanese	A1	A2	A3	A4
Including loanwords	B1	B2	B3	B4

Note. Substitution can also be glossed as 過剰 or 欠落. The C category includes advertisements that lack prose and thus consist only of visual images.

Softbank, which is a Japanese major mobile-phone company, won the Grand Prix by using the photo with the phrase, "Taking a photograph with the iPhone6." This is an advertisement composed of a picture taken with an iPhone 6 with a few words. Generally speaking, advertisements on newspapers might be thought to consist of many words. Actually, most advertisements that received this award consist of pictures or drawings with a few words. It is a certain finding of this exploration, and interesting. In this way, it is clear that Japanese advertisements in newspapers tend to have some linguistic expressions to be classified.

Then what to classify? Because commercial message on TV or radio might not have linguistic expressions, the author decided to focus on advertisements on newspapers which must consist of some words and selected, as an object of this exploration, the Grands Prix and the second prizes at the Yomiuri Advertising Award in the past five years. But if the advertisement has no words, it is excluded. And as a prior condition of the analysis, there are two more premises. One is that if there are several advertisement related to the same firm as the Grands Prix or the second prizes, the initially listed advertisement is selected as objects. The other is that if there are several sentences in the advertisements, the biggest words are selected as objects. But if the biggest words are formed with the firm's name, object is shifted to the second biggest words.

Next is how to classify. The author devised a method (Table 1) by reference to existing articles. The columns are based on McQuarrie and Mick (1996), and the rows are derived from Piller (2003).

The columns consists of four elements which show some kinds of rhetoric. *Repetition* [反復], which includes rhyme, anaphora, and other elements, means to use words, which sometimes have similar pronunciation, in the same sentences repeatedly. *Reversal* [倒置], which includes antimetabole, antithesis or similar, means to change the order of words reversely. *Substitution* [強調], which includes hyperbole, ellipsis or similar, means to emphasize by addition of unnecessary words or lack of necessary words. *Destabilization* [比喩], which includes metaphor, pun or similar, means to destabilize regular words to attract attention by using different meaning of the words or giving different meaning to the words. And the row is divided into two categories based on whether or not loanwords are used in the sentence of advertisements. Finally, if rhetoric is not used in the advertisement, it is not classified in any category written in the table but is classified in a category without rhetoric as "C". Next, let us peruse some examples.

The first example is already introduced in the opening part as a Grand Prix in 2014 by Softbank with the words "Taking a picture with the iPhone6." There is no rhetoric in this simple phrase, which is the reason why this is in category C. A second example is 2nd prize in 2011 by TAKASHIMAYA which is a big department store (Figure 2).

This picture shows the appearance of Takashimaya eighty years ago. With this picture there is a phrase, "Who would have imagined?" Ordinary Japanese people can understand what this advertisement wants to say, but actually this sentence lacked an object, which means "imagined what?" Hence, this sentence is categorized A3, which is substitution for emphasis by absence of objective.

The third example was awarded 2nd prize in 2013 by JR East, which is a Japanese train company. The phrase in this advertisement is "We can't meet by mail. Let's meet by rail" (See Figure 3). This is apparently rhyme, and it means this is rhetoric as repetition. And in this phrase mail and rail are loanwords into Japanese, so this is easy to classify as B1.

The next example received 2nd prize in 2012 from POLA, which is a cosmetics company (Figure

Figure 2. Who would have imagined?

Figure 3. We can't meet by mail. Let's meet by rail.

4). The phrase used in this advertisement is “Where in Japan is the prefecture with the most beautiful skin?” Because of course a prefecture is not a human being and doesn’t have skin, this sentence is an anthropomorphic metaphor. Moreover, there are no loanwords, so this is classified as A4.

Next is the final example. It is by the Takarajima magazine company (Figure 5): “Can dogs from Japan and dogs from United States talk to each other?” It is unclear what they want to appeal. However, this seems, in some vague way, catchy, because there are several conceivable questions before this specific question. For instance, “Do the dogs need translation?” “Can the dog talk with human language?” or “Which is a Japanese dog?” Anyway, ordinary Japanese people seem to conceive of various questions and then are fascinated and attracted by this expression. At any rate, with no loanwords this is judged as A4.

Figure 5. Can dogs from Japan and dogs from the United States talk to each other?

Figure 4. Where in Japan is the prefecture with the most beautiful skin?

For this paper in total, fifteen examples awarded the Grand Prix or second prize in the past five years were classified. The remaining examples are attached at the end of this paper in a partial appendix (the complete appendix is available online). The results of the classification are shown in Table 2.

From this table we can learn that there are various kinds of rhetorical expressions in Japanese advertising contexts. Only two out of 15 advertisements use no rhetoric. This means that most advertisers tend to use rhetoric in their advertisement to draw the attention of their future customers. We can learn, too, that most advertising words consist of Japanese vocabulary or characters and loanwords are used only a few times. It is unsure why loanwords are not used frequently in the contemporary Japanese community, but it might be probable that the target people of newspapers tend to be older and thus not so accustomed to loanwords.

Finally, the author focused on the words of linguistic expressions in the advertisement on newspapers, but the effect of advertisement depends on the total appeal power, including images or explanations. Thus, this point should be explored further.

Table 3. *Classification Scheme with Results*

Lexical Content	Repetition 反復	Reversal 倒置	Substitution 強調	Destabilization 比喻
All Japanese	A1 = 2	A2 = 1	A3 = 1	A4 = 6
Including loanwords	B1 = 1	B2 = 0	B3 = 1	B4 = 1

Note. Substitution can also be glossed as 過剰 or 欠落. The C category (advertisements with only images and no prose) had two responses.

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Editor's note: Following is a partial appendix. Interested readers can view the complete index online at http://www.otbforum.net/publications

Appendix
(partial)

Round	Year	Rank	Company / Type	Phrase	Cat.
31	2014	Grand Prix	Softbank (mobile phones)	Taking a picture with the iPhone6 iPhone で撮影	C
		2nd Prize	Air France (airline)	Why not meet in Paris? パリで会いましょう	A4
		2nd Prize	Louis Vuitton (luxury bags)	Louis Vuitton and Christian Louboutin celebrate the LV monogram —	B4

Note. Cat. = category.

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A Journey to the American Dream: Okinawan Family Histories in the New World

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Meio University

Abstract: *.The path to America has always involved an array of timelines, routes, and circumstances. The well-documented Ellis Island corridors display just a glimpse of the human migration story--focusing solely on the European experience—yet have remained the quintessential portrayal of immigrants entering America. The narratives of those arriving from the Pacific have largely remained unheard—receiving little, if any, mention. This report will not remedy the inclination to generalize American cultural and historical information; rather, it will provide readers with some insight into the diversity of situations and challenges faced by immigrants. The descriptions that follow are based on interviews that have attempted to gather information of two family histories and include both firsthand and secondhand accounts. The accounts collected in the interviews concern the stories of those traveling from the island of Okinawa to America and their lives thereafter.*

Keywords: American culture, human migration, Okinawan studies, oral history

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Introduction

At the onset of the 20th century, an exodus from the island of Okinawa transpired due to harsh living conditions at home and an outlook of brighter economic opportunities abroad. The price for passage involved a treacherous affair. Dishonest brokers negotiated travel arrangements that bankrupted families and forced those on passage into indentured servitude (e.g., Hibbett, 2010). Many were falsely led to believe that conditions abroad would be better, but soon learned the graveness of their situation after work began in the fields (e.g., Ethnic Studies Oral History Project, 1981). Joe Yamagawa describes the struggle his parents endured in their journey to America and the years of turmoil thereafter.

During the years of U.S. military occupation in Okinawa, 1950-1972, the voices of those emigrating abroad seem less pronounced. Nevertheless, their stories offer much insight and interest. Hiroko Cantrell describes an arranged marriage that her family had tried to pursue—despite her strong opposition. She escapes those demands after obtaining a job on a U.S. military base and later marries an American. Life abroad becomes demanding, as she later realizes while struggling to raise her daughter alone. In the end, Hiroko maintains a strong determination to prevail over much adversity.

The interviews took place in March of 2016 in the vicinity of Gardena, California. The interviewees were given the freedom to direct conversation as they pleased. Experiences are different and as such, each interviewee paints a slightly different picture of the American landscape. Still, these recollections provide us with a glimpse into the character and spirit of Okinawans who have traveled abroad to the unknown and faced extraordinary challenges.

An Endless Path

Joe Yamagawa

Joe Yamagawa is 93 years old and one of the longest serving members in the Okinawa American Association. Following in his parents' footsteps, he has maintained the legacy of active involvement and support in the Okinawan community. Here, he details a remarkable journey taken by his parents to America and the struggles endured in their search of the American dream.

Joe's mother, Hana Kaneshi, was born in Nakijin in 1894. Later, she would go to Peru in 1912 after a pre-arranged marriage. As a way to pay for the passage, she worked as a contract laborer at a sugarcane

Fewell, N. (2017). A journey to the American dream: Okinawan family histories in the New World. *OTB Forum, 8*(1), 30-34.

plantation for one year along with her husband, brother, and cousin. The work was harsh; ten-hour shifts for six days a week. Many of the laborers died of malaria and other illnesses. No one ever imagined that conditions would have been so severe. Hana eventually finished her labor contract along with her husband—although her brother and cousin escaped the labor camp some time earlier. They all would eventually meet once again in Lima. After her arrival in Lima, Hana immediately started to work at a tea shop and eventually opened a shop of her own. A couple of years later, Hana became pregnant, but her son died while only eight-months old. More tragedy soon followed as her husband would suffer a long illness and die just a year later. Hana had to keep working at the tea shop for several more years to pay off her debts and those of her brother and cousin. Once those obligations were finally met, she decided to go to America. As plans were being made, Hana would meet her future husband who had arrived in Lima due to unforeseeable circumstances.

Figure 1. Joe Yamagawa (left) and the author in Gardena, California in 2016.

Joe's father, Kitaro Yamagawa, returned to Kouri Island after the war in Manchuria. He learned that his bride, from a pre-arranged marriage, ran away to Brazil to avoid the burden of being married to the eldest son of a household. Kitaro immediately made plans to leave Okinawa to pursue his bride, but his motives were also partially based on avoiding a redraft into the Japanese army. Along the journey to Brazil, he stopped at Peru for a few days and met Hana. They were soon married.

Meanwhile, Hana's brother and cousin eventually reached America after several ill-fated attempts. On their last attempt, they barely survived a deadly voyage as their boat caught fire and many in the group drowned in the Colorado River along the Mexico-U.S. border. Hana and Kitaro stayed behind in Peru and continued to work for another year. They wanted to save enough money for their own journey. After Hana's brother recovered from the disaster, he began working as a laborer and soon saved enough money to help his sister and Kitaro with their travel costs.

The journey to America would be dangerous. This was especially heightened by the fact that Hana was pregnant—although unbeknown at the time. Still, she was determined to leave Peru for America. At the beginning of the trip, they had to go to Chili to get a boat that would navigate the waters towards Mexico. After leaving Lima and arriving at a port in Chile, Hana and Kitaro met a group of men who just arrived from Japan and also had plans to go to America. Since Hana was the only person able to communicate in Spanish, everyone thought it would be best to travel along with her. They boarded a boat that took them along the coasts of South America and Central America. After several weeks of travel, they eventually arrived in Mexico. From that point onward, they were to take a train for some distance and later travel by boat across the Sea of Cortez. It so happened that the journey turned quite treacherous halfway through as they encountered a violent storm. The boat somehow managed to stay afloat and after arriving at port the next morning, the group walked quite a distance inland to their next destination. Not a day had passed, and they were detained by Mexican police—despite having all of the proper documentation. They were put in a detention center for several days and then held at gunpoint by the police who demanded all of their money. They were eventually released and returned to the boat heartbroken. The captain sympathized with them and agreed to take everyone a little farther to the mouth of the Colorado River. There, they began walking in a new direction, but into a desert. Although a less than desirable path, it was the shortest distance to America. Lacking money and fearing the police, this was the only way for them to get to America.

As they continued to walk, the group would occasionally see a nearby farmhouse. They were fortunate to receive much help from farmers who gave them shelter and food along the way. During their travels through the desert, Hana was taught how to make tortillas. Joe recalled his mother's description of the journey, "I would pat the tortilla dough as she walked through the desert, all the way to America." There was little time to rest.

As they continued to walk for days and days, the landscape began to gradually shift from desert to jungle. They were coming close to the border. It was then decided that the group should take extra precautions and travel only at night to avoid detection. However, those precautions were short-lived. They were soon caught near the border by Mexican mounted police. At that point, Hana cried and showed them that she was pregnant. The group then gathered all of their money and handed it over, but the police refused the bribe. Instead, they directed Hana and the group to a different direction, "Go that way and it's the safest passage to the border." The walk would continue for a couple more days with much more caution. Approaching a cotton farm, they soon heard people singing in Japanese. These were laborers working in the fields. They greeted each other and the laborers helped everyone by providing shelter and food for a couple of days.

The border was not far away. A fellow Okinawan who worked on another farm nearby helped Hana and arranged transportation over the border where she would be reunited with her brother. Kitaro stayed at the cotton farm to work for a couple of months before rejoining Hana. The Japanese men in the group also decided to stay to work as well.

In 1920, after a seven-month journey, Hana finally arrived in America and was reunited with her brother. He was working as a laborer on a farm in the Imperial Valley. Almost immediately after Hana's arrival in the U.S., she gave birth to a baby girl. The Imperial Valley would become home for Hana and Kitaro for the next six years. The family would grow in size to four children during those years. However, farming was not a feasible means of living. The Imperial Valley is essentially a desert. Kitaro would soon need to look for employment elsewhere. The family decided to move to Los Angeles where Kitaro was able to find a job as a milk deliverer. Soon afterwards, Kitaro and some Okinawan friends started a wholesale produce business. The profits were marginal but enough to sustain the family for several years. In 1932, another Okinawan friend of Hana's asked if she could take over the lease of a hotel. She agreed and the hotel became quite profitable. In 1942, however, a notification was issued by the U.S. government requiring all Japanese to evacuate Los Angeles. Failure to comply meant being forced into an internment camp. The family decided to go to Colorado and work on a farm. They had a couple of Okinawan friends in the area. Farming became their primary source of income for the next few years. In 1945, as soon as the ban on Japanese in Los Angeles was lifted, Kitaro took the family back to their home. Life would be different. Although they lost the hotel that was left in the care of a friend, Hana eventually acquired a low-rent apartment. Running the apartment was very stressful since constant haggling became routine whenever she tried to collect rent. Several years would pass and the family expanded its enterprise to include additional apartments and hotels in prominent locations—reaching much success by the mid-1950s.

Throughout their entire lives, and especially during the turbulent years of hardship and struggle, Hana and Kitaro depended much on their close ties with friends and families—especially those in the Okinawan community; both home and abroad. The relentless efforts made to ensure the wellbeing of their family eventually led them to success. Joe Yamagawa understands firsthand the hardship faced by his parents as they strived to adapt to the American way of life. Still, it is evident that the *Uchinanchu* spirit has remained strong in Joe's family. His parents maintained close ties with the Okinawan community and had an active role in helping establish the Okinawa Association of America. Joe has continued the family tradition and remains active unto this day.

Independence and Determination

Hiroko Cantrell and Maudie Romero

Hiroko's family were originally from Ogimi Village. Her father was born in 1876 and her mother in 1886. She recalls ceremonial visits to Nakijin Castle and the burning of incense in honor of her relatives. The family line descended from the third ruler.

After the war, it was a time of desperation as everyone struggled to get back to a normal life. Hiroko was the youngest daughter, and the family made plans for an arranged marriage. Hiroko was in her late 20s but had other ambitions. She had dreams of opening up her own beauty shop. Soon, she took the initiative and even went to the extent of placing a newspaper ad announcing the opening date of her beauty shop. In preparation for opening day, she had to clear a dense field that surrounded her shop. That required laborious outdoor work. She had to burn underbrush and debris. After a full day of outdoor work, Hiroko found herself covered completely in soot. While continuing to cut and burn branches, she saw some of her classmates walking by. They were all dressed quite fashionably in brand new clothes. Hiroko asked, "Where did you get those nice clothes?" They replied, "Oh, we all got jobs on the military base. We're working in a store and staying in the women's compound." At that instant, Hiroko dropped the branches and left the field.

Several days would pass before she finally went to the base and applied for a job. She was soon given a job and started working immediately. Once her family found out about her abrupt new venture, they became quite upset. They wanted to force her back home. They were concerned about the marriage arrangement, but Hiroko refused to go back home. She remained in the women's compound. She continued to work and live on the base. Sometime later, she would meet her future husband while working in the mess hall.

Hiroko got married and went to America in 1956. First, she traveled to Seattle on a transport boat and then made her way to North Carolina. There, she would spend the next several years with her husband who worked as a military police officer. After their daughter Maudie was born, the family decided to move to California. Hiroko started to work at a clothing factory and received the minimum wage of $1.25 per hour. The total paycheck amounted to $35 a week. She struggled to live on that amount of money. A friend advised her to go to a local business college. The tuition at the college was quite expensive at $500 a month. The curriculum required six months of study and training. Hiroko contacted her brothers and sisters who were working in Tokyo and Osaka at the time. They agreed to help her pay the college tuition. Meanwhile, tensions were starting to build up in her marriage. As Hiroko tried to manage her finances while raising Maudie as best as she could, she began to feel that her husband was careless in wasting lots of money. He would sometimes leave the house for days without offering any explanation. That soon forced Hiroko into a difficult decision; she decided to end the marriage in divorce.

Meanwhile, Hiroko continued to work towards her degree—although it was understandably a difficult time in her life. She had to remind herself that graduating from college would allow her to obtain a much higher-paying job. It seemed like an impossible dream to accomplish at the time because of money constraints, but she did her best to continue. She studied sewing at the business college. She was able to learn how to use many different types of industrial sewing machines. Hiroko described the sewing machines vividly; as being so fast and strong that sometimes clothes would fly off the table while being stitched. Right after graduation, Hiroko went to a company located next to the school and was hired immediately as a sample maker. Essentially, she would make clothes samples on her own and sell them to the company. In her apartment, she worked as hard as she could. Sometimes, the neighbors complained about the noise from her sewing machine. There was nothing she could do. She had to work. At times, Hiroko thought that continuing to work in her apartment wouldn't be possible, but she kept at it. Later, she was able to get a magazine that had some of the latest fashions from New York. She began creating clothing patterns based on those designs. After that adjustment, she was able to turn out a high-profit margin. She calculated that after purchasing $5 worth of cloth, she could turn it into a $10 dress that could be easily sold. Later on, she even made dresses for weddings. The training in using industrial sewing machines, along with the advice that she received from the business college, helped her financially in the long term. Since she was able to work fast and independently, that allowed her to make much more money. Hiroko was able to improve her economic circumstances from $1.25 an hour to $10 an hour.

Hiroko feels that all of her hard work and effort have paid off with the success of raising her daughter. She is really proud of the fact that Maudie always did very well in school; ultimately graduating from medical college. The sacrifice of leaving Okinawa was too great of a burden for failure to ensue. Hiroko remained strong and was able to succeed as a mother and provider through sheer determination.

Conclusion

Although the life stories in these interviews differ in terms of historical context and involve unique circumstances, several common elements emerge. All of interviewees share the perspective that an ill-fated outlook awaited them in Okinawa. Either due to harsh economic realities, military conscription, or arranged marriages, these were strong motives that influenced their decision to emigrate and seek a better way of life. Hope and desperation were some of the driving forces that led many immigrants to the United States (LeMay, 2012). After settling in America, each of the interviewees mentioned the difficulties of coping with unfamiliar surroundings and overcoming extraordinary odds. There is no equal in terms of Okinawan determination and hard work, and these attributes helped lead them on a path to success in the New World.

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Language Learning and Teaching

Teaching Politeness:
Language Instructors' Attitudes in Comparative Perspective

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Abstract: *This study reports on the differences between ESL/EFL teachers and JSL/JFL teachers' teaching of politeness and politeness expressions. The authors of the present study investigated how JSL/JFL and EFL/ESL teachers teach 'politeness,' and their respective attitudes toward teaching politeness. The data were collected through a questionnaire. The results indicate that JSL/JFL teachers exhibit a high awareness of politeness usage and explicitly incorporate cultural aspects when teaching linguistic structures. On the other hand, ESL/EFL teachers tend to focus more on content rather than explicit teaching of politeness expression, even though they are aware of its importance. Based on preliminary research, the authors conducted further research that included classroom observation and interviews with the participants. The results show that teachers' respective backgrounds affect the classroom instruction as well as expectations of student performance. Finally, questions of how language teachers can address the issue of politeness and enhance their pedagogic approach will be discussed.*

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Introduction

Instruction in politeness was one of the things that caught the authors' attention about English pedagogy in Japan. To be specific, our own English study experiences and observation of English teaching in Japan since returning to Japan led us to believe that politeness instruction is not explicitly provided in textbooks. This raised the question of how English textbooks deal with politeness compared to Japanese language textbooks. In an analysis of English language textbooks, Arai (2005) found that although English (ESL/EFL) textbooks published in Japan have slightly more content than those published in the US or the UK, politeness strategies were not introduced as a textbook topic. Arai suggested that textbooks should pay more attention to politeness strategies and explicitly include politeness strategies as a topic. Oyama, Morikawa, and Johnson (2009) found that Japanese EFL/ESL learners, while conscious of the need to use politeness strategies, do not know how to express higher levels of politeness. However, the acquisition of politeness is quite difficult for JSL/JFL learners and requires increasing sociocultural competence. For the above reasons, the present study will also discuss questions of how language teachers can address this issue and enhance their pedagogic approach.

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Politeness

There are many ways to show politeness, including non-verbal behavior, such as bowing, and verbal behavior, such as tone of voice, pausing, speech rate, and language expressions. There is also the consideration of social customs. Each society and culture has a different way of showing politeness.

Brown and Levinson (1978) suggest that politeness revolves around the concept of *face*, which is "the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself" (p. 61). Positive face is the desire to gain the approval of others and negative face is the desire to be unimpeded by others in one's actions. Brown and Levinson proposed that politeness is the addresser's strategy for minimizing or redressing "face threatening acts" (FTAs) in order to save the "face" of the addressee. Politeness strategies, then, consist of linguistic forms used in order to protect another's "face." Therefore, positive politeness leads to moves to achieve solidarity through offers of friendship, the use of compliments, and informal language use. Negative politeness leads to deference, apologizing, indirectness, and formality in language use.

Quantitative research by Hill, Ide, Ikuta, Kawasaki, and Ogino (1986), which investigated cross-cultural socio-linguistic rules of politeness indicates that longer sentences are considered more polite in both American English and Japanese. They also provided three measures in their study of Japanese and Americans students: information about linguistic rules of politeness, social rules of behavior based on “discernment, wakimae” (Hill et al., 1986, p. 347) and “the relative frequency with which specific request forms are used toward specific categories of addressee in typical situations” (Hill et al., 1986, p. 354). The results show that when Japanese people use polite forms to certain addressees, specific linguistic forms are used in strong agreement. In other words, discernment is obligatory and volition is optional for the Japanese. However, for American English, “the factors of addressee status and (typical) situation define a very broad range of politeness” (Hill et al., 1986, p. 362). Therefore, volition is obligatory, and discernment is obligatory as well, but it is not primary.

Japanese honorifics and politeness pose one of the greatest challenges for learners of Japanese. Because of this, much research has been conducted in the area of politeness in language teaching, especially featuring learners of Japanese and politeness expressions including honorifics and socio-cultural competences. A number of studies illustrate the difficulty of sociolinguistic and sociocultural feature acquisition in a classroom environment (Tateyama, 2001). JSL/JFL textbooks teach politeness strategies explicitly. Nevertheless, the acquisition of pragmatic competency has proved difficult even with explicit instruction (Cook, 2001).

Methodology

Participants

Ten English teachers who were born and raised in the US, and ten Japanese teachers who were born and raised in Japan participated in this study. All of the English teachers are native speakers of English, while Japanese teachers are native speakers of Japanese. The ages of the participants range from early thirties to early fifties, and the time they spent in English-speaking countries, or in Japan, varies from person to person. All the participants teach at the college level.

Table 1. *Participants Profile*

	ESL/EFL Teachers	JSL/JFL Teachers
# of participants	10	10
Age range	20’s – 50’s	30’s – 40’s
Years spent in Japan	1-20	20-31
Years spent abroad	22-30	4-25
Teaching affiliation	college level	college level

Note: Some teachers lived in other countries including the U.S.

Materials

The participants were asked to fill out a questionnaire (Appendix A). The questionnaire is based on a study that examined the concept of politeness in American and Japanese cultures (Kato, 1998), but tailored for our research. The questionnaire was used to collect three kinds of information: Section 1 asked for participants’ background information, and sections 2 and 3 contained questions regarding teaching politeness, including a direct question of whether they explicitly teach ‘politeness’ in class. Furthermore, the participants were asked to write what kind of expressions they would teach in certain situations where negative or positive politeness was required. The participants were asked to list any linguistic or cultural information they would provide to the class in order to teach the expressions. Additionally, they were asked to participate in a follow-up interview.

Results

Positive and Negative Politeness

The questionnaires showed that both ESL teachers and JSL teachers hold similar views toward teaching cultural aspects of their target language. In the following examples, (1) indicates what expressions each teacher answered he or she would teach in the given situation, and (2) shows what linguistic and/or cultural instructions he or she would provide when teaching about these situations (Table 2).

Table 2. *Participant Answers*

Situation	1) What students should say
	2) Instructions to provide students with

Question 1:

1. A student wants to borrow a book from a teacher (professor).

EN: 1) 'May I borrow a book from you?

'Would you mind if I borrowed your book?

2) 'Use expressions such as would you mind…, Could I …, or Can I…?

JP: 1) 'Sensee, sumimasen ga, hon o kashite itadakemasu ka.

'Hono wo karitemo ii deshoo ka.'

2) 'It is better to add a reason for the request.

2. A teacher invited the entire class to a concert, but one student cannot attend.

EN: 1) 'I'm sorry, but I'm busy so I cannot attend.'

'I apologize. I cannot go to the concert tonight because of …'

2) 'It would be worthwhile to stress that a reason why the student cannot attend is appropriate albeit a detailed reason is not needed.

JP: 1) 'Sekkaku sasotte itadaita ndesu ga, konkai wa ikesoo ni arimasen.'

'Sumimasen ga, chotto yooji ga arimashite.'

2) 'In Japanese, you leave the sentence ending vague when you have to say something not convenient for you.'

'It is better to tell a reason and show willingness to come next time.'

3. A teacher compliments a student ('I love your dress!', or 'You speak English so well!') and the student needs to reply.

EN: 1) 'Thank you!'

'Thank you very much, Dr. Smith. I have been practicing my English conversation skills.'

2) 'I will explain that it's OK to accept a compliment in western culture and one shouldn't be embarrassed or deny it. Instead, just say 'Thank you' and return a compliment if possible.

JP: 1) 'Ieie, madamada desu.'

'E? Hontoo desu ka. Arigatoo gozaimasu.'

2) 'It is better to show hedges'

4. A student forgot to bring his or her homework and informs the teacher.

EN: 1) I'm sorry, I forgot my homework.

2) 'Explain it is highly irritating when students respond with nothing but silence. Tell them it's best just to speak up quickly and apologize if they are remiss.

JP: 1) 'Sumimasen ga, syukudai o wasurete

shimaimashita.'

Kondo kara ki o tsukemasu.

2) 'You can demonstrate your feeling of regret by using the expression 'te shimau'.

5. A student is 15 minutes late to class.

EN: 1) 'I'm sorry I'm late'.

2) 'Explain to all of the class, then remind students if necessary.'

JP: 1) 'Sensee. Okurete sumimasen.

2) 'It is better to tell a reason'.

6. Students' morning greeting for the teacher as he or she enters the classroom

EN: 1) 'Good morning'

2) 'The point to make here is that it would be rude NOT to respond.'

JP: 1) 'Sensee, ohayoo gozaimasu.'

7. A teacher says something that a student knows to be wrong (e.g., The teacher said that the Grand Canyon is in California).

EN: 1). 'Excuse me, but I think the Grand Canyon is in Arizona.

Excuse me, but don't you mean Arizona?'

2) 'It's OK to politely correct a teacher if they are flagrantly wrong about a factual point. Also teach rising intonation on point of error.'

'It'd be important to work on tone of voice, and delivery so that they don't seem rude.

JP: 1) 'Sensee, Biwako wa tashika Shiga-ken ni aru to omou ndesu ga…

Sore wa Shiga-ken dewa arimaen ka.'

2) 'You can express politeness by using expressions such as tashika, or to omoimasu ga.

8. A student wants to drop the class, but the teacher tries to convince the student to continue. How should the student reply to the teacher?

EN: 1) 'Thank you for your concern. I will think about it.'

2) In this case, how to make an argument.

JP: 1) 'Sensee no okotoba wa ureshii desu ga,

…shi, …shi, …node yappari tsudukeru no wa muzukashii desu.'

'Dekireba sooshitai desu ga, yappari senmon no benkyoo ni sennen shitai to omoimasu.'

2) 'It is better to keep a good relationship with your teacher by accepting the teacher's opinion first and then state your own opinion.'

9. A student greeting when s/he sees a teacher outside of school (e.g., at a shopping mall).

EN: 1) 'Hello!'

2) Outside of the classroom, any attempt to speak English is appreciated and may be more casual.

JP: 1) 'Sensee, konnnichiwa. Guuzen desu ne.'

When teaching a request form, JSL/JFL teachers answered that they would teach "te itadakemasen ka," using a negative politeness strategy. On the other hand, ESL/EFL teachers suggested the use of "may/could I" or "would you mind if," indicating that they distinguish the forms depending on the burden of the request itself. Japanese teachers exhibit more standardization with their use of "teitadakaku," since the status difference (e.g., teacher-student) is the most important factor in making a request. This is in line with the findings of Hill et al. (1986), which posit that in the U.S. the burden of the request determines which form to use, whereas social relationship is the primary factor in Japan.

Certain situations, however, require positive politeness, such as students greeting a teacher, or establishing rapport with the teacher. When a student responds to a teacher's compliment, such as, "your dress is so nice," or "you speak English/Japanese very well," JSL/JFL teachers answered that the students should negate the compliment, whereas ESL/EFL teachers answered that it was acceptable to acknowledge it. Additionally, several ESL/EFL teachers commented that it was more polite to talk about the item that is complimented.

Responding to Students' Greetings

JSL/JFL teachers focus on the rigid teacher-student relationship and believe that it is important to teach Japanese customs in order for students to adapt to Japanese culture, whereas ESL/EFL teachers' answers varied. Some ESL/EFL teachers commented that they would make clear that even in the US a hierarchical teacher-student relationship does exist, along with the requisite rules. Some noted that use of the first name is acceptable in class, because it indicates that students take the initiative to communicate and want to create a better class atmosphere. The use of "konnichiwa" in an e-mail message did bother JSL/JFL teachers, but three participants said that they would not correct it, because the time lag makes such corrective feedback impractical. ESL/EFL teachers answered that due to the informal nature of the e-mail, with the delivery of the message being most important, they were not bothered by the use of "Hi!" These teachers stressed maintaining a good relationship with students rather than correcting them, which indicates ESL/EFL teachers' wanting to save the students' "face."

Teaching Politeness in Class

Five out of 10 ESL/EFL teachers said that they do not teach politeness, since they teach content rather than etiquette (Table 3). One ESL/EFL teacher noted that if s/he were to teach business English, s/he would emphasize the importance of polite usage. JSL/JFL teachers answered unanimously that they teach politeness in all classes at all levels, but especially, at the advanced levels.

Table 3. *Teaching Politeness in Class*

Response	ESL/EFL Teachers	JSL/JFL Teachers
Agree	4	10
Disagree	5	0
Other	1	0

Conclusion

Our findings suggest that ESL/EFL teachers should explicitly incorporate ideas of politeness into their curriculum. Because politeness strategies are difficult to convey without explicit instruction, and because English teachers rarely teach politeness outside of business English, Japanese students lack the opportunity to talk politely with English speakers. It follows that they may encounter difficulties communicating in English-speaking countries. We submit that teaching politeness strategies—positive and negative—would prove effective for Japanese speakers, who are generally exposed to a limited amount of politeness instruction (usually of the positive variety) in the classroom.

Because this is a pilot study, the amount of data collected was relatively small, and focused only on native speakers of English and Japanese. For further research, the study should be expanded to include instructors who are non-native speakers of ESL/EFL and JSL/JFL.

Other factors also need to be considered when researching honorifics and politeness, for example, gender. Many studies have been conducted which show the differences between women's and men's speech (Ide, 1982, 1997, 1999; Ide & Yoshida, 1999; Shibamoto, 1985). Other studies likewise show that usage of honorific forms differs depending on the individuals, time, and context (Okamoto, 1997, 2004). It follows that individual differences also need to be considered. Cultural background and teaching philosophy are different for each teacher. Furthermore, how sensitive or aware teachers are to teaching politeness plays an important role in their approach.

There have been few studies done on how teachers introduce politeness in class in regards to ESL/EFL and JSL/JFL. More quantitative and qualitative research needs to be conducted, especially in the area of acquisition of pragmatic competence. We hope our study will prompt further research dealing with politeness, especially in ESL/EFL contexts.

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Appendix

Part I: Background questions

Please mark the appropriate box (boxes) with a check (ü) or (×).

1) Your Gender: □ M □ F

2) Your Age*:* □ 20s □ 30s □ 40s □50s

3) Where were you born and raised? ☐ Born and raised in Japan
☐ Born and raised in the USA
☐ Other (Please specify):________________________________

4a) In total, how long have you lived in Japan? __________ years

4b) In total, how long have you lived in the U.S.? __________ years

5) Your native language: ☐ Japanese
☐ English
☐ Both
☐ Other (Please specify): _________________________

6) Currently, where do you teach? (Select all that apply)

☐ Elementary school ☐ Middle school ☐ High school
☐ College ☐ Language school
☐ Other (Please specify):_______________________________

Part II: How will you respond in the following situations?

Suppose that you are at school. Your student comes up to you, calling you by your first name (e.g., Yumiko!/Ben!) How would you respond?

☐ I would not correct the student for using my first name.

☐ I would immediately correct the student for using my first name.

☐ I would correct the student for using my first name later.

2) Regarding the previous question (#1), please briefly explain the reason for your answer.

____

____

____

Your student sent you the following **e-mail**. How would you respond to the message?

Message:

Hi! Will you be in your office at 1pm today? Can I drop by?

Yoshi

☐ I would not correct the student for his usage of "Hi!"

☐ I would correct the student for his usage of "Hi!" either by reply message or in face-to-face encounter.

4) Regarding the previous question (#3), please briefly explain the reason for your answer.

____

____

____

Part III: Questions regarding how you teach in class

Suppose that you are teaching a conversation class. How would you approach teaching the following situations to your students? **Please write what expressions you would introduce for the scenarios below, and how you would teach them. If you provide your students with some cultural explanations, please include those as well.**

1-1) **A student wants to borrow a book from a teacher (professor).**

Expression:____

How to teach: ____

____

____

1-2) **A teacher invited the entire class to a concert, but one student cannot attend.**

Expression:____

How to teach: ____

1-3) **A teacher complements a student ('I love your dress!', or 'You speak English so well!') and the student needs to reply.**

Expression:____

How to teach: ____

1-4) **A student forgot to bring his or her homework and informs the teacher.**

Expression:____

How to teach: ____

1-5) **A student is 15 minutes late to class.**

Expression:____

How to teach: ____

1-6) **Students' morning greeting for the teacher as he or she enters the classroom**

Expression:____

How to teach: ____

1-7) **A teacher says something that a student knows to be wrong (e.g., The teacher said that the Grand Canyon is in California).**

Expression:____

How to teach: ____

1-8) **A student wants to drop the class, but the teacher tries to convince the student to continue. How should the student reply to the teacher?**

Expression:____

How to teach: ____

1-9) **A student greet when s/he sees a teacher outside of school (e.g., at a shopping mall).**

Expression:____

How to teach: ____

Part IV: Questions on politeness

1) Do you explicitly teach how to 'speak politely' in English in your class?

☐ Yes (Please skip #2 and #3 and continue to #4)

☐ No (Please skip #4)

If Yes, why? (Select all that apply)

☐ Because it is important.

☐ Because it is taught in the textbook I use(d).

☐ Other (Please explain):

3) If Yes, what do you think is the most important thing to speak polite English?

4) If No, why do you not teach it?

☐ I do not think it is important.

☐ I think it is important but I do not know how to teach it.

☐ I do not think we need to teach how to 'speak politely' in English.

☐ Other (Please explain):

Capitalizing on the Strengths and Complementing the Weaknesses of Native and Non-Native English Speaking Teachers

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Abstract: *There has recently been a growing interest in teachers' and students' perceptions of Native English Speaking Teachers (NESTs) and Non-Native English Speaking Teachers (NNESTs). It has been believed that, by enhancing the understanding of particular aspects of NESTs and NNESTs, teachers and students can come to better understand, both linguistically and culturally, their own experiences in language teaching and learning. This study investigates students' perceptions in English classes taught by both foreign assistant language teachers (ALTs) (i.e., NESTs), who were hired through the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) program, and local Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) (i.e., NNESTs), thereby adding valuable insights to the discussion of N/NESTs. Data were collected from four Japanese students at two public high schools using myriad qualitative methods in order to examine the perspectives of JTEs and ALTs. Findings suggest that political, cultural and educational contexts, as well as the teachers' traits as N/NESTs, crucially affected the participants' perceptions. In conclusion, I discuss the importance of capitalizing on the strengths and complementing the weaknesses of NESTs and NNESTs and, based on the study, provide suggestions for language teachers, students, teacher educators and policy makers.*

Keywords: N/NESTs, JTEs and ALTs, student perceptions

Introduction

Considerable interest exists in the perceptions of Native English Speaking Teachers (NESTs) and Non-Native English Speaking Teachers (NNESTs) (e.g., Braine, 2010; Farrell, 2015a; Kamihi-Stein, 2004; Llurda, 2014; Mahboob, 2010; Moussu, 2016). Various reports of the advantages and disadvantages of having N/NEST language teachers can now be found. NESTs are considered to be reliable informants of linguistic knowledge but lack shared cultural knowledge with their students (Widdowson, 1992). NNESTs are said to provide a better learning model for their students but have challenges in linguistic competence (Medgyes, 1992). By advancing the understanding of particular aspects of NESTs and NNESTs, teachers and students can come to better make sense of, both linguistically and culturally, their own experiences in language teaching and learning. This study looks into students' perceptions in English classes taught by foreign assistant language teachers (ALTs) (NESTs), who were hired through the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) program (CLAIR, 2016), and local Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) (NNESTs) and therefore adds valuable insights to the discussions of N/NESTs. Native and non-native English speaking teachers have been teaching English classes together as a team for three decades in Japan (CLAIR, 2016). Based on the discussions surrounding N/NESTs heretofore, it is somewhat clear that teachers and students involved in team teaching in Japan hold perceptions of JTEs as good learner models but less competent English speakers. Conversely, ALTs are perceived as being less familiar with the Japanese educational system but as fluent English speakers. The students in this study indeed had these perceptions. However, the particular significance of this study lies in the unique contexts in which the team teachers are situated. That is, JTEs are the 'main' teachers in team-taught classes although they are not always proficient speakers of English, whereas ALTs are language 'assistants' despite being fluent English speakers. What was thus revealed was the importance of the political, cultural, and educational contexts the teachers are placed in, as well as their traits as N/NESTs, in contributing to the students' perceptions of JTEs and ALTs. Suggestions for team teachers, students,

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teacher educators and policy makers arising from this study are presented.

Non-Native/Native English Speaking Teachers (N/NESTs)

Stereotypes about native and non-native English speaking teachers (N/NESTs) have long been in existence. In Japan, a strong preference for a standard variant of English (e.g., American and British) spoken by NESTs was voiced by secondary students (Matsuda, 2003). In the recent past, however, awareness of the N/NESTs issue has expanded our understanding about language teaching and learning. Attempts to prevent discrimination against NNESTs in the field of TESOL have been made by highlighting teachers' teaching skills, experience and preparation rather than their language proficiency or native/non-native status (Farrell, 2015a; Llurda, 2014; TESOL, 2006). Phillipson (1992, 2009) criticized the reality that the status of NNESTs vis-à-vis that of NESTs is considered to be lower because NESTs are automatically exalted due to their native language abilities, a value-laden notion which he calls the native speaker fallacy. There is thus currently a continuing movement toward greater recognition of NNESTs (Braine, 2010). Although there have been several studies conducted on teachers' (self-) perceptions of N/NESTs thus far, studies on students' perspectives of N/NESTs are scarce in comparison. I therefore focus on students' perceptions of N/NESTs in this article and introduce below a review of such studies.

Studies on Students' Perceptions of N/NESTs

The main purposes and goals of previous studies about students' perceptions of N/NESTs have been on shedding light on the advantages and disadvantages associated with N/NESTs. For example, Cheung (2002) (see also Cheung & Braine, 2007) investigated 420 Hong Kong University students' perceptions of NESTs and NNESTs through numerous methods (i.e., questionnaires, interviews and classroom observation). The participants recognized language proficiency, fluency and cultural knowledge as advantages of NESTs, whereas they regarded empathy, shared cultural background and L1 use as advantages of NNESTs. Using a discourse-analytic technique, part of Mahboob's (2003) study explored the perceptions of 32 students in an intensive English program in the United States. NESTs received positive comments on oral skills, vocabulary and cultural knowledge, but negative comments on their inability to provide appropriate explanations about grammar. NNESTs, on the other hand, received positive comments on their teaching skills and on having experience as learners, but negative comments on their oral skills. In a Japanese university, Miyazato (2003) found through interviews that the students in her study felt fearful of NESTs because NESTs did not share their linguistic or cultural backgrounds. Due to the teachers' 'foreign' appearance as well as their 'genuine' English, however, the students experienced more joy when they could successfully communicate with NESTs. Part of Mullock's (2010) study examined students' conceptions of a good language teacher. Data were gathered through short, open-ended questionnaires from 134 undergraduate students in Thailand. The students expressed a preference for NNESTs with high levels of proficiency in English and for NESTs who had acquired knowledge of the host language and culture. In Walkinshaw and Duong's (2012) study, 50 Vietnamese learners evaluated the importance of native speaker status in comparison with seven different English language teacher qualities (i.e., teaching experience, qualifications, friendliness, enthusiasm, the ability to deliver interesting classes, understanding of local culture and English competence). All the qualities but one (English competence) were more valued by the students than native speaker status. The students thus seemed to have placed more weight on professional, personal and pedagogical qualities than native speaker status in deciding a good language teacher. Ma (2012) reported on a study which analyzed students' perceptions of the advantages and disadvantages of N/NESTs by interviewing 30 secondary students in Hong Kong. As with previous studies, her study showed that the participants viewed NESTs positively because they have good English proficiency and more relaxed teaching styles. On the other hand, NNESTs were perceived favorably because they share the same language as their students and understand their difficulties in language learning. According to Ma, and as appears to be the case with other studies, both advantages and disadvantages associated with NESTs are often the reverse of disadvantages and advantages associated with NNESTs. For example, one advantage associated with NESTs is their high proficiency in English, and one disadvantage associated with NNESTs is their lack of high proficiency in English. Aslan and Thompson's recent study (2016) provides interesting insights into the N/NESTs discussion. In their study, the student participants in a university-level English language program in the United States completed a semantic differential assessment scale that consisted of adjective pairs (e.g., approachable vs. unapproachable). Findings suggested that NESTs and NNESTs are perceived as equals in the eyes of the students. The findings, however, might not be applicable to high school students in EFL contexts such as Japan, which is the focus of this study.

As seen, the studies concerning N/NESTs include a variety of methods, participants and contexts: (a) the data collection and data analysis methods used vary (i.e., from questionnaires to in-depth interviews to classroom observation, from thematic analysis to discourse and linguistic analysis); (b) the student participants are not only at universities but also in other institutional sectors; and (c) the contexts include a number of ESL as well as EFL classrooms. However, the English education field still longs for more research examples which take into account the N/NESTs' particular dispositions and circumstances in diverse contexts. It is also necessary to employ a wide variety of data collection methods over time rather than one-off questionnaires or individual interviews.

Methodology

Participants of the study were four second-year students from two public high schools in Japan. For reasons of anonymity, the names of the participants and their schools have been changed. Kanon (female) and Tatsuya (male) at Sakura High School were chosen with the help of their teachers. Similarly, with the support of their teachers, Sayaka (female) and Yousuke (male) at Tsubaki High School were selected to join the study. The data collection lasted from December 2011 to March 2012 and employed the following qualitative methods.

Semi-structured Interviews (SI)

At the beginning and the end of the data collection phase, each participant took part in semi-structured interviews and talked mainly about their experience in their English classes taught by a JTE and an ALT as a team. Each interview continued for about one hour and was carried out in Japanese.

Pair Discussions (PD)

Each pair of the students in the same high school had one pair discussion in Japanese at each school. Each discussion continued for about half an hour.

Field Notes (FN)

At the research sites, I kept field notes detailing events, incidents and the participants' comments whenever possible.

I transcribed all the data and translated Japanese into English. I then analyzed the data through a qualitative content analysis (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007), which concentrates on the meaning of the participants' comments and behavior, in order to identify conspicuous and recurrent themes. This analytic process was applied to individual participants over time (e.g., Kanon, at the beginning and at the end of the data collection phase) as well as across different participants (e.g., Kanon and Tatsuya, two students in the same school; Kanon and Sayaka, two students in different schools). The results of this analysis were separated into a number of themes, as described below.

The Study: Students' Perceptions of NESTs (ALTs) and NNESTs (JTEs)

On the whole, the participants regarded JTEs (NNESTs) as language models, language learners, and bridges between ALTs and students. They viewed ALTs (NESTs) as being 'native' speakers of English who are the authorities and providers of the target language and cultures as well as students' motivation boosters or hinderers.

JTEs as Language Models, Learners and Bridges: Reliable or Doubtful?

The students in my study valued JTEs for fulfilling the role of Japanese language models of English. One of the students at Tsubaki, Yousuke, shared his perception of his JTE as a model: "My JTE and ALT sometimes chit-chat next to me, and I can learn how some English expressions are naturally used … My JTE is a Japanese language model of English for us" (SI). Yousuke perceived that his JTE had acquired enough English to communicate appropriately with a foreigner and thus successfully play the role of being "a more achievable model" (Cook, 1999, p. 200). On this point, Medgyes (2001) contended that "only non-NESTs can be set as proper learner models, since they *learned* English after they acquired their native language, unlike NESTs who *acquired* English as their native language" (p. 436, emphasis in the original). Yoshida (2009) also maintained that JTEs are more ideal language models for Japanese learners of English than ALTs. Since JTEs are themselves ongoing learners of English and had once been in the same Japanese educational system as their students, the participants perceived JTEs as being able to understand and relate to students' learning. For instance, Sayaka from Tsubaki made the following observation about her JTE: "My JTE may be the most effective teacher of all the teachers I have had … because she knows the difficulties we have with English" (SI). JTEs as Japanese-bilinguals were also perceived to have a significant responsibility for realizing effective interaction between ALTs and students in class. Kanon at Sakura, for example, considered translating what an ALT says to be one of the most crucial jobs performed by JTEs. Sayaka was another student who valued the part her JTE played in helping her to learn English: "My ALT plays a leading role in team-taught classes, and my JTE helps from time to time … by translating some of the parts we don't know…. Leaning becomes easy that way" (SI). By the same token, Yousuke commented, "When we don't understand what our ALT said, the JTE takes over and explains" (SI). One of the students at Sakura, Tatsuya, perceived JTEs to be a psychological anchor: "When I have a difficult time in understanding the ALT's instruction, I can ask my Japanese teacher what is going on in Japanese without hesitation, but I cannot do that with a foreign teacher" (SI). Complementing the ALT's explanation in this way supposedly made the language learning of the students easier and more productive. The students thus found JTEs to be helpful not only pedagogically but also psychologically because they felt more at ease asking them questions in Japanese when they encountered difficulties. The pivotal roles of JTEs in team-taught classes are being able "to fill the gaps" between ALTs and students in the classroom (Miyazato, 2009, p. 50).

Despite the fact that the majority of the participants appreciated the JTEs performing these roles, challenges were also noted. There was some doubt as to the degree to which all JTEs are good language models for students' English learning since JTEs are (and perhaps always will be life-long) learners of English (Medgyes, 1992). Yousuke said bluntly, "I assume there are some Japanese teachers who can speak English well and some who cannot" (SI). Kanon described this issue by saying, "I was sometimes unsure about some JTEs' pronunciation" (SI). Tatsuya expressed his dubious impression of JTEs as language models: "I heard that the English we learn at school from Japanese teachers would not be useful when we talk to foreigners" (SI).

The English proficiency of JTEs is thus a critical factor for all those concerned when considering team-taught classes. It might also affect the relationship between the team teachers. The student participants regarded JTEs as language models and English learners in their own right. They also thought that JTEs were able to grasp the English abilities and learning processes of their students, thereby providing appropriate support for them. In addition, JTEs as Japanese-English bilinguals were considered to be able to aid ALTs and students in properly interacting with each other. These perceptions were generally held although there was an awareness of shortcomings in linguistic areas on the part of some JTEs.

ALTs as 'Natives': Enlightening or Frightening?

Overall, the student participants considered ALTs to be the authorities and providers of the target language. They praised their ALTs' English, using a rich array of adjectives to do so, such as: "good", "real", "natural", "actual", "first-hand", "faster", "foreign", and "non-Japanese" (FN) (see also Jenkins, 2005). Yousuke's comments summed up their distinct perceptions about ALTs and their English: "The native pronunciation can only be acquired by living in foreign countries for a long time. For example, there are some words or expressions that are used only in foreign countries, which we don't know here" (SI). In addition to the target language, ALTs were also believed to be the authorities and providers of cultures in English speaking countries. For example, Tatsuya talked about the differences between JTEs' solo classes and team-taught classes:

> Since junior high school, when a foreign teacher came to teach, unlike the classes taught only by Japanese teachers, I was taught not only English but also a different culture. When an ALT came to the class for the first time, the ALT showed pictures of his family and friends. It was fun and interesting. (SI)

When I asked Sayaka what she wanted her team teachers to do, she responded, “Although we are studying English, I don’t think we know a lot about English speaking countries like the United States or Australia. So I want to learn more about foreign cultures from ALTs” (SI). ALTs appeared to be motivation boosters for the students because (a) they were regarded as the authorities and providers of English and target cultures, (b) they were often monolingual speakers of English and (c) they had a foreign appearance. Sayaka, for instance, shared with me her initial interest in her ALT: “The very first motivation I had for wanting to speak to my ALT in English was because he is a handsome foreign person!” (SI). Yousuke noted, “Team-taught classes are fun…. My ALT speaks English to us in team-taught classes at a natural speed like a machine gun. We always have to deal with that, so I concentrate on the class to catch up with that speed” (PD). Although the participants frequently viewed ALTs to be motivational boosters, they sometimes had reservations. Tatsuya, for instance, commented that he felt anxious when communicating with ALTs: “When the ALT came, the class was fun. But I was nervous when I had to speak to the ALT in English” (SI). Yousuke confessed how nervous he and other students become when a new ALT joins their class for the first time: “I get really nervous, and the class becomes really quiet and tense” (SI). In a similar vein, Sayaka pointed out that she often hesitated to speak to ALTs and would feel more comfortable to be around ALTs if they could spend more time with their students inside and outside the classroom and if they could speak Japanese (even in a limited way) rather than only English (FD). Phillipson (1992) contends that teachers of English “should have proven experience of and success in foreign language learning, and that they should have a detailed acquaintance with the language and culture of the learners they are responsible for” (p. 195). On the contrary, ALTs do not generally have any experience of Japanese language learning or deep knowledge of the culture of their students (CLAIR, 2016).

The participants thus perceived ALTs to be the authorities and providers of the target language and cultures. They also often saw ALTs as motivation boosters because they can create a natural atmosphere in class for listening to and speaking English. At the same time, they sometimes thought of ALTs as possible motivation hinderers. For the most part, ALTs had little Japanese ability, and the imposed ‘English-only’ communication with them was intimidating to the students at times.

Discussion

Corroborating the findings of previous studies on NNESTs (e.g., Ma, 2012), JTEs as NNESTs were perceived to be invaluable not only as language models but also for their understanding of students’ learning and as bridges between ALTs and students. NNESTs provide an achievable model, as students can look to their JTE and imagine their future-self (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009) being a proficient Japanese speaker of English. JTEs also appear to be able to understand students’ learning processes and experiences because they themselves are growing English learners and former students in Japanese schools (see Cook, 2005). In Braine’s (2010) words, NNESTs have “a better ability to read the minds of their students and predict their difficulties with the English language” (p. 28). At the same time, the participants observed that JTEs as Japanese-English bilinguals could offer effective translation work for ALTs and students in class (see Cheung, 2002; Reves & Medgyes, 1994). In each respect, the level of English proficiency of JTEs was considered to be of paramount importance. This point was also discussed in Gorsuch’s (2002) study. The JTEs appeared to be constantly judged on their level of English abilities both by others and themselves; the higher their level of English, the better. Medgyes (1994) contends that if all other variables are equal, the ideal NNESTs are those who have “achieved near-native proficiency in English” and that one of the most pressing professional duties of NNESTs is “to improve their command of English” (p. 74).

Also in line with the findings of previous studies on NESTs, the participants in this study viewed ALTs as the authorities and providers of English and cultures in English speaking countries (see Moussu, 2006) as well as motivation boosters or hinderers due to their native English and lack of knowledge about students’ first language or background (see Miyazato, 2003). It is, however, questionable whether English provided by ALTs is the only ‘right’ kind and conversely whether ‘any’ NESTs (including ALTs) could teach English grammar, reading and writing. The over-reliance on native speakers of English is seen to be problematic by other researchers (e.g., Miyazato, 2012; Phillipson, 1992, 2009) particularly because it is believed that in the near future English "will be a language used mainly in multilingual contexts as a second language and for communication between non-native speakers" (Graddol, 1999, p. 57; see also Hino, 2009). It is also noteworthy that despite being regarded as the best providers of cultural information about English speaking countries, usually ALTs are well acquainted with only one English speaking country, the one in which they were born and raised. ALTs might arguably be less familiar than the JTEs with the target cultures (besides that of their home country). Besides, JTEs are typically older than ALTs. They are also foreign language teachers, presumably with an interest in the culture of those foreign language users, whereas ALTs vary greatly in terms of university majors and areas of interest. Since ALTs are expected to share their culture with local communities as stated in official documents (CLAIR, 2016), however, it was hardly surprising that everybody was instilled with the idea that ALTs should be the authorities and providers of the target cultures. Another point of concern is whether ALTs can create real motivation in the students because of their unique linguistic and pedagogical contributions or if they merely generate excitement on a superficial level due to their rare (and exotic) presence in the classroom. In any case, as recommended by Phillipson (1992) and others (e.g., Hiratsuka, 2013), NESTs should strive to demonstrate the excitement of learning a foreign language and great familiarity with the language and culture of the learners of whom they are in charge in their classrooms.

Suggestions

I offer four suggestions based on the findings from this study. First and foremost, JTEs' workloads should be reduced so that they could make time to brush up, maintain and improve their English skills. All the people concerned need to acknowledge how challenging it is for JTEs to satisfactorily perform their duties as full-time teachers in Japanese schools and simultaneously fulfil their roles as English teachers when they themselves are learners of English (NNESTs). More Japanese English teachers need to be placed at each school, and teachers of other subjects should take on more of the work related to general school affairs. To further reduce the amount of JTEs' work, JTEs should allocate their English teaching-related work (e.g., test making and marking) to their ALT without assuming that their ALT does not want to have extra work or cannot manage it. JTEs might then be able to ensure the improvement of their English, thereby better fulfilling the important roles of being an adequate linguistic model and an effective translator for their students. Furthermore, instead of the Japanese government blindly hiring a large number of ALTs just because they are 'native' English speakers, it could spend the tremendous amount of money and resources involved in the recruitment of ALTs on pre-service and in-service JTEs by, for example, allowing them to go study abroad even for a short period of time (Hiramatsu, 2005; Hiratsuka, 2013).

Second, the Japanese government should revise the hiring methods and processes of ALTs in order to acquire better equipped candidates, linguistically and culturally, for the ultimate purpose of securing conducive English language learning environments and enhancing students' English abilities. In its current form, ALTs do not need to have any Japanese proficiency or cultural awareness; however, they should acquire them "even in a limited way" so as to efficiently communicate with their students and make their students feel comfortable and at ease in interacting with them. In addition, ALTs, like JTEs, should be more rigorously evaluated by their colleagues and possibly by their students regarding their professional commitments and development each year so that they are not merely the authorities of the target language and cultures but are also developing language teachers. They should then be provided with an opportunity to stay at their school as long as they want if they are thought to be desirable professionals. If the needs of the school and ALTs hired through the JET program are not met, schools and boards of education could consider employing foreign teachers from private companies where costs (e.g., salaries) are lower and where foreign teachers are more carefully monitored in terms of their job performance (see, for example, Altia central, 2016; Interac, 2016).

Third, students should be given the chance to read and listen to the characteristics, including the strengths and weaknesses, of JTEs and ALTs in English team-taught classes in order to better prepare themselves to participate in the classes, communicate with the teachers and figure out the strategies that they think are best suited for their English learning. The students should also be shown ways in which they could capitalize on the strengths of each teacher and exploit the team teachers' collaboration, inside and outside the classroom. Moreover, their voice should be heard by both JTEs and ALTs so that the team teachers could tailor their classes to students' interests, needs, wishes, and expectations in their particular contexts (Hiratsuka, 2013; Hiratsuka, 2014a; Hiratsuka, 2017).

Last but not least, JTEs and ALTs should hold collaborative professional workshops or engage in teacher research through which they, as researchers, scrutinize their teaching and students' learning by constructing a research plan, obtaining classroom data, being involved in reflective practices and examining the outcome for further cycles (Borg, 2013; Burns, 2005, 2012; Farrell, 2015b). Although we all know that JTEs and ALTs can learn from each other, linguistically, culturally and pedagogically, as far as I am aware there is no such opportunity, at least officially, for them to tap into their teaching partner's expertise (e.g., JTEs' knowledge about their students and Japanese language, and ALTs' English speaking skills and cultural information about their home country) (see Hiratsuka, 2014b; Hiratsuka, 2017; Hiratsuka & Barkhuizen, 2015). Such workshops or teacher research can only be realized if JTEs have more free time than they do now, if ALTs are treated as professionals more than they currently are and if students are included, at least partly, in the endeavours. Since this is a particularly essential point that needs to be recognized and valued by team teachers, students and all the other staff members, the specified time for the workshops or teacher research should be determined and put on display in the weekly timetable at the beginning of the school year.

Conclusion

In this article, I investigated students' perceptions of NESTs (ALTs) and NNESTs (JTEs) in the context of team-taught classes in Japan. The findings of this study, which used multiple qualitative data collection methods, were for the most part congruent with the previous studies on N/NESTs: JTEs as NNESTs were found to be well acquainted with students' language learning and culture and played an imperative role of being a linguistic and psychological bridge, but not as proficient in English; ALTs were viewed to be superior in their English and understanding about target cultures, but lacking knowledge of students' learning backgrounds. A particular addition to the literature from this study is a discussion about how political, cultural and educational contexts in Japan affected the participants' perceptions of NESTs and NNESTs. The Japanese high school educational system, expectations of the local community, teachers' job status, and teachers' hiring processes and contracts all appeared to have contributed to the participants' particular perspectives. The two major themes of the findings and four suggestions in this study may perhaps be obvious to some but less so to others. We should continue in this effort by conducting more empirical research sensitive to team teachers' and their students' circumstances. In particular, studies with different types of student participants from this study—for example, elementary school students, private secondary school students and returnee students in Japan—will help us further facilitate the understanding of the individual lives of N/NESTs (JTEs/ALTs) and their students. To conclude, I would like to emphasize that future research on the topic of N/NESTs should put forth recommendations that aim to capitalize on the advantages and compensate for the shortcomings of NESTs and NNESTs because at the end of the day our primary goal should be centered on the growth and prosperity of language teachers and learners, not on the belittlement or discrimination of them.

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Recent Innovations and Improvements to Feedback and Collaboration Options for English as a Foreign Language Courses

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Abstract: *This study will detail preliminary use of the Google Suite for Education, a recent innovation that vastly improves synchronous and asynchronous opportunities for students and teachers to interact and communicate. In particular, the study will discuss findings from a two-week unit that taught undergraduate students how to design a questionnaire, administer it, and explain their results as part of an academic presentation in a University of the Ryūkyūs' compulsory first-year English as a Foreign Language (EFL) College English Course. Results of the study and an ensuing discussion will be based on the teacher's field notes, teacher and peer evaluations of the group presentations, descriptive statistical results from a fifteen-item questionnaire administered to the students, as well as open-ended student comments solicited at the end of the questionnaire.*

本研究では、Google Suite for Educationの予備使用に関する詳説を行う。Google Suite for Educationとは、学生と教師間の同期型・非同期型の交流とコミュニケーションの機会を大幅に改善した近年の技術革新である。筆者は、Google Suite for Educationを、琉球大学学部1年次の外国語必修科目である「大学英語」で用いた。本研究では特に、アンケートの作成・管理方法とアンケート結果の説明方法を教えた同科目内の学術的プレゼンテーションの一部である2週間のユニットの研究結果を議論する。研究の成果と今後の議論は、教師の実施調査記録や教師と生徒によるグループプレゼンテーションの評価、生徒を対象にした15項目のアンケートの記述的な統計結果、また、アンケート末部の自由コメント欄に基づくものである。

Introduction

The provision of timely feedback about students' language production and the creation of opportunities for students to interact in the target language are critical tasks for English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers, yet these are also some of their most challenging responsibilities. This is especially so in tertiary settings, where class sizes are frequently large and often meet only once a week. Additionally, many universities' curriculum guidelines are demanding more learning outcome results in less time. Guidelines such as the University of the Ryūkyūs Global Citizen Curriculum (URGCC) exhort that the goals of such language classes should transcend the mere instruction of language and incorporate other skills such as critical thinking and the use of information communications technology (ICT).

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This study will detail preliminary use of the Google Suite for Education, a recent innovation that vastly improves synchronous and asynchronous opportunities for students and teachers to interact and communicate. In particular, the study will discuss findings from a four-class/two-week unit that taught undergraduate students how to design a questionnaire, administer it, and explain their results as part of an academic presentation in a University of the Ryūkyūs' compulsory first-year English as a Foreign Language (EFL) College English Course. The College English Course is an introductory course that emphasizes English for academic purposes and has an ambitious number of specific syllabus objectives that were often perceived as challenging to fulfill given the allotted class time. Amongst those objectives is a syllabus component that aims to teach students how to make an academic presentation. The objectives were fairly specific about what was to be taught, but not how, and this seemed like a good opportunity to trial the potential for ameliorated feedback and collaboration in an EFL classroom setting using the Google Suite for Education.

Background and Rationale for the Current Study

Shortly after the World Economic Forum of 2012, the term 'Fourth Industrial Revolution' gained increasing usage to describe the current era (Schwab, 2016). The Fourth Industrial Revolution describes a world where (a) the internet and its users are closely entwined (cyber-physical integration), and (b) cloud computing and 'the internet of things' are pervasive. This nomenclature may seem arcane to some, but it aptly describes the experience of a growing number of people in the world: anyone who (a) owns an internet-capable device, and (b) uses it to connect to social networks such as Line or Facebook, and perhaps (c) uses one device, such as a smart phone, to interface with another device. An example would be somebody who uses their smart phone to check Line or to post to Facebook, and then maybe connects their phone to their car stereo (via Bluetooth) to play music on his/her drive home. For many people, this is the extent of how their device usage qualifies as participating in the Fourth Industrial Revolution. It is largely for personal ends and often with little awareness of the vast changes in which they are participating.

The Fourth Industrial Revolution has been a boon to consumers, but its implications are only beginning to be articulated in the labour market and, perhaps more importantly, the educational institutions where learners acquire the basis of skills that they will use to compete in the workplace. There is a growing mismatch between the skills taught in higher education and the skills young people need to know to seamlessly join the workforce of today (Stewart, 2016). They have to be faster than previous generations, and more adept at numerous skills. They require not only ICT skills but also a host of other abilities that together are often referred to as 21st century competencies. They include improved abilities in areas such as cognitive skills, creativity, communication skills, team work, and perseverance (Collet, Hine & du Plessis, 2015; Soland, Hamilton & Stecher, 2013). Most Japanese youths use ICT and these other skills to a certain extent, however the ends towards which they use them and the degree of sophistication they demonstrate are often significantly different than those required for employment purposes. At least where ICT skills are concerned, Japanese youth are aware of this and reported that they felt themselves to be lacking the basic ICT skills necessary for employment at double the OECD average according to a 2012 Survey of Adult Skills. This rate was the highest in the survey, and double that of the next most dire case (OECD, 2015, p. 124). This is not because of a lack of initiative on the part of government or educational institutions. In 2013 the Japanese Cabinet Secretariat declared its objective for Japan to become the world's most advanced IT nation (Japanese Cabinet Secretariat, 2013). Similar directives and initiatives from the highest levels of government and administration have been urging greater efforts to promote better ICT skills and other 21st century competencies amongst youth in particular. At the University of the Ryūkyūs this has taken the form of the University of Ryūkyūs Global Citizenship Curriculum (URGCC, see Figure 1). These particular guidelines were facilitative when implementing this study. They supported a rationale that was immediately and concretely tied to institutional curriculum goals.

The Google Suite for Education

While the imperative to implement ICT and other 21st-century competencies has frequently been communicated at the highest levels, there has been less concrete discussion as to 'how', and this has led to implementation challenges at a syllabus level. Especially with regards to ICT, it has often been difficult for teachers who do not have access to computer labs to incorporate such components in their syllabi. Previous research has identified the mobile/smart phone as a promising alternative that could be used for certain ICT-based syllabus objectives (MacLean, 2010; MacLean & Elwood, 2013); however, only recently has a full set of productivity applications become available that allow smart phone as well as computer usage. A powerful and free set of productivity tools for classroom collaboration known as the Google Suite for Education (GSE) is increasingly being used in educational settings. It consists of a cloud-based file storage and synchronization service, known as Google Drive, where users can create, store, and share files of almost any format. A key feature of Google Drive is that it enables users to create numerous files with its core applications: (a) Google Docs for word processing, (b) Google Slides for presentations, (c) Google Forms for sur-

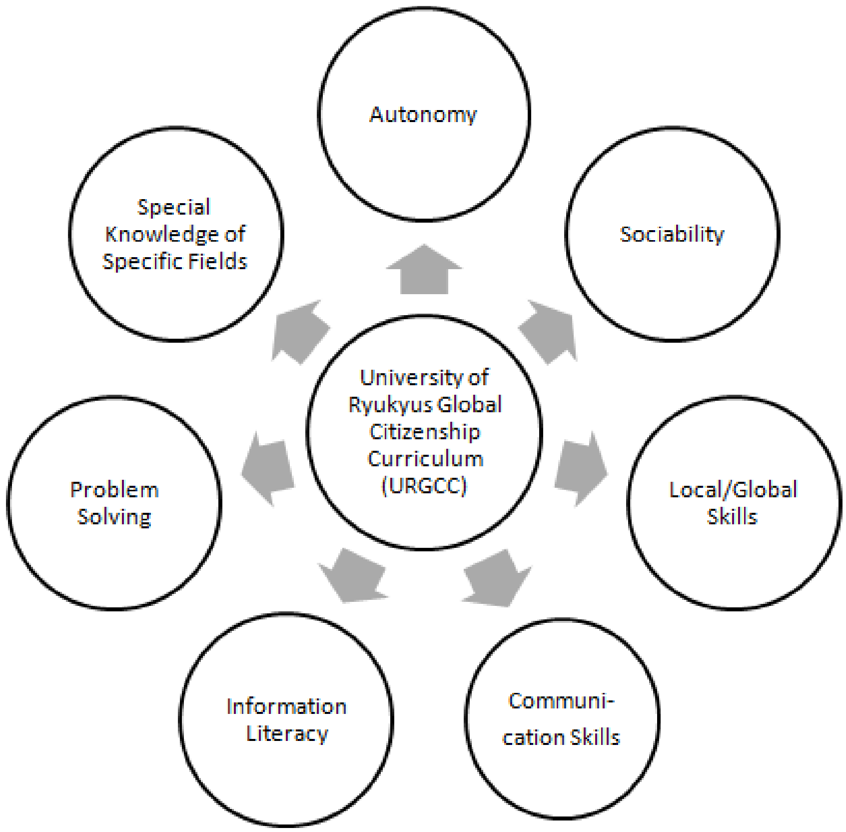

Figure 1. University of the Ryūkyūs' Global Citizenship Curriculum

veys, and (d) Google Sheets for data analysis. Users can share files and communicate using almost any kind of ICT device that can connect to the Internet, including smart phones, tablets, PCs, Macintosh computers, and Chromebooks. Together, these applications make up a powerful set of collaboration tools that have the potential to decrease the amount of time needed to teach a given concept, and increase the breadth of what can be taught given a limited number of class hours. Moreover, where foreign language classes are concerned, these applications represent the possibility to augment the quality of interaction by increasing the volume of feedback available to learners and the timeliness of its delivery. The GSE allows for feedback such that teachers and students can chat within an application, and monitor and comment in real time or asynchronously while changes to their work are being made.

Peer Evaluations

The presentation component of this unit was designed with consideration of the innovations that the GSE has made possible for the transmission of feedback to learners in a timely manner. It was conceived with reference to a set of beliefs that are influenced by social constructivism (Vygotsky, 1978, 1986), and research that asserts that students should be given opportunities to practice twenty-first century skills in the form of communication that involves peer feedback, knowledge sharing, and critical thinking that will enable them to succeed in life and in their future workplaces (O'Brien, Franks, & Stowe, 2008; Pellegrino & Hilton, 2009; Topping & Ehly, 2001). The American Psychological Association's (APA) learner-centered principles for cognitive and meta-cognitive factors influencing learning are particularly relevant to peer assessment and this syllabus unit, for example the 14th principle, which notes that "Setting appropriately high and challenging standards and assessing the learner as well as learning progress—including diagnostic, process, and outcome assessment—are integral parts of the learning process" (APA, 1997). Peer evaluation provides an opportunity for increased self-regulated learning and facilitates social processes that are conducive to a meaning-focused and content learning oriented classroom environment, all the while teaching the use of tools that enable students to seek help from their peers or teachers, work in groups, and engage in purposeful collaboration and feedback (Mitchell & Bakewell, 1995; Newman, 2008). Implicit in this approach is the belief that a new classroom culture can emerge through peer evaluation, one that has the potential to develop learner autonomy (Birjandi & Azad, 2009, Webb, 2016), and deepen students understanding of and appreciation for the evaluation process (Falchikov, 2003; O'Donovan, Price, & Rust, 2008). Until recently it has been difficult to involve a whole class in the evaluation process along the lines envisioned by this survey and presentation unit. The sheer amount of data that would have to be processed would consume an unfeasible amount of time and resources for most teachers. However, if the tools made available by the GSE can successfully be mastered by students, it may be possible that they can serve as a conduit for augmented teacher and peer feedback. As Mun and Lee (2015) have noted, successful implementation depends on how well the

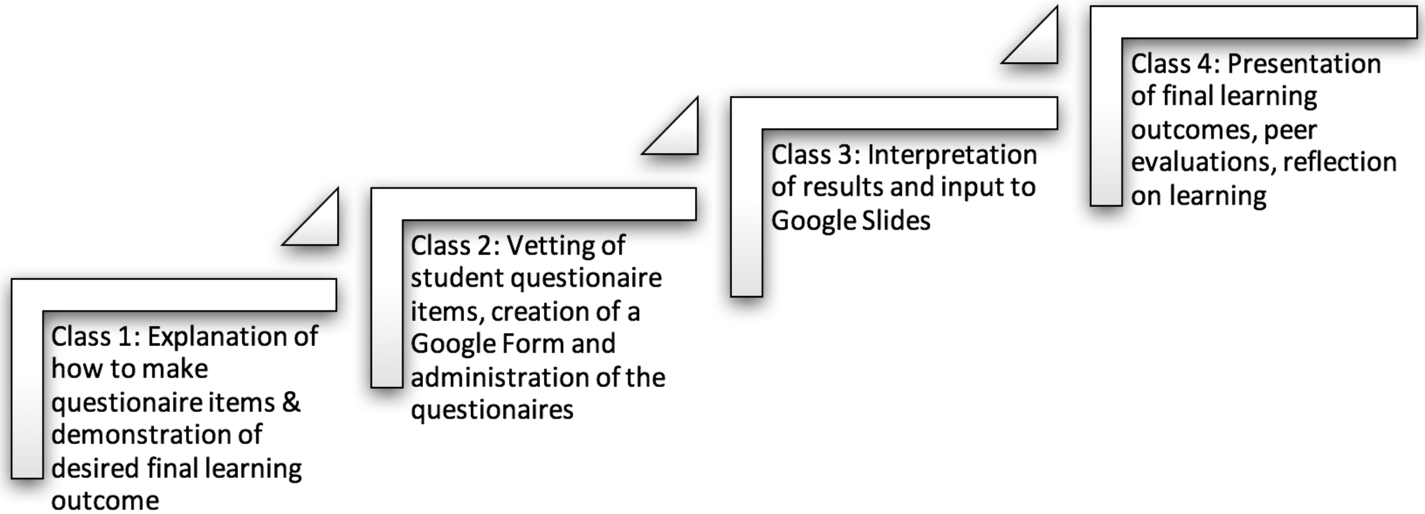

Figure 2. Syllabus objectives by class.

automated response analyses of (in this case) Google Forms can be deployed, as well as how effectively peers exercise judgement during the assessment process. There has been some question as to the reliability of untrained raters, namely, student peers (Weigle, 1978). However, in the domain of ESL written feedback, Matsuno (2009) found that peer-raters were internally consistent and produced fewer bias interactions than self- and teacher-raters. Other researchers have reported no significant difference between learners' peer assessment and teacher assessment (Azarnoosh 2013; Saito & Fujita, 2009). It thus seems possible that students might be more intricately and actively involved in the assessment process through peer evaluation.

With the above in mind, the following study describes and evaluates a syllabus unit that employed recent innovations in order to guide students as to how to deploy and make use of ICT and other 21st-century competencies, notably collaboration and the provision of feedback to each other.

The study will consider two research questions:

(1) Given the relatively short time allowed for this teaching unit (four classes), were students able to effectively learn and use the skills necessary to complete their assignment?

(2) How did students evaluate their learning experience and the effectiveness of the collaborative format of this teaching unit?

Results of the study and an ensuing discussion will be based on the teacher's field notes, teacher and peer evaluations of the group presentations, descriptive statistical results from a fifteen-item questionnaire administered to the students, as well as open-ended student comments solicited at the end of the questionnaire.

Method

Participants

65 learners participated in this initial study, representing four majors and one undetermined (Other Major): English (n = 27, 54.54%), law (n = 2, 3.08%), tourism (n = 19, 29.23%), politics (n = 6, 9.23%), and other (n = 11, 16.92%). There were 34 females (52.31%) and 31 males (47.69%) with an approximate mean age of 19.

Procedure

Students were divided into groups of four and asked to decide a questionnaire topic pertaining to Okinawa Prefecture and to devise two questions each that would elicit information about peoples' attitudes toward their group's chosen topic. They combined their questions into one group Google Document and, following feedback about the effectiveness of their questions and the accuracy of their language use, students were taught to make and administer a questionnaire using Google Forms. Once students had administered the questionnaire, they were taught to analyze their results using Google Forms' Responses to access information such as charts, schematics, and other informatics information pertinent to their area of inquiry. One Google Slides presentation was created for each group in a folder inside a Google Drive and was shared by all class members. Each student was assigned two frames (also known as a slide in PowerPoint) for which they would be required to present and interpret their data using the target language during a group presentation to their class. Students were taught how to take a screenshot of their data and paste it into a frame and how to discuss their results in English. Each group gave a presentation of approximately six minutes, and all students were asked to assign a grade of up to 100% for each group, as well as an assessment regarding their perception of the equity of work distribution within the groups based on the overall quality of the presentation and each members' contribution when presenting. This inquiry took the form of a five-point Likert scale question where one indicated a 'very unequal' perception of each member's efforts and five indicated a 'very equal' perception of each group member's efforts. A Google Form was used to collect these data and the results were anonymous except to the teacher who compiled the student responses. Participants used Macintosh Desktop Pros in one iteration and ACER Chromebooks in another (see Figure 2).

Student Perceptions of the Questionnaire-Making Syllabus Unit

Based on the research questions above, a 15-item questionnaire was used to query students about what they learned and how they perceived the teaching unit. A five-point Likert scale was used for 14 of the questionnaire items, where one indicated 'strongly disagree' and five indicated 'strongly agree". Seven items queried students about what they learned. Seven items inquired about their perceptions of the survey-making syllabus unit, and a final open-ended question asked students to comment about the teaching unit in English or Japanese. These data were subsequently exported to a CSV Excel file and serve as part of the analysis and discussion below.

Results

Student Achievement of Syllabus Objectives

All of the students were able to successfully complete each of the syllabus objectives specified for the unit in four classes. Notably, this included composing English questionnaire items using Google Docs, creating a Google Form for their group and administering their questionnaire to at least ten people, interpreting and inputting their data into Google Slides, and analyzing their results as part of a group presentation using the target language. The components of these assignments roughly corresponded to many 21st-century competencies (Collet, Hine & du Plessis, 2015; Soland, Hamilton & Stecher, 2013) and URGCC goals (see Table 1), and required a formidable range of skills and abilities.

To begin, students were shown an example of what their questionnaire should look like, and taught how to make questionnaire items. They were given some time in class to decide a topic for their group questionnaire, and asked to make two questionnaire items for the following class. Some of the students initially had trouble grasping the concept of Likert-scale items. Instead, they used open-ended 'wh' questions. At this point, the unique facility of the GSE was extremely useful for transmitting feedback. Firstly, students were able to combine their questionnaire items into one Google Document with little difficulty, and thereafter they could all view them at the same time. As well, the teacher was able to open each group Document and observe students as they reviewed the Document and discussed any possible mistakes amongst themselves. This process yielded numerous changes and discussion that indicated meta-awareness of the assignment's objectives and how to use the target language toward such ends. During this process, the teacher had each groups' Document open

Table 1: *Incorporation of URGCC Goals into Syllabus Objectives*

URGCC Goals	Syllabus Objectives: Question-naire	Forms Use	Data Interpretation	Slides Use	Presentations
1. Autonomy	o		o		o
2. Sociability	o				o
3. Local/Global Skills	o		o		o
4. Communication Skills	o	o	o	o	o
5. Information Literacy	o	o	o	o	o
6. Problem Solving	o	o	o	o	o
7. SKSP*	o	o	o	o	o

Note: *SKSP denotes Special Knowledge of Specific Fields.

and gave its members feedback in oral and written form about their English usage as well as the form of their questionnaire items. Such a process would have been largely impossible before the advent of cloud collaboration. It was fairly easy in most cases to make it clear to the students what questionnaire items would not produce quantifiable results without extended analysis, and students were able to quickly make revisions so that all of the final questions were in a form that yielded readily describable results using statistics from Likert-scale questionnaire items. It was also possible to quickly and conveniently view all of the students' work and comment on it because it was available in a shared folder and thus readily available to view synchronously by the teacher and all group members.

The above facility for conveying necessary feedback made it possible in the second class for the teacher to demonstrate how to make a Google Form questionnaire, and to monitor each groups' efforts similarly to the above described process. By creating the questionnaire in a shared folder, monitoring the students, commenting on their work, and giving them feedback in real time the syllabus objectives were greatly facilitated. The Chat and Commenting features of the GSE were demonstrated for this, albeit somewhat sparingly given time constraints. Generally the teacher made verbal comments while sometimes augmenting this with explicit correction of written mistakes, since he was 'shared' to each document with Edit privileges and could make changes as he thought appropriate. There was some variation as to how fast each group was able to complete this part of the assignment, but those who finished quickly were able to proceed to more advanced formatting options, such as specifying a background color, and inserting images. By the end of the class, each group had successfully completed a Google Form questionnaire and administered it to at least ten people outside of their group.

In the final class prior to presentations, the teacher was again able to monitor and convey real-time feedback and comments about each groups' efforts to assemble their Google Slide presentation. Frequent mistakes included capitalization of titles, spelling mistakes, and basic formatting issues. Groups that quickly finished a basic presentation were then able to attempt more advanced formatting features such as adjusting font and color, choosing a background other than the default setting, and inserting images. They were also given brief time to further plan and rehearse their presentations, which they appeared to use with good effect.

Students made their presentations in the final class of this unit, and it was clear from the quality of the presentations as well as student responses to the ensuing questionnaire that completion of each of the presentation syllabus objectives was a success. While doing this, students were able to input peer feedback in a Google Form about each groups' performance which was immediately compiled and subsequently transmitted to the group at the end of the class, along with the teachers' feedback. As such, it appears the concerns expressed by Mun and Lee (2015) regarding students perhaps not being able to effectively use automated polling technology (Google Forms) were absent in this case. Student comments indicate they enjoyed the process and learned many new skills (see Appendix). Many of the comments indicate they derived an appreciation for the evaluation process that is in line with the findings of Falchikov (2003) and O'Donovan, Price, and Rust (2008). Moreover, some of the students' comments articulate a critical awareness and reflection about their learning that is desirable to encourage in further such efforts.

Student-Reported Learning Outcomes

Student responses from the post-unit questionnaire revealed that most of them positively viewed their achievement of the learning objectives for this teaching unit (see Table 2).

Student responses indicated that they achieved a solid understanding of the skills involved in the syllabus objectives, and it seems clear that, in this context, the instruction of ICT skills and English as a

Table 2. *Student-Reported Learning Outcomes*

I learned to…	Descriptive Statistics	
	Mean	*SD*
make a questionnaire	4.35	0.62
use Google Forms	4.45	0.61
interpret data	4.42	0.61
take a screenshot	4.28	0.82
use Google Slides	4.48	0.71
use the GSE Chat and Comment functions	1.98	1.27
present data in English	4.43	0.61

Note: SD = Standard Deviation; GSE = Google Suite for Education foreign language were compatible when using the GSE. One item that somewhat detracts from these positive results was the relatively low level (m = 1.98) of learning students indicated where the use of the GSE's Chat and Comment functions were concerned, albeit the result of this query item had a standard deviation that indicates this was not altogether the case for all participants.

Teacher and Peer Feedback

The analysis of student responses about peer grading indicates they were generally consistent in their grading and the aggregate results closely approximated the teacher's scores for each of the groups (see Table 3).

A majority of students graded the presentations either "A" or "B" which correspond to grades of 90-100% and 80-89.5%, respectively. The teacher's mean grade evaluation for this unit was 86.5%. Peer evaluation behavior in this context therefore upheld the findings of Matsuno (2009), Saito and Fujita (2009), as well as Azarnoosh (2013). The teacher's grades and aggregated student grades were close enough that further use of peer evaluation in this context should be considered. These results thus suggest that peer evaluation is technically possible and students' aggregated results, given a class size of approximately 30-40 students, should be able to serve as a reliable part of the assessment process, or at least a facet that encourages deeper reflection about the learning processes involved in oral presentation contexts.

Student Perceptions of Work Equity

One concern when requiring students to collaborate in groups for an extended number of classes is that the possibility exists whereby some of the group members will not participate in the process for various reasons, and fail to adequately contribute to the overall learning outcome. In this case, student perceptions of the equity of group members' efforts were largely favorable (see Table 4).

Based on students' responses as to the equity of work distribution and effort, as well as the instructor's observations about this, it seems group work for the objectives of this syllabus unit is feasible. Moreover, it is a desirable feature because the amount of time it would otherwise take for each student to individually present their results would be precluded by time constraints and other objectives dictated by the (prescribed) syllabus for this course.

Table 3: Peer Grading Distribution by Letter Grade

Presentation Groups	Peer-Assigned Letter Grades				
	A	B	C	D	n/c
Group 1	27	31	5	1	1
Group 2	32	26	4	0	3
Group 3	43	19	1	0	2
Group 4	41	21	2	1	0
Group 5	33	30	1	0	1
Group 6	37	24	3	0	1
Group 7	43	20	2	0	0
Group 8	36	23	1	0	5
Group 9	33	17	1	0	14
Group 10	28	19	1	0	17
Count	353	230	21	2	44
% of Total	54.31	35.38	3.23	0.31	6.77

Note: n/c = no comments. Students were instructed to select "No Comment" for grades less than "D".

Student Perceptions of the Teaching Unit

Seven criteria were used to assess students' reactions to the questionnaire and presentation unit. Participants indicated a strong enjoyment of this type of activity and an appreciation of the skills they learned, although they were somewhat nervous making their presentations (see Table 5).

Students enjoyed the unit (Q1: 4.37), and liked working in groups (Q2: 4.35). While working in groups they were helped by other members (Q3: 4.46) and, to a slightly lesser though not significant extent, they helped other members of their group (Q4: 4.35). With respect to the knowledge gained as part of the questionnaire and presentation unit, students indicated it would be useful for their future (Q5: 4.31) and they anticipate using the skills they learned again (Q6: 4:51). In spite of the fact that students were somewhat nervous (Q8: 3.9) the overall impression based on student responses is that the questionnaire unit and the use of the GSE was favorably viewed by the students to a large extent, they perceive the value of the skills they were taught, and they plan to use them again.

Limitations of the Current Study

The current study was an initial inquiry into the feasibility of teaching a number of complex skills in a compressed amount of time. It also examined how students would

Table 4: *Student Perceptions of Equity of Work Distribution by Group*

Presentation Groups	Relative Effort				
	Very equal	Equal	Some what	Unequal	Very unequal
Group 1	25	24	12	3	1
Group 2	30	28	5	1	1
Group 3	37	23	5	0	0
Group 4	34	26	3	2	0
Group 5	38	21	4	1	1
Group 6	37	25	2	1	0
Group 7	40	22	2	0	1
Group 8	36	21	5	1	2
Group 9	32	15	14	0	4
Group 10	29	19	13	0	4
Count	338	224	65	9	14
% of Total	52.00	34.46	10.00	1.38	2.15

react to the process. One limitation is that the sample size for this study was fairly small, and caution should therefore be exercised when making any definitive claims without further investigation with a larger sample size. This would allow for more advanced analyses to be deployed, such as many-faceted Rasch measurement. It would also be prudent to undertake a more sophisticated consideration of several other aspects of this study, including long term effects of the treatment and uptake of feedback about linguistic and other skills that were syllabus objectives.

Conclusion

This study set out to explore the feasibility of teaching students a number of English for academic purposes skills in a necessarily short period of time while also deploying 21st-century competencies such as demonstrating effective use of three GSE applications. The rationale was based on dictates of the course syllabus as well as URGCC guidelines. There are a number of policy guidelines from government and upper-university authorities that are attempting to alleviate a growing mismatch between the skills students will need once they enter the workplace and those they currently learn in higher education settings: Skills such as ICT use, collaboration, and the ability to effectively and critically provide peers with feedback about their performance are all essential components for actively participating and succeeding in today's labor market.

In answer to research question number one as to whether students would be able to effectively learn and use the skills necessary to complete their assignment in the relatively short time allowed for this teaching unit, they were decidedly successful. Every student who was present for all four classes was able to satisfactorily attain the syllabus objectives targeted for this unit; specifically, they could compose English questionnaire items using Google Documents, co-create a Google Form for their group, administer their questionnaire to at least ten people, interpret and input their subsequent data into Google Slides, and analyze their results as part of a group presentation using the target language.

As for how students evaluated their learning experience and the effectiveness of the collaborative format of this syllabus unit (research question two), responses were overwhelmingly positive. Students perceived that there was an equitable distribution of effort and work within groups. They enjoyed the questionnaire and presentation unit, albeit they were somewhat nervous to present their results. The students enjoyed working in groups and helped each other in a manner consistent with effective collaboration behavior. Moreover, they indicated that the skills they learned throughout the unit would be useful for their future and that they intend to use them again.

One result that was rather less successful than anticipated was that students generally did not feel they learned to use the Chat and Comment features of the GSE. This is an essential feature for students to learn in order to promote of better interaction and peer feedback, however the short duration of this unit did limit the extent to which students would be able

Table 5. *Student Perceptions of the Questionnaire & Presentation Unit*

Extent that…	Descriptive Statistics	
	Mean	*SD*
I enjoyed this unit	4.37	0.65
I liked working in groups	4.35	0.67
Members in my group helped me	4.46	0.64
I helped members in my group	4.35	0.65
Knowledge gained will be helpful in my future	4.31	0.71
I will use these skills again	4.51	0.59
I was nervous	3.90	0.92

Note: SD = Standard Deviation

to effectively grasp the facility of these features. Future efforts should examine students' proficiency with the skills targeted here in a longer term study. They should also consider long-term uptake of linguistic and skills-based feedback. Finally, more comprehensive measures and analyses of the behaviors examined in this study would be desirable, especially where self-, group-, and peer-evaluations are concerned.

Notes

1. This is a substantially revised version of a study that was initially published in the University of the Ryukyus' in-house journal, the *Ryūdai Review of Euro-American Studies, No. 61*. The original report's intention was to share results with colleagues and solicit collaborators. The author has no commercial interests vested in any of the ICT applications mentioned in this research, and the results herein are quite likely achievable with numerous other widely-available applications.

2. The Appendix contains only a limited sample of the comments learners had about this unit, though they are fully representative of the entire set.

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Appendix

Student Responses to Open-Ended Questions

Everyone spoke English so well I was surprised!!

Thanks to this course, I can use the computer skills. I enjoyed presentation.

I can learn about how to use the google. That is very useful in the future.

We think we did our best for our presentation, so we are satisfied and will accept the result from our teacher and classmates.

I learned to use IT skills in this class. So I can use its skills in other class.

This teaching module is so fun for me:)) Thank you my group members!

I was first nervous to use computer, however, now I have confident to use it!

Thank you for teaching us a lot of things. I want to use the things that I learned here.

Making good questions was difficult. One of my question that I made was a little abstract.

I would like to try to use these skills more.

I think this Google presentation is nice.

I don't speak fluently, but I enjoyed presentation with group members.

Google Forms is so useful

I learned to use Google Forms. It is useful, but I cannot use well yet. I want to practice it.

Presentation is a little difficult, but I enjoyed survey and make our presentation.

I think presentation is useful in the future.

It was fun and I learned a lot from this class.

It was just lack of preparation.

I was nervous, but I enjoyed the presentation.

I enjoyed today's presentations and I want to use computer skill in university life!

I very much enjoyed this presentation and group work.

I enjoyed today's activity because I could learn something I've never heard.

Activities of this class are very important and helpful skills for my future.

I thought we should have made more good slides. And I thought I want to become a person who does not get nervous.

To presentation in English is difficult for me but it was good experience.

About the author: George Robert MacLean, professor at the University of the Ryūkyūs, has taught at primary, junior high, and university levels in both the Japanese and the international school systems, as well as serving as an administrator. His research areas include materials development, mobile-learning, CALL, conversation analysis, and intercultural communications.

Preparing Students for a Debate Festival

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Abstract: *Debate is generally accepted as a beneficial activity (Allen, Berkowitz, & Louden, 1995, 1999; Barfield, 1989; Colbert, 1987; Semlak & Shields, 1977). Informal debate in the form of discussion is a common activity in EFL/ESL classes, but formal debate is rarely done, probably because of its perceived difficulty. This article describes a debate festival project that involves all the second-year students at a junior college in Japan, and focuses on how to prepare students for the debate festival.*
Keywords: formal debate, debate formats, festival

Introduction

The benefits of debate in preparing students for academic classes and teaching the essential critical thinking skills necessary for a good university education are generally accepted. Bellon (2000) reported on various research on the benefits of debate: research that shows that debate improves analysis, delivery, and organization skills (Semlak & Shields, 1977), improves scholastic ability (Barfield, 1989), and increases critical thinking ability (Allen, Berkowitz, & Louden, 1995; Barfield 1989; Colbert, 1987), including an important meta-analysis showing the debate-critical thinking correlation (Allen, Berkowitz, Hunt, & Louden, 1999).

Informal debate is a common activity in EFL/ESL classes, but formal debate is rarely done, perhaps because of a perception that formal debate is too difficult for the majority of students and a lack of confidence on the part of teachers in their ability to teach it. Among teachers who have familiarity with formal debate there is a reluctance to teach it as these teachers know that debate is a complex and complicated activity which takes a lot of time to teach well, and that would take up too much time in a course syllabus. In addition, there is a feeling among many teachers that the determination of "winners" and "losers" does not match with their educational goals of teaching. Whatever the reasons, the teaching of formal debate on a large scale is not usually done. This article describes a debate project that involves all the second-year students at a junior college in Japan, and focuses on how to prepare the students for the debates.

Kluge, D. (2017). Preparing students for a debate festival. *OTB Forum, 8*(1), 65-68.

Background

In 2015, the above-mentioned Japanese junior college, a coordinated course titled Learning Community containing six sections, decided to include a unit on debate that was spread over seven class meetings. This course involves all second-year students so the plan was to involve all 150 students in debate in the Fall semester of the 2016 academic year. Since the Learning Community course is not an English course, the debates were conducted in Japanese. (Debates in English were encouraged and practiced in Discussion in English classes.)

Describing How the Unit Was Created

Briefly, since the focus of this article is on how students were prepared for the debate, two of the six teachers of the course who had experience with teaching debate planned the unit and one of the teachers prepared the explanatory material in Japanese. Since the teachers agreed with Hansen (2007) that when planning a democratic debate unit for all students (as opposed to an elite debate unit suited for a small number of high level students), the format requires "intensive customization," the two teachers created a format that included the flexibility of number of debaters per team of the All Japan High School English Debate Association (n.d.) with the interactive crossfire element of the National Forensics League's public forum format (University of Vermont, n.d.), and modified the speaking times for all speeches to fit the abilities of the students and the requirement of the unit to have two debates during each 90-minute period.

Describing How the Debates Were Conducted

One section debated against another section. This was done three times. Each time the two sections debated a different proposition. There were no designated judges to declare the winners; instead, at the end of each debate the audience and debaters were required as homework to indicate which team won the debates and why they thought so. This non-indication of winners is why we labeled the project a debate festival rather than a debate tournament. For more details see the "Planning a Debate Festival " section (Kluge) of the article "Transformation through Speech, Drama & Debate" (Head, Kluge, Morris, and Rees, 2016).

Preparing the Students

The main purpose of this paper is to show how students were prepared for the debate festival. They were prepared in five different areas:

1. The differences between discussion and debate
2. The format of the debate
3. The basics of logic
4. The language of the debate
5. The issues of the particular debate topics

Each of these areas is discussed below.

Students Learn the Differences between Discussion and Debate

Students were introduced to debate by first distinguishing debate from discussion using the Table 1. The main point was that formal debate, unlike discussion, had a set number of speakers, a set order of speakers, a set task for each speech, with set time limits for each speech.

Table 1. *Differences between Discussion and Debate*

Difference	Discussion	Debate
1 Number of speakers	Not decided	Decided
2 Order of speakers	Not decided	Decided
3 Tasks of speakers	Not decided	Decided
4 Time limits	Not decided	Decided

Students Learn the Modified Debate Format

Students were then introduced to the modified debate format that the course teachers had devised, as seen in Table 2.

Table 2. *Modified Debate Format*

Activity	Time (min)
1. PRO Position	2
2. CON Position	2
3. Planning	2
4. Crossfire	2
5. CON Refutation	2
6. PRO Refutation	2
7. Planning	2
8. Crossfire	2
9. Planning	2
10 Grand Crossfire	6
11. Planning	2
12. PRO Summary	2
13. CON Summary	2
TOTAL	**30**

The PRO Position speech required the speaker to state the team's position on the debate topic and show two benefits to the position. In the same way, the CON Position speech required the speaker to state the team's position on the debate topic and show two disadvantages to the PRO position.

As can be seen in the table, no individual speaker was required to speak longer than two minutes. The Planning parts of the debate was where debaters could consult with other members of her team or could prepare for upcoming speeches with the help of teammates. There were four Planning sessions of two minutes each interspersed throughout the debate. The Crossfires were interactive free discussion sessions between the two speakers who had just spoken, and the Grand Crossfire involved free discussion among all the debaters. The Refutation speeches required students to debate what previous speakers of the opposite team had stated. Summary speeches summarized the debate and explained why the speaker's team had won the debate. The entire debate was 30 minutes long and was facilitated by a timekeeper and moderator. Students were provided with a handout that laid out the responsibilities of each speaker for each speech. Students practice the format and the specific tasks during the first four class meetings of the project.

Students Learn Basics of Logic

Some time was spent on the teaching of basic logic and fallacies, as shown in Table 3. In addition, other types of logic and fallacies (e.g., bandwagon, appeal to authority, misleading statistics) were taught, depending on the teacher.

Table 3. *Examples of Logic and Fallacies Taught*

Logic or Fallacy	Definition
Causality	*Factor A causes effect G*
Alternate Causality	*Not factor A, but factor B causes effect G*
Multiple Causality	*(Not just factor A, but factors B, C, D, E, and F cause effect G*
False Dichotomy Fallacy	*Not just item A or item B, but there exists a continuum or other choices*
Arguing ad hominem Fallacy	*Attack issues, not people*

Students Learn Language

Examples of the language students should use were provided through a handout of language to use in the project, URLs of transcripts of debates, and URLs of sample debates. Students practiced using this language in practice speeches and practice debates.

Students Learn Issues

As was mentioned before, there were three different debate topics, or resolutions:

1. Resolved: The Japanese government should establish a 10,000yen fine for citizens who do not vote in public elections (National Association of Debate in Education, 2011).
2. Resolved: The Japanese government should abolish the temporary worker system (National Association of Debate in Education, 2008).
3. Resolved: The Japanese government should increase the number of skilled foreign laborers (National Association of Debate in Education, 2014).

These resolutions came from Japanese junior high school and high school debate sites (see References), and were deemed appropriate because they were developed for beginner debaters, which fit the profile of the students in the debate festival project.

Students divided themselves into three large groups, one for each resolution, and each large group divided itself into two sub-groups, one PRO and one CON. Each large group studies the relevant sites for their resolution.

In their large groups and sub-groups students practice what they should say about the issues, what the other side might say, and how to respond.

Conclusion

This article explains how one tertiary institution implemented a debate project where all second-year students participated. The reflections of the students written after each debate show that students both enjoyed and appreciated the benefits of the debate festival project. The lack of judges required students to decide for themselves who won each debate, thereby enhancing the learning available to students. It was a relatively long project, but it demonstrated that democratic debate, when appropriately set up and when students are adequately prepared, allows all students to reap the benefits of debate.

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About the author: David Kluge, Nanzan University, has been involved in debate for over 45 years as a debater, coach, and teacher. He is the founding coordinator of the Speech, Drama, & Debate SIG. His interests also include composition, oral communication, and materials development.

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 (now the Center for Global Communication) 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. Articles in this section undergo double blind peer review; please consult http://www.otbforum.net for a detailed explanation of the peer review process.

Language Learning & Teaching deals with classroom advice and tips.

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

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).

Technology 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.

Outside the Box: A Multi-Lingual Forum
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, informative abstracts (containing selected results) 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 2016. 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
Volume 8, Issue 1
Autumn, 2017

Articles

Language Learning and Teaching

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