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Foreword

This special edition of *Asian EFL Journal* brings together a wide range of papers from various Asian contexts in which the broad concept of CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) is applied. CLIL is taken as an umbrella term for the “dual focused aims” (Marsh, 2002, p. 2) in curricula where language and content are combined. Frequently synonymous with terms such as content-based instruction, bilingual teaching and dual-language programs, CLIL is informed by developments in immersion education in Canada, studies into bi (and pluri)lingualism in Europe, and the spread of English-medium instruction worldwide. With such historical diversity in mind, this edition attempts to illustrate the current theoretical and practical concerns of CLIL in Asian contexts.

The **Research Articles** section commences with Fan-Wei Kung’s study into English-medium instruction in Taiwan at the tertiary level. Tylor Burrows investigates a training program for Water Resources Management in the Mekong River Basin. Raphiq Ibrahim, Mila Schwartz, Janina Kahn-Horwitz and Mark Leikin then explore bilingualism in L2 learning in the Israeli context. This is followed by Derya Bozdoğan and Buket Karlıdağ’s case of CLIL practice in the Turkish university. Jane Chee Ling Tsoi’s study turns to an undergraduate Business Communication course in Hong Kong. For the final two articles, both from Japan, Richard Pinner looks at authenticity of Purpose in CLIL, and Yuki Yamano at a Japanese Primary School.

The **Teaching Articles** section presents papers with a more practice-driven focus and opens with Rining Wei’s study into Chinese-English Bilingual Education in China. Sean Gay then investigates the development of identity and self in SLA. Glen Toh’s work addresses the growth of EAP in Japan in light of moves towards more EMI. Linda Hanington, Anitha Devi Pillai and Kwah Poh Foong present their work into digital storytelling in Singaporean pre-service teacher training. Percival Santos illustrates the application of CLIL in teaching anthropology at Japanese undergraduate level. Philip Brown looks at vocabulary instruction in a medical English CLIL Course. Finally, Takashi Uemura investigates the implementation of CLIL with TOEIC preparation.

The next part of this edition represents a new section for the journal, **Curriculum Contexts**. Thanks are extended to Howard Brown, a colleague at the University of Niigata Prefecture, who suggested that a wide Asian readership may not be yet aware of the diverse contexts in which CLIL is applied. To meet this need, this section attempts to represent this diversity, rather than present a definite body of work for the region. With studies of curricula from teacher training programs, secondary schools, and universities from various contexts, it starts with an overview by Percival Santos of how content is integrated in an EAP program. Thomas Lockley illustrates how CLIL is used to teach history. Leo West's curriculum adopts a CLIL approach for Environmental Management. Darrell Wilkinson and Raymond Yasuda then describe a three-year economics program. Madoka Kawano, Eric Skier, Fumiko Takeuchi, Masako Horiuchi and Toshio Kaneko turn to the study of pharmacy through authentic English materials. Chad Godfrey outlines a CLIL Curriculum in a medical university. Bethany Iyobe and Jia Lia critique an English-medium economics course. Gretchen Clark investigates a lower secondary school CLIL program. Miao Yang and Zhongfang Zhang's study describe the development of academic competencies in a medical course. Stefanie Pillai and Angela Satomi Kajita's study explains the English for Law curriculum. Julie Riddleberger outlines primary school CLIL and teacher training. Nathan Ducker describes ethnographic research projects, and finally Paul Corrigan returns to a description of a teacher education program.

Completing this special edition is a book review by Greg Rouault of Lena Heine's *Problem Solving in a Foreign Language: A Study in Content and Language Integrated Learning.*

We hope you enjoy reading this special CLIL edition of the journal.

John Adamson, Ed.D.

Senior Associate Editor

Asian EFL Journal

University of Niigata Prefecture, Japan

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The More the Merrier? Bilingualism in an Academic Perspective: Exploring the Implementation of English-medium Instruction in Taiwanese Tertiary Education

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Bio Data

Fan-Wei Kung has been teaching ESL/EFL in the US and Taiwan for more than seven years. He is currently a researcher of TESOL & Applied Linguistics at Queen's University Belfast, UK. His research interests include Bilingual Education, Second Language Acquisition, TESOL methods and Applied Linguistics.

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of English-medium instruction in the context of Taiwanese tertiary EFL and content area education. Due to the prevalence of globalization, English has gradually become the only language of instruction in academia, especially in Asia such as Taiwan. It is thus believed that this English only policy would greatly benefit students' L2 development as well as content knowledge acquisition. However, this article claims that English-medium instruction could be ineffective and even frustrating for students without professional teacher training programs. There were 104 students participated in this study at a university in northern Taiwan. The data were collected from participants taking the course for 18 weeks, including students' Pre-questionnaires and an institutional listening & speaking test at the beginning, and Post-questionnaires, a semi-structured interview together with a final institutional listening & speaking test at the end. The results indicated that students perceived and experienced the English-medium EFL and content area instruction differently with various learning outcomes and attitudes. Also, instructors were found to be of great importance to students' learning results without any exception. Overall, this study not only provides empirical evidence that English-medium instruction is not always effective for ESL/EFL students without proper teacher training programs, but also sheds light on what policy makers and language teachers need to consider for creating a more effective and student-friendly English learning environment.

Key words: bilingual education, English-medium instruction, tertiary education, L2 proficiency, teacher training program

Introduction

Globalization in the context of Taiwanese EFL education

As the world becomes smaller while the technology advances, being able to speak English fluently has become a prerequisite to a successful employment opportunity, especially in Asia where various commercial activities with North America have not been more frequent in the past decades. Globalization has given us more access to diverse resources not only financially, but also linguistically as well as educationally. Globalization is also a complex phenomenon with positive and negative social impacts including economics, culture, identity, politics, and technology (Block & Cameron, 2002). Therefore, the emergence of a world language is a necessary phenomenon for global citizens to communicate with each other with more convenience. It is the same in Taiwan where the global acceptance of the English language has gotten its place from as early as three-year-olds in kindergartens to public servants working for the government who are assessed regularly for their English proficiency by taking several standardized tests. It thus shows the importance of English learning in Taiwan, and also how it is taught in the context of EFL learning on the island. Seeing the trends, Taiwan's government also started promoting English learning by introducing a local English language standardized test (General English Proficiency Test, commonly known as GEPT in Taiwan with elementary, intermediate, and advanced levels) for the general public almost a decade ago, and incorporating English listening comprehension into the College Entrance Exam in 2011 aimed at improving high school students' listening and possibly speaking skills. Similar phenomenon can also be found in Taiwan's tertiary education where many universities hope or require instructors to teach content areas in English for better international image and ranking in the world. It is indeed very difficult for the general public to get by without knowing English these days.

The more the merrier?

Because of its traditional English-teaching style being grammar-oriented from as early as the introduction of the first version of TOEFL PBT for students applying to schools in North America several decades ago, Taiwanese students have long been used to learning English passively as well as monotonously (Kung, 2012). Therefore, it seems logical for Taiwan's government to reverse its learning environment by having more resources including lengthening the mandatory EFL education from elementary school, making English one of the official subjects for national exams, and increasing the scholarship candidates to study abroad to cultivate more citizens with broader worldview in the future. Apparently, the trend of English learning has not been stronger in Taiwan.

However, the "pro-English phenomenon" in Taiwan does not come without any controversy. Many parents and teachers have found that sending children to an English-medium or bilingual school does not necessary reflect their higher English proficiency levels. In reality, it even becomes a dilemma for parents with young children thinking about enrolling in an English-medium school before their Chinese language has fully developed. Learning in an English-medium context seems like a plus for many EFL learners in Taiwan, but uncertainty still remains as to when and where this should take place. Also, current research regarding Taiwanese EFL students' learning experiences, attitudes, and improvements in the context of an English-medium instruction has been relatively scant partly because English is only taught as a foreign not a second language on the island.

Thus, this study aims to investigate Taiwanese EFL college students' attitudes and perceptions toward the English-medium instruction teaching content areas and EFL learning in schools. With that said, the present study has several research questions as follows:

1. Whether English-medium instruction can be used to boost Taiwanese EFL students' learning motivation?
2. Whether English-medium instruction can be used to successfully improve Taiwanese EFL learners' English listening and speaking skills?
3. Whether English-medium instruction can be used as an effective tool for teaching content areas in the context of Taiwanese EFL education as far as students are concerned?

Literature review

Rationales of successful bilingual education

With the tide of globalization, it is unavoidable for the English language to become the official language in several non English-speaking countries such as Singapore and the Philippines in Southeast Asia. Though other Asian countries still regard English as a foreign language, the ripple effect can still be felt as the pressure to catch up is only getting more intense. Coleman (2006; p.4) refers this phenomenon as the “Microsoft effect” indicating that once a medium gets a dominant market share, it becomes less and less practical to apt for another share, and the dominance is therefore reinforced. Beacco & Byram (2003; p.52) use another metaphor: “a self-reinforcing upward spiral operates just in favor of English as the first foreign language in almost all educational systems.” Kachru (1996) even claims that English is the only language that can prepare future students for an international career in a globalizing world. Seeing its worldwide prevalence, the English language has contributed to the consistent growth and development of bilingual education around the globe. The popularity of the concept of using a target language as the medium of instruction to teach academic subject knowledge originated from the famous French Canadian immersion program, where Anglophone students learn their L2 (French) through its use as the medium of instruction instead of just a language subject and achieve the desired French proficiency as well as good academic results (Johnson & Swain, 1997).

In addition, research also reveals that second language acquisition is likely to be more successful when the target language is learned not only as an independent school subject, but also used as the medium of teaching in authentic acts of communication (Swain, 1986). Swain (1999) continues to reiterate that the importance of integrating language learning with content learning cannot be overemphasized. When learners use the L2 to acquire subject knowledge, they are faced with tasks of language communication in classrooms, which may involve communicative language use where the user’s attention is focused on meaning rather than on linguistic structure (Nunan, 1989). The other prominent example is the bilingual education system in Hong Kong, where English has been used as the main medium of instruction originated from the British colonial rule in 1841 (Lu, 2002). Though Swain (1986) warns that the second language should not be used as the main medium of instruction with the expectation that subject matter achievement will be satisfactory until a basic or intermediate level of second language proficiency has been reached, empirical studies (Beacco & Byram, 2003) have shown a consistent and strong relationship between

English proficiency and the amount of English that schools used as the medium of instruction (Lo & Chan, 1985).

The more the merrier dilemma

In the global debates on English as an international lingua franca or as killer language, the use of English language as medium of instruction in various educational systems has raised increasing concerns at the same time (Coleman, 2006). The English only movement also leads to several serious consequences as research suggests. The most noteworthy example was the term "language death" coined and discussed by Salminen (1999; p.3), Crystal (2000), Tsunoda (2003) and Ostler (2005). Seeing that English has gotten more prevalent in all educational systems all over the world, the perception that the English language gains from the extinction of others has contributed to its being portrayed as a killer language described by (Price, 1984), and the dominant predator *Tyrannosaurus Rex* (Swales, 1997). To make matters worse, Skutnabb-Kangas (2001) even claims that the spread of English leads to the danger of almost 90% of existing languages over the next century if the focus is on English only in various educational settings; thus, some apocalyptic terms such as languages of today are being murdered and buried are being coined to show the adverse consequences of English only propaganda.

This trend can also be felt in higher education (HE) around the world as the adoption of English in HE further advances its global influence (Coleman, 2006). According to empirical studies, almost every college student in Europe is learning English, and it is also the most widely taught language in all countries with stronger and more dominant position from primary to tertiary education (Crystal, 2004). For instance, Graddol (1997) even points out that one of the most significant educational trends worldwide nowadays is the teaching of a growing number of courses such as science and engineering in universities through the medium of English showing better international image and ranking. He also adds that part of the reason of this phenomenon is that English-speaking graduates many extend the language to social use after entering the workforce, and pass it on to their future generations, as it is a distinguished marker of social privilege in many countries (Graddol, 1997). This is also true in Taiwan where being able to speak English fluently and accurately with an American accent almost guarantees a better job opportunity, which is the reason why many parents in Taiwan are doing their best to send their children to bilingual schools with almost all English-medium instruction to boost their competitive edge in the future (Kung, 2012). Universities in Taiwan have also launched various

English programs aimed at recruiting not only more local, but also foreign students. As can be seen in other Asian countries such as Hong Kong and China where more English-taught programs have been launched for attracting more international students in the past ten years. Why has this trend become so popular in Asia? Kurtan (2004) explains that the recruitment of international students and international staff, which English facilitates, leads to enhanced institutional prestige, greater success in attracting research and development funding, and enhanced employability for domestic graduates. The other angle is the fact that English is the only dominant language of academic publication, as the research which teachers cite in today's classrooms is increasingly in English, not only in sciences but also across the disciplinary panoply (Hoberg, 2004). As a result, the powerful and negative impact of the English language on HE has only gotten worse in Taiwan.

Bilingual education and medium of instruction in Hong Kong

Even though Hong Kong had long been an avid advocate of its English-medium instruction in the early 1970s, a serious problem still emerged and was later magnified by the introduction of nine years' free mandatory education in the late 1970s, causing a fundamental change in classroom practices in most schools in the traditionally English-medium stream (Cheng, 1993). Lu (2002) even asserts that even though English had long been the means of instruction in Hong Kong for a while, students' general language competence in both English and Chinese has been perceived to be on the decline. Hence, a policy was mandated by the government that 307 government-aided secondary schools in Hong Kong were required to adopt mother-tongue teaching with only 114 schools allowed to continue teaching in English because of their previous academic achievement in 1998 (Hong Kong Department of Education, 1997). Though the rule did not come without controversy as parents and teachers fought for maintaining English-medium instruction, the government directly stated that the reason why students could not receive their education in English was the mixed code of English and Chinese used in class, which led to students' overall low English proficiency and was regarded as the major obstacle to students' language improvements (Hong Kong Department of Education, 1989).

Meanwhile, research also seems to support such assumption that teaching using mother-tongue can facilitate ESL/EFL learners' language development in the long run. Some prominent examples include Halliday (1999), Chan (1991), Siu & Mak (1989), So (1989), and Lo (1991) whose hypothesis suggests that mother-tongue education can best serve students' needs for acquiring a second or foreign language, and it does not hinder students'

English proficiency in the case of Hong Kong. Furthermore, Krashen (1999) also highlights the importance of using students' L1 in successful bilingual education as it gives students more exposure to knowledge and literacy. To be precise, English–medium instruction would not be effective before ESL/EFL students' L1 proficiency has fully developed (Gibbons, 1982). Therefore, it seemed to be a vicious circle if Hong Kong's bilingual education was not stopped for students' language development.

Consequently, this study was devised to investigate the English-medium instruction in the context of Taiwanese EFL education with the purpose of examining its effectiveness, appropriateness, and values not only in EFL instruction, but also lessons of content knowledge which can be seen at most universities in Taiwan.

Methodology

Participants and assessments

All participants in this current study were non English-majors at a university in northern Taiwan enrolling in a mandatory freshmen English course. There were 104 students in total in two classes with the same instructor in the same school year: 70 males and 34 females; 52 and 52 for each class. Also, all of them had been assessed by the university before enrollment and this course was leveled high-intermediate English compared with elementary and intermediate levels at the same time. According to the university, students enrolling in the high-intermediate level are expected to get 700-800 on TOEIC. They are also expected to understand everyday English conversation and have the ability to describe their feelings. In addition, in order to ensure students' improvements, another Pre-test, adapted from TOEIC listening and speaking components, was administered to assess their English listening and speaking competence. Regarding the format of the Pre- and Post-assessments, 50 multiple choice questions were administered for listening comprehension and 10 open-ended questions for speaking test. As for the listening assessment, participants listened to a variety of questions and short conversations recorded in English, then gave answers based on what they had heard. There were around 30 minutes in total for the listening assessment with four different components: photographs, question-response, conversations, and short talks. Scores on the institutional listening test were thus determined by the number of correct answers, which was later converted to a scaled score from 1 to 100 by a contracted English learning and testing institute in northern Taiwan. According to that institute, validity of scores is used only to measure a test-taker's English proficiency at the time a test is administered as English language skills may improve or decline over time. Therefore, a score report will not be recognized or reissued after two years since taking the test.

In addition, the speaking assessment administered in this study was designed to provide more detailed information about language ability of speakers across a range of English proficiency. There were 10 questions in total including read a text aloud, describe a picture, respond to questions, propose a solution, and express an opinion. The evaluation criteria according to the institute include a test-taker's pronunciation, intonation and stress along with grammar, vocabulary, and cohesion. Special emphasis is also on relevance as well as completeness of content. In terms of the grading process, questions 1-10 were rated on a scale of 0-5 with the sum of the ratings later converted to a scaled score of 0 to 100. Based on the scores, five proficiency levels were provided including advanced, high intermediate, intermediate, elementary, and finally limited. In order to ensure fair and reliable results, the institute utilized multiple raters with professional TESOL training to score the speaking assessment to ensure a level of fairness that traditional one-on-one interviews cannot provide. According to the institute, all test responses are sent through a secure online system before they are graded by certified assessors, who are also monitored throughout the process to ensure safety. Moreover, only a two-year period for score recognition is also in place for score validity.

The length of this course was 18 weeks with three hours per week. All participants were required to purchase a textbook for this course by the instructor (also the researcher), along with several supplementary handouts given in class weekly. All participants were asked to fill out both Pre- and Post-questionnaires eliciting their self-assessed English listening and speaking skills (comprehension and fluency), motivations (passive or active), attitudes (learning interests), perceptions (beliefs and opinions), and experiences of leaning English and other subjects on campus together with a semi-structured interview and final English listening & speaking assessment, similar to the Pre-test, at the end of this study. As for the English instructors at this university, they are all professionals who have received comprehensive TESOL training with at least a master's degree locally or abroad. The instructor in the current study also acted as a researcher.

Procedures

Regarding the means of instruction in this study, all participants were informed that this freshmen English course would be conducted in English without any exception. Participants were all required to ask questions and talk to each other in English in class only. Some contents of this course such as grammar analysis, reading strategy teaching, and writing feedback were all conducted in English for 18 weeks. During the study, reading and writing were the main focus because of school's policy; teachers were also encouraged to teach listening and speaking if time was allowed. A typical reading instruction in English for this study was composed of several parts as follows.

To begin with, all participants were given a 450-word reading passage with several questions at the end. Students were required to read the questions first and find out the answers on their own first for around 5 minutes, and the instructor (also the researcher) would wrap up by eliciting their feedback about the main ideas or topic of the reading. Participants were informed to underline the main ideas of the passage while they were reading and later write them down or share with each other in groups (two or three people in a group assigned by the instructor in class), which lasted for approximately 10 minutes with reading and discussion in total.

Secondly, the instructor would begin the reading instruction right after the discussion was finished. The passage was explained in English sentence by sentence including vocabulary and grammar analysis. Other related words such as synonyms and antonyms were also included and highlighted in class with several example sentences afterward. One special feature in the vocabulary instruction was that participants were asked to break the words into several syllables not only to help them concentrate, but also memorize new vocabulary words more effectively. This correctly corresponds with previous research suggesting that learning English vocabulary through syllables could have faster learning outcomes (Kung, 2012). This strategy was also used to ensure students' pronunciation and listening competence in the future. The entire teaching time was about 50-60 minutes depending on students' understanding.

Thirdly, the instructor would check the answers with students after the instruction was finished. Some related vocabulary in the questions would also be highlighted along with some examples again. The entire instruction would be wrapped up by a discussion focusing on participants' feedback and reflections on the topic that had just been taught. In general, one or two questions were taken from the reading passage for discussion, and every student was required to talk to their group members to whom they were previously assigned at the beginning. The contents of each class varied over the course of this study (18 weeks); however, the medium of instruction remained still: English. Some reading materials used in this course included articles from Reader's Digest Asian Edition, Newsweek, and some appropriate articles taken from several popular ESL textbooks. Some current news articles were also included based on students' needs and interests. Similarly, the writing instruction was conducted in English with occasional model essay analysis, basic writing steps such as the idea of paragraphs and conclusion, along with the regular timed essay writing in class.

Instruments

Both qualitative and quantitative analyses were conducted by the Pre- and Post-questionnaires eliciting participants' experiences, self-assessed English listening and speaking skills, motivations, attitudes, and feedback before and after this study. At the same time, students' Pre- and Post-test scores were also analyzed, followed by a final semi-structured interview with each one of them at the end of this instruction. Some items in the survey included their interests in learning through the English-medium instruction not only in an EFL class, but also a regular class where they learned other subjects such as Information Management, International Trade Theory & Practice, and Economics. Others also included how they perceived the English-medium instruction used on campus for their overall English proficiency (see Appendices A and B). All responses and feedback were recorded verbatim and analyzed under every participant's consent. Owing to the fact that all participants in this study were college students (freshmen and some sophomores) over the age of 18, a Participant Consent Form was thus used for each student for their authorized permission before this study commenced.

The statistical significance of the descriptive statistical data was analyzed using the paired samples *t*-test for the Pre- and Post-tests, and paired *t*-test for the Pre- and Post-questionnaires. All data were processed using the statistical software package, SPSS17 (Chicago, IL, USA). The level of statistical significance was set to a P value less than 0.05.

Results and Discussion

From the first research question whether English-medium instruction can be used to boost Taiwanese EFL students' learning motivation and the Pre- and Post-questionnaires (a five-point Likert scale asking students to respond to the statements with agreement or disagreement) eliciting participants' motivation, attitudes, and experiences over the course of 18 weeks, it was clearly evidenced that students generally felt more motivated, active, and interested in learning and speaking English. From question one: I am interested in listening and speaking English, and question two: I am motivated, active, and interested in learning English; the mean scores in the Pre-questionnaires (question 1, M= 2.56; question 2, M= 2.17) were lower than those in the Post-questionnaires (question 1, M= 3.77;

question 2, *M*= 3.52). From the analysis, question 1's *p*-value was .000 along with question 2's .000; both of which were less than .000(*P*< .001). This thus implied that the participants were significantly more interested, motivated, and active in learning and speaking English after the instruction.

From the final semi-structured interview, more than 70% of participants (50 males and 24 females out of 104) believed that English-medium instruction could motivate their interests and experiences of their EFL learning on campus. They also noted that learning English in English gives them first-hand opportunity to get used to the language in class, and it made them study harder just to catch up and understand more in another language. Simply put, the results showed that English-medium instruction could strengthen students' learning motivation and interests positively at the college level in this study. The statistical data are illustrated as follows:

Table 1. Comparison of the participants' interests and motivation of learning English before and after the English-medium EFL instruction

Question	Number	Mean	SD	*t*	*p*
1 I am interested in listening and speaking English					
Pre-questionnaire	104	2.56	1.018	5.588	.000*
Post-questionnaire	104	3.77	1.059		
2 I am motivated, active, and interested in learning English					
Pre-questionnaire	104	2.17	0.879	7.400	.000*
Post-questionnaire	104	3.52	1.244		

*p< .001

In order to address the second research question regarding participants' English listening and speaking improvements over the course of 18 weeks, questions three, four, five and six were designed to assess their self-assessed improvements along with both the Pre- and Post-tests that were used to assess students' progress more accurately. To begin with, questions three and four were used to valuate participants' confidence in English listening and speaking. From the surveys, there was a significant difference between the Pre- and Post-questionnaires in the participants' response to both questions three (*p*= .000) and four (*p*= .000) with p-value less than 0.00 (*P*<0.01). The mean scores from question three and four in the Post-questionnaires were 3.90 and 4.21, which were higher than the scores in the Pre-questionnaire at 2.21 and 2.87. In other words, with both *p*-value under 0.01 and the higher mean scores at the end, it is thus possible to interpret that students were mostly satisfied with the English-medium EFL instruction, and their self-assessed English listening and speaking improvements were also positive. Their confidence in both listening and speaking had been strengthened at the same time. The statistical data are shown as follows:

Table 2. Comparison of the participants' self-assessed English listening and speaking before and after the English-medium EFL instruction

Question	Number	Mean	SD	*t*	*p*
3 I am confident in my English listening comprehension					
Pre-questionnaire	104	2.21	0.750	10.058	.000*
Post-questionnaire	104	3.90	1.225		
4 I am confident in speaking English					
Pre-questionnaire	104	2.87	1.048	8.681	.000*
Post-questionnaire	104	4.21	0.957		

$*p < .001$

Then, similar results could also be found from the institutional listening and speaking tests where participants showed substantial improvements over the course of 18 weeks. The *t* test for students' listening comprehension revealed a considerable difference at .000 ($p<.001$) with the mean score enhancing from 78.63 to 84.25 at the end. On the same note, the *t* test for participants' speaking skills also indicated that there was a significant difference at .000 ($p<.001$) on the institutional speaking test with the mean scores increasing from 78.43 to 81.64. Based on the results from both the Pre- and Post-questionnaires, it is thus possible to maintain that students' actual listening and speaking skills had been strengthened positively, and this also corresponded with what they previously believed on the surveys that English-medium EFL instruction could be effective in their L2 acquisition before the Post-test was administered. The statistical data can be seen as follows:

Table 3. Comparison of participants' listening proficiency before and after the English-medium EFL instruction

Institutional Listening Test	Number	Mean	SD	*t*	*p*
Pre-test	104	78.63	5.104	76.15	.000*
Post-test	104	84.25	5.249	104.12	

**p*< .001

Table 4. Comparison of participants' speaking proficiency before and after the English-medium EFL instruction

Institutional Speaking Test	Number	Mean	SD	*t*	*p*
Pre-test	104	78.43	5.104	84.33	.000*
Post-test	104	81.64	5.249	79.51	

**p*< .001

Likewise, when asked about their self-assessed English proficiency, most participants thought that their overall English skills including reading, writing, listening, and speaking had improved learning through the English-medium EFL instruction for 18 weeks. This could be found from question five: I have control over the English language when I need to use it. The mean score was 2.17 in the Pre-questionnaire and rose noticeably to 3.33 in the Post-questionnaire, showing their self-assessed English proficiency had increased with a *p*-value at .000 ($p < .001$). In addition, many participants also expressed their positive feelings and experiences after learning English in English because it is not common for them on campus these days when most teachers still prefer to teach in Chinese when explaining complicated sentences and grammar structures. Meanwhile, the *t* test for question six: I like to speak English; revealed that most students felt more willing to speak English given the English-medium EFL learning environment with the mean scores rising substantially from 2.54 to 3.96. The *p*-value was also at .000 ($p < .001$), indicating students' preference and willingness to speak English freely when it is necessary. From the interview, many of them also appreciated learning English through English as it gave them more time and opportunities to think in English. The statistical data for questions five and six are illustrated as follows:

Table 5. Comparison of the participants' self-assessed English proficiency before and after the English-medium EFL instruction

Question	Number	Mean	SD	*t*	*p*
5 I have control over the English language when I need to use it					
Pre-questionnaire	104	2.17	.734	8.689	.000*
Post-questionnaire	104	3.33	.785		
6 I like to speak English					
Pre-questionnaire	104	2.54	.999	7.782	.000*
Post-questionnaire	104	3.96	1.204		

$*p < .001$

Furthermore, the following responses were recorded directly from the interview about their self-assessed English improvements and learning experiences under every participant's consent.

I think learning English in English is fun and it makes me know how much I still need to learn. (Participant 4)
My listening comprehension has improved a great deal after this class because it trains me to be a good listener. (Participant 27)

I really enjoyed learning English through English on campus because it has been very helpful and useful for me. (Participant 39)

Learning English in English in school is like going to school in the US without spending so much money. (Participant 54)

I think my listening and speaking skills have improved because of this course. (Participant 59)

Though it was hard for me at the beginning, I still like this class because it gave me a chance to get used to the English environment for three hours per week. (Participant 74)

I hope there will be more English classes taught in English like this because it's a good way to really improve our English proficiency in Taiwan. (Participant 84)

I don't know why exactly but I like to listen and speak English more every day after this class; I think I will try to listen to English every day to keep improving my English. (Participant 88)

Speaking English is no longer something difficult for me because I am used to asking questions in English in class. (Participant 98)

Learning through English gives me more chances to improve my English proficiency in the long run, so I think it's beneficial. (Participant 104)

Further, the results from this research challenge the notion that English-medium instruction can be used as an effective tool for teaching content areas in the context of Taiwanese EFL education as far as students are concerned. In order to explore this hypothesis, questions seven, eight, and nine were designed to assess participants' experiences and attitudes of taking the English-taught content area courses on campus. From question seven: I like to attend an English-taught content area class on campus. The mean score was 1.81 in the Pre-questionnaire but decreased noticeably to 1.27 in the Post-questionnaire, indicating participants' dislike of taking English-taught content area courses on campus. Similarly, the *t* test also revealed the significant difference with a *p*-value at .000 ($p< .001$), which confirmed once again that students were not interested or even declined to take any content area classes that was taught in English.

On the same note, question nine also yielded the same result as the question goes: I think an English-taught content area class wouldn't hinder my understanding of that subject. The mean score from the Post-questionnaire was 1.12; lower than 1.77 in the Pre-questionnaire, showing participants' belief that their understating of that specific content area had been affected negatively and could somewhat hindered their learning. Also, the *p*-value of question nine was at .000 ($p< .001$), revealing students' disbelief and affirmation that English-taught content area courses were not effective for them since they were not interesting and might negatively hinder their overall understanding of that class.

Nevertheless, when asked about their English language improvements after taking an English-taught content area course, most students agreed that their English proficiency levels remained the same without any difference from the results. From question eight: I think an English-taught content area class would help my English proficiency in the long run; there was no obvious disparity as the *p*-value was at .118 $p > .05$) and the mean scores from both the Pre-questionnaire and Post-questionnaire were 1.54 and 1.37 respectively with no apparent difference. These results revealed that participants did not think their English proficiency had improved; therefore, the hypothesis that English-taught content area course were not effective for students could be validated. In addition to the surveys, more than 90% of participants (64 males and 30 females out of 104 in total) also disagreed that English-taught content area classes would help them academically or linguistically from the interview. Most of them also preferred learning content knowledge in their L1 only for better and more effective understanding. The statistical data can be found as follows:

Table 6. Comparison of the participants' experiences and attitudes toward English-taught content area instruction before and after this study

Question		Number	Mean	SD	*t*	*p*
7	I like to attend an English-taught content area class on campus					
	Pre-questionnaire	104	1.81	.595	-6.062	.000*
	Post-questionnaire	104	1.27	.448		
8	I think an English-taught content area class would help my English proficiency in the long run					
	Pre-questionnaire	104	1.54	.670	-1.590	.118
	Post-questionnaire	104	1.37	.561		
9	I think an English-taught content area class wouldn't hinder my understanding of that subject					
	Pre-questionnaire	104	1.77	.645	-6.906	.000*
	Post-questionnaire	104	1.12	.323		

*$p < .001$

Moreover, the following responses were recorded verbatim from the interview about their perceptions, attitudes and experiences of learning content knowledge in English under every participant's consent.

Though it sounds good to learn in English, I still prefer to learn Information Management in Chinese because it's easier for me to understand. (Participant 64)

I think it's more time-consuming if we need to learn other subjects in English such as International Business and so on…and it doesn't improve my English as far as I am concerned. (Participant 66)

Originally I thought learning everything in English would be good for us, but later I realized how much time it took for us to learn which would have been easier if the class was conducted in Chinese.
(Participant 73)

I just found I actually learned less from an English-taught content area class because we just memorized the words we didn't know for the tests, and the meaning was less-emphasized. (Participant 85)

Honestly, even though learning International Business in English sounds good for us; I still prefer the teacher could teach it in Mandarin so we could understand it better. (Participant 97)

I still think learning content knowledge in Chinese helps us more for both teachers and students because we are not learning English but other things.(Participant 99)

Meanwhile, another finding also emerged from the interview when participants were asked the reasons for which they didn't benefit from the content area classes they took in English. Approximately 80% of participants (56 males and 28 females out of 104 in total) held that the instructors were not qualified to teach content knowledge in English because they were either not fully prepared or not competent in their L2. Close to 60% of them (40 males and 20 females out of 104) did not think their instructors were doing a good job teaching in English because they did not pronounce the English vocabulary correctly in class, and they also seemed to be limited when it comes to their English delivery. In addition, almost 70% of participants preferred their instructors switching back to Chinese when they could not move on smoothly in the middle of the lecture, so it was rather embarrassing for teachers because the school still mandates that teachers are expected to teach in English. It was further evidenced that approximately 87% of participants (60 males and 30 females out of 104) became worried about their own English proficiency from their mandatory but incorrect English input that seems to be the norm in universities in Taiwan. The following responses were recorded directly based on their opinions and reflections on the content area courses they took in English under every participant's consent.

Many professors in my department are not proficient in English, so asking them to teach in English seems unnatural. (Participant 1)

I really don't think it's better for students like us to learn content knowledge in English when the instructors are not good at teaching in English, and it can be misleading. (Participant 12)

I sometimes wish I could ask my teacher in my Information Management class to switch back to Chinese because he doesn't speak English well, so I really don't see how we can learn from it. (Participant 44)

It's a nightmare to go to a class taught in English when the instructor doesn't speak good English; it's very confusing from time to time what he tried to say in class. (Participant 49)

I doubt we can learn anything from the class when the teacher simply cannot teach and speak well in English, so we almost had to study by ourselves because the class did not help. (Participant 54)

I would have taken another class if I had known this class was like this; I just didn't think it's a class well worth it here on campus. (Participant 59)

Challenges of implementing quality bilingual education in Taiwan

Though research maintains that effective bilingual education indeed plays an important role in successful second language acquisition, there are still some caveats that need to be considered. To start off, it is still widely believed that few teachers in academia in countries where English is not a native language would at present be able to teach effectively while maintaining English as the medium of instruction even if the necessary curricular changes were introduced (Johnson, 1994). Evans (2002) also uses the example in Hong Kong and notes that most students and a significant percentage of content area teachers in college lack the levels of proficiency required to teach and study an academic or literary curriculum effectively through the medium of English. As a result, the low quality is evidently shown in the use of English-Chinese mixed code (Lu, 2002). Lin (1996) and Bolten & Luke (1999) also doubt the efficiency of bilingual education in Southeast Asia where most instructors used English-Chinese mixed code in classrooms with more than 82% of them occurred in universities; that is, students are still learning in their L1 along with inaccurate L2 description.

To show the negative impacts of this teaching method, Swain (1986) further claims that this mixing approach practiced in Southeast Asia such as Hong Kong and the Philippines serves neither the goal of academic achievement nor effective second language acquisition. This phenomenon once again indicates the necessity of qualified teachers as the shortage of quality English teachers in Taiwan's bilingual education is more severe than any other subjects (Lu, 2002). In addition, Wong-Fillmore (1991) suggests how essential teachers are by saying that many students in bilingual classes fail to perform well because their teachers are not proficient bilingual speakers, which may inadvertently cripple both cognitive and emotional development in the long run. With regard to the results found in this present study and this era where promoting English-medium instruction for content knowledge seems to be the only way to go all over the world, it is paramount for both policy makers and language teachers to rethink these factors before making any new changes in the future.

The prospect of English-medium teaching in Taiwan

According to the results from this study, implementing effective English-medium programs in Taiwan seems challenging in many ways. As incorporating more English-taught programs at the college level has become a trend in Taiwan these days to attract more international students and increase school's ranking, it is not surprising to see that universities in Taiwan have tried their best to globalize their campuses. Since the trend of globalization is here to stay, it begs the question: how can language teachers create a more efficient L2 learning environment with pragmatic goals. Some suggestions were proposed and hoped to be implemented such as: first of all, the needs to train and re-educate indigenous staff and in-service faculty on campus for the purpose of teaching content knowledge in English (Smith, 2004). Meanwhile, other cultural issues both teachers and students face such as ideological objections occurring from a perceived threat to cultural and linguistic identity or the belief that the native language is better understood by local students all need to be included in the new educational program (Coleman, 2006). In the case of Taiwan, it would be of great help if students can be assured that their instructors are professionally trained in bilingual education so the teaching objectives can be met more easily. For instance, the linguistic, methodological and presentation skills required for effective English- medium instruction should be standardized by government officials to enable training institutions to develop appropriate training courses (Klaassen, 2002).

Secondly, more efforts need to be made to provide pre-service bilingual education teachers professional training so qualified teachers can be produced (Lu, 2002). Anstrom (1999), Al-Ansari (2000), and Short (2002) also claim that learners' probability of attaining academic literacy is much higher if subject teachers have received training that enables them to teach the four language skills and consciously promote the development of functional language skills in the content classrooms. In Taiwan, it is hoped that this new training program can be applied both to high school bilingual teachers, and college professors who are required to teach content knowledge in English before they start teaching. Having a new requirement in place for pre-service teachers not only ensures students' learning progress, but also teachers' professional development in the long run.

Thirdly, it is also important for both pre-service and in-service bilingual education teachers to be aware of their abilities that meet the language-related needs of their pupils (Klaassen, 2002). In other words, it is advisable for teachers to improve their knowledge or skills for teaching the four language skills and identifying strategies that promote effective L2 medium instruction. As Al-Ansari (2000) suggests, L2 proficiency is and will be the most important prerequisite for successful L2 medium instruction; it is thus worth pointing out that bilingual education teachers need to keep improving their L2 since it is not their L1. In addition, L2 medium instruction specialists should be trained to assist current or future bilingual teachers on-site in schools or district for better transition (Horne, 2005). Take some Catholic or public universities in Taiwan for example. They have been famous and special for their English programs for years not only for their English-medium courses taught by qualified bilingual instructors, but the exchange program that enables students to study abroad for a year or more in several English speaking countries before graduation. At the same time, several distinguished visiting professors would be invited from the same sister schools abroad to give lectures in Taiwan for more academic exchanges. Thus, great examples can definitely be modeled from those institutions

Finally, it is worth noting that bilingual teacher training should be extensive and ongoing because it takes time and effort. As Echevarria, Vogt & Short (2004) conclude that all teachers who have to teach English-medium courses are advised to get a qualification in English-medium instruction which includes language, methodological and presentation skills in L2 along with suitable certification system; universities in Taiwan should follow suit for learners' overall attainment of literary development.

Conclusion

The future of English-medium instruction in Taiwan

Though adopting effective bilingual education in Southeast Asia still needs to take some time, it goes without saying that English will likely be the only dominant foreign language of teaching in the future (Ammon & McConnell, 2002). Nonetheless, getting rid of English-medium education because there is no qualified teachers does not appear to be a sensible solution since it is like there is a shortage for algebra teachers and the school just wants to scrap algebra from the subject list (Totibio, 2001: 404). Having this said, it is necessary for language teachers to be aware of the fact that English-medium instruction does work for students' L2 development in the long run, but how to implement it effectively is and will be the issues that authority concerns need to address. This present study reveals that though Taiwan's government officials know the importance of English as a lingua franca by making it mandatory for pupils at all ages, the impractical or far-reaching goals are set not only on most college students, but also professors who are required to learn and teach content knowledge in English without professional training. From the results shown in this study about students' experiences and reflections on their English-medium courses they had, they were only satisfied with their English courses only, and the rest content area instruction was sadly not helpful with some even expressed their disappointment for their time wasted. From this research, it is worth reminding ourselves once again of the purpose of the so-called effective bilingual education. Is it only for promoting local universities' international image; encouraging more well-written journals by professors to increase school's rankings globally; or preparing students for their future employment opportunities in the future? In my view, teachers ought to bear in mind that the genuine goal of education should be aimed at students in the first place. That is, a more comprehensive evaluation system for both students and teachers needs to be set up. Empirical studies have suggested that students acquire English as a second or foreign language can learn more effectively in English speaking countries or having English-medium instruction in other nations. Therefore, it is a good start to have related regulations proposed by local universities in Taiwan to ask instructors to conduct more English-medium courses not only in English language, but also other content areas. However, seeing from the current situation together with the results from this study, Taiwan still has a long way to go for promoting its English-medium instruction in college. Some recommendations include setting up a more professional and teacher-oriented teacher training program as well as rigorous certification systems for pre-service bilingual teachers. A well-rounded English-medium education specialist program should also be launched at several distinguished universities in Taiwan to improve in-service bilingual teachers' linguistic, methodological, and presentation skills. Last but not the least, regular seminars or conferences for teachers are also necessary for sharing and exchanging experiences and improving English proficiency constantly for newer curriculum.

To conclude, it is hoped that this study can shed some light on the current system at local universities in Taiwan and how they expect teachers to conduct effective English-medium curricula for students' future competitiveness. Thus, bilingual education can justify its name by making Taiwan a truly bilingual country for its various goals not only academically, but also internationally.

Limitations of this study

This present study was limited in the following three aspects: the number of participants, time, and assessment. First, for the consistency of time and space for data collection, the number of participants was limited to two classes of 104 students only at a university in northern Taiwan. In other words, the outcome of this research might be somewhat finite.

The second limitation was rooted in the short time allowed for this study. As all participants had their school syllabi to follow during the semester, this study was conducted only in the weekly 3-hour class for 18 weeks only. Therefore, it was not a longitudinal study. That is, though the findings showed that the English-medium EFL instruction indeed improved students' listening and speaking skills and motivated their interests in learning English, other teaching methods used by the instructor in class are worth examining for further analysis.

Third, the assessment in this study was mainly through the interview conducted by the instructor and the institutional listening & speaking tests administered before and after this study. Though both the Pre- and Post-questionnaires were included, it would be more valid if more formal assessments could be administered such as the official TOEFL or TOEIC test. However, this was not possible due to both the school and participants' budgets. In addition, the researcher acting as a teacher participant might induce the Hawthorne effect, which was proposed by Mackey and Gass (2005) where student participants were compelled to make a greater effort than usual due to the focus of attention during the study.

Suggestions for future study

The purpose of this study was to explore the effectiveness of using English-medium instruction for both EFL and content areas to improve Taiwanese learners' English proficiency and learning motivation. It is thus hoped that the findings of this study could shed more light on the current English education and let more policy makers and teachers know that while advocating English only policy is good for students in Taiwan, appropriate mechanism for training professional bilingual instructors also needs to be set up. That is, more detailed observation and analysis are recommended in the future to explore the nuances between English-medium and L1 content area instruction to explore the connection and the possible benefits. Also, a further and more detailed study is absolutely needed to prolong the research duration; thus, the results of the long-term instruction for at least a year would be more persuasive.

On the one hand, the participants in this study were chosen from two classes only; in other words, the generalizability of the findings was somewhat limited to be convincing. Therefore, further research is suggested to increase the number of participants or classes to gain more representative outcomes. On the other hand, more instructors' reflections and attitudes along with students' should also be included for a more thorough examination on the English only policy on campus in Taiwan. Teachers can further adjust their teaching styles to meet students' needs and strive for better learning results.

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Appendix A

Pre-questionnaire

Name: ___________ Age: ______ Sex: M F
How long have you been learning English? ________ year(s). Since when?_______
Have you stayed or studied in an English-speaking country for more than three month?
Yes. If yes, how long? Please specify__________ No.
Have you taken any English proficiency test? Yes. No.

If yes, which one? __________. Score/Level _________.
Special accomplishment of English learning? E.g. English speech, singing, writing contest?
Yes. What is it?____________________________ No.
Please circle the letter that best describes your experience of learning English
SA (strongly agree), A (agree), N (neutral), D (disagree), SD (strongly disagree).

1. I am interested in listening and speaking English.

   SA A N D SD

2. I am motivated, active, and interested in learning English.

   SA A N D SD

3. I am confident in my English listening comprehension.

   SA A N D SD

4. I am confident in speaking English.

   SA A N D SD

5. I have control over the English language when I need to use it.

   SA A N D SD

6. I like to speak English? E.g. asking questions in English, communicating with foreigners?

   SA A N D SD

7. I like to attend an English-taught content area class on campus.

   SA A N D SD

8. I think an English-taught content area class would help my English proficiency in the long run.

   SA A N D SD

9. I think an English-taught content area class wouldn't hinder my understanding of that subject. SA A N D SD

Appendix B

Post-questionnaire

Name: ___________ Age: ______ Sex: M F
Check the letter that indicates you preference after this course. SA (strongly agree), A (agree), N (neutral), D (disagree), SD (strongly disagree).

1. After this course, I am more interested in listening and speaking English.

SA A N D SD

2. After this course, I am more motivated, active, and interested in learning English.

SA A N D SD

3. After this course, I am more confident in my English listening comprehension.

SA A N D SD

4. After this course, I am more confident in speaking English.

SA A N D SD

5. After this course, I have more control over the English language when I need to use it.

SA A N D SD

6. After this course, I like to speak English more.

SA A N D SD

7. After this course, I like to attend more English-taught content area classes on campus in the future.

SA A N D SD

8. After this course, I think an English-taught content area class would help my English proficiency more in the long run.

SA A N D SD

9. After this course, I become more convinced that an English-taught content area class wouldn't hinder my understanding of that subject.

SA A N D SD

Appendix C

Interview Guide

Name: ______________________

Date: ______________________

1 What are your perceptions and reactions of learning English in English on campus?

2 What is the effect on or change of your listening ability after learning English in English?

3 What is the effect on or change of your speaking ability after learning English in English?

4 Do you think your English speaking proficiency has improved after this course? Please explain.

5 Will you prefer to take more English-medium EFL courses if you can in the future? Please specify.
6 What are your attitudes and experiences of taking the required English-medium content area courses on campus?
7 What is the effect on or change of your English listening and speaking skills after taking English-medium content area courses?
8 What are your suggestions or opinions for your instructors in your English-medium content area courses?
9 Will you prefer to take English-medium or Mandarin content area course if you can in the future?
10 What change needs to be made for your instructors in both English-medium EFL and content area courses?

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English and Integrated Water Resources Management: A Training Program for the Mekong River Commission

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Bioprofile

Tylor Burrows has worked as a lecturer and instructor at universities in China, Saudi Arabia and Thailand. He has taught academic and research writing in a pre-bachelor preparation setting, as well as at the bachelor, master, and doctoral levels. His professional interests include teacher development, e-learning, and research writing.

Abstract

This paper outlines a case study of a content-and-language integrated preparatory program for professionals from five countries in the Mekong River Basin. The broad aim of the program was to improve participants' ability to use English for communication in the context of integrated water resources management. Further, participants were required to learn about and be able to fulfill the specific tasks of the trans-boundary organization which would be their host during an on-the-job training project. The eight-week program integrating content and language is presented with respect to content and language integrated learning good practice. Analysis of pre-/post-testing of English language competencies and a survey of participant opinions suggest that the presented approach was beneficial for the participants.

Key words: CLIL, content and language integrated learning, language and development programs, language curriculum design

Introduction

The use of English as a global language extends to the field of international development. Activities which directly focus on language instruction, or which include language training to enable people to work on a project, have been part of foreign aid since such assistance began in the 1940s (Kenny & Savage, 1997). Cumming and Storer (1992) describe an example of such training in which the Swedish International Development Agency invites language training specialists from the Asian Institute of Technology (AIT) to assess the language training attached to infrastructure and resources projects in Laos PDR. Since its 1959 inception as the Southeast Asian Treaty Organization Graduate School of Engineering, AIT has been an international institute using English as the language of instruction for alumni from over 85 countries (AIT, 2008a). Today, AIT boasts 32 fields of study including Gender and Development, Nanotechnology, and Business Administration. Although language instruction is not considered one of its core activities, content and language integrated learning (CLIL) is implicitly part of the institute's *modus operandi*. Based in Thailand, AIT is a regional hub for development projects with a long and prestigious list of international partners and local centers, and a mission "to develop highly qualified and committed professionals who will play a leading role in the sustainable development of the [Asia-Pacific] region and its integration into the global economy" (AIT, 2008b).

In order to enhance communication and academic skills, both for AIT students and external partners, the AIT English Language Center initiated the TalkBase program in 1985 (see Kenny, 1993; Kenny & Laszewski, 1997), which followed an experiential learning (see Miettinen, 2000) approach to language education through autonomous and task-based exploration of content. Briefly, TalkBase encouraged motivated and autonomous learning by requiring participants to choose their own areas of scientific inquiry, identifying issues or gaps on which to focus, and working towards a solution to that problem (Clayton & Shaw, 1997). Today, the AIT Language Center conducts a Bridging Program to prepare masters and doctoral candidates for advanced study, with the same basic principles as TalkBase. When approached by the Mekong River Commission (MRC) to provide the preliminary language training for their Junior Riparian Professional (JRP) project, it provided an opportunity to assist a regional partner while supporting the mission of the institute.

The MRC was "founded in 1995 to coordinate water resources planning and development across Southeast Asia's Mekong River basin" with Cambodia, Laos, Thailand, and Vietnam as member states (Jacobs, 2002, p. 354), and China and Myanmar as dialogue partners. They use the paradigm of integrated water resources management (IWRM), "a process which promotes the co-ordinated development and management of water, land and related resources, in order to maximize the resultant economic and social welfare in an equitable manner without compromising the sustainability of vital ecosystems" (GWP, 2000, p.22). The core work of the MRC is divided into the following programs:

- Agriculture and Irrigation Programme,
- Basin Development Plan Programme,
- Environment Programme,
- Fisheries Programme,
- Flood Management and Mitigation Programme,
- Information and Knowledge Management Programme,
- Integrated Capacity Building Programme,
- Navigation Programme,
- Climate Change Adaptation Initiative,
- Initiative on Sustainable Hydropower,
- Drought Management Project,
- Mekong Integrated Water Resources Management Project, and
- Watershed Management Project (MRC, 2011a).

As part of their capacity building strategy, the MRC aims to enable national organizations and citizens of the basin to work on sustainable development in the context of IWRM. To this end, the JRP project recruits "selected young professionals from the Mekong Regions, believing that this is a part of a long-term process to generate well-trained and skilled riparian professionals on different IWRM related disciplines such as IWRM principles, stakeholder engagement, basin development planning, strategic planning, project cycle management, gender equality, communication, monitoring and evaluation, climate change adaptation, etc." (MRC, n.d.a). Phase I of the project was completed in 2006 (MRC, 2006) while Phase II will involve ten successive groups, known as batches, from 2008 to 2014 (MRC, n.d.b); by 2012 over 40 participants had completed the program (UNESCAP, 2012).

Since the MRC is a trans-boundary organization with both regional and global stakeholders, English is used as the working language (Backer, 2006); after the second batch of JRP Project Phase II it was decided that preliminary English language training would be beneficial for future participants. AIT, as a hub for development and higher education and with an existing preparatory program for English language training, was a sensible option for such training. The third, fourth, and fifth batches of JRP Project Phase II participated in a modified version of an existing program for post-graduate students.

A mid-term review of the entire JRP Project Phase II found that the approach was too academic and could be adapted to better suit the perceived needs of the MRC. For example, useful tasks for graduate students such as literature reviews, proposal writing for thesis research, statistical analysis using SPSS, and qualitative research design could be replaced by professional communication tasks such as memo, email, and report writing. The MRC also requested stronger emphasis on explicit language education in a classroom setting, such as speaking and vocabulary lessons, complemented by pre-/post-testing of language competencies within MRC and IWRM contexts. The challenge for the training designers thus became to integrate foreign language and communication skills, together with specialized content knowledge, and facilitate student ability to independently complete professional tasks using this new understanding of both English and IWRM. This strongly tailored professional program required special attention paid to the technical terms and jargon of the development sector, IWRM, and the MRC. The AIT Bridging Program was revised to incorporate these requests, but the Batch 6 implementation was interrupted by widespread flooding in Thailand which led to the evacuation of the AIT mother campus (see TSF, 2011).

The eight JRPs who participated in the training described in this paper were the seventh batch of Phase II of the project. They consisted of two Cambodians, two Laotians, two Thais, one Vietnamese, and one participant from Myanmar. They were aged between 24 and 35, and their educational background included degrees in civil engineering, irrigation engineering, environmental science, public policy, tourism, and geography. Five were male, and three were female. Their home organizations included the Cambodian Ministry Of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries; the Laos PDR Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment; the Myanmar Directorate of Water Resources and Improvement of River Systems, the Thai Department of Water Resources; and the Vietnam Institute of Meteorology, Hydrology and Environment. The majority of their previous educational and professional experience was in their respective native languages. With the exception of the Laotians, whose language is similar to Thai, the only common language for the participants was English. Participants in the JRP project have varying levels of English language fluency, with some having completed advanced degrees in an English language medium and therefore able to write and converse easily, but others having little practical experience with the language and thus struggling at the vocabulary and sentence level.

This paper will present a case study of an eight-week JRP training on English language in the context of IWRM for work with the MRC, based on an *ex post facto* review of content and language integrated learning (CLIL) good practices, pre-/post-test analysis, and a survey of participant opinions.

Literature review

CLIL background

Defining CLIL

CLIL is an umbrella term used to describe the methods in which subject matter and second or other language are taught synchronously (Cendoya & Di Bin, 2008; Costa & D'Angelo, 2011; Coyle, 2006; Dalton-Puffer, 2008; Eurydice, 2006). According to Lasagabaster, CLIL can include:

> content-based language instruction, content-enhanced teaching, integration of content and language, theme-based language teaching, content infused language teaching, foreign language medium instruction, bilingual integration of language and disciplines, learning through an additional language, foreign languages across the curriculum, or learning with languages, to name but a few (2008, p. 32).

Although much of the work labeled as CLIL has been done in Europe, in North America the Canadian immersion programs (e.g. Genesse, 1994) and the cognitive academic language learning approach (see Chamot & O'Malley, 1987) also provide examples of how content and language have been integrated in the classroom. CLIL can be said to differ from typical language-in-context instruction in that the contextual subjects are academic or scientific, as opposed to more general topics for day-to-day use (Wolff, 2009).

Advocating CLIL

There is a general consensus that language should be learned for the purpose of communication, and that teaching language through contextual communication provides an effective way to accomplish this (Hadley, 2000). Mohan goes so far as to declare that "any educational approach that considers language learning alone and ignores the learning of subject matter is inadequate" (1986, p.1). Mangubhai describes immersion language teaching as "one of the most effective ways of learning a second language" (2005, p.203). Genesee agrees, pointing out lessons from immersion such as: integration of content and language has a more positive effect than teaching language alone; and, language learners in immersion programs perform as well on receptive skills tests as native speakers, and can perform well on productive tests if the program provides sufficient speaking and writing opportunities (1994). Crandall (1998) further argues that being able to use language within a specific context cannot be accomplished without integrating contextual content and language learning.

With the rising popularity of CLIL in Europe, the literature generally supports its effectiveness in meeting language and content learning objectives (Dalton-Puffer, 2008). Ackerl (2007) and Lasagabaster (2008) both found that CLIL had a positive impact on writing when compared with non-CLIL students. In a review of the literature, Dalton-Puffer points out that speaking and vocabulary, particularly jargon, are improved to a greater degree in CLIL learners (2008). Lasagabaster (2008) remarks that CLIL is believed to contribute to preparation for international experiences, increase motivation to learn, improve inter-cultural communicative ability, provide opportunities for “implicit and incidental learning” (p. 32), facilitate advanced communication, and contribute to the development of all language skills and systems, particularly speaking. Lasagabaster’s own research found that pronunciation also benefits from CLIL (2008). A later study by Lasagabaster (2011) suggests that CLIL has a positive influence on learner motivation, which is widely seen a key factor in learning generally and language learning specifically. Interestingly, Lorenzo and Moore cite several studies which show not only content and second language benefits from CLIL, but also research where mother tongue competencies seem to be positively affected (2010).

CLIL Caveats

It should be noted that the literature includes challenges and shortcomings of CLIL deserving attention. Banegas (2012) draws on much published work to point out challenges such as: administrators lack awareness of how to implement CLIL, including needs assessment and teacher development, teachers struggle to integrate content and language in the classroom, and may lack sufficient capacity in either area, existing teaching/learning materials are in short supply, established assessment practices may focus on content to the exclusion of language points, and an insufficiency of robust research in CLIL evaluation. Similar concerns are raised by Vazquez and Rubio (2009) who report that Andalusian teachers react to a plurilingual education policy with uncertainty about how readily the revolutionary approach will be accepted by teachers and students, how teachers will cope with the added pressures of content and language learning objectives simultaneously, and particularly given that most specialize in either content *or* language, and the complexities of creating curriculum and materials for CLIL. Crandall (1998) also reminds us of the difficulty faced by content experts who are not language specialists, and *vice versa* in CLIL.

Costa and D'Angelo (2011) add to concerns of second language and content acquisition the issues of mother language and native culture acquisition possibly being negatively affected by CLIL education. The Eurydice report *Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) at school in Europe* (2009) also considers the following as obstacles: few specialized teachers, lack of specialized materials, lack of training for teachers or materials designers, impact on first language acquisition, and negative impact of second language ability on content acquisition.

The primary challenge of successful integration of content and language, which is a connecting factor for most of the above and is discussed in detail by Mehisto (2008), is further exacerbated by the possibility that content experts and language experts are not accustomed to working together and may have difficulty doing so successfully (see Adamson, 2010; Arkoudis, 2006). However, perhaps the most serious problem proposed by Bruton (2011) who evaluates CLIL studies which support the value of the approach is that the research may be flawed and could even have a detrimental effect on the overall quality of education at an institution.

CLIL good practice

A review of the literature suggests that there is reasonable consistency in what constitutes good practice in CLIL. Meyer (2010) in the creation of a tool for CLIL materials design points out several aspects of effective CLIL pedagogy, and particularly relies on the 4Cs model: communication, content, culture, and cognition (see Coyle, 2006). Similarly, a number of good practices can be gleaned from de Graaf, Koopman, Anikina, and Westhoff (2007) who devised a tool for observation of CLIL teaching which includes: "(1) exposure to input, (2) content-oriented processing, (3) form-oriented processing, (4) (pushed) output, and (5) strategic language use" (p. 603). For the present study, practices which were included in two or more reviewed publications have been selected , and are listed below.

Task-based learning should be incorporated

Task-based learning (TBL) is particularly beneficial when using a foreign language for content instruction (Cendoya & Di Bin, 2010; Lingley, 2006; Meyer, 2010; Urmeneta & Sola, 2009). For example, portfolios of work developed under self-study, although with input from peers and an instructor to facilitate learning, is an effective teaching strategy for CLIL (Poisel, 2008), and can be beneficial for promoting autonomy in CLIL contexts (Meyer, 2010). According to Nunan:

> A task is a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right with a beginning, a middle and an end (2006, p. 17).

In CLIL the task can be the tool which can link subject matter with target language. When students engage in a task, they must learn about the content and then use target language in order to complete it. Authenticity in a task is seen as valuable (Lingley, 2006) which conveniently allows a teacher to give some assigned task, such as a written report on the content, that can be later exploited for linguistic feedback in addition to content and/or language assessment. The value of TBL for CLIL is significant, and is closely connected to the final four criteria.

Learner output should be extensive

CLIL follows the principle that language learners need to engage in authentic communication (de Graaf et al., 2007; Eurydice, 2006). According to Meyer (2010), opportunities for meaningful and authentic language production are important and can be achieved through communicative learning activities. De Graff et al. also promote meaning-focused instruction which focuses on productive skills, and recommend output in the form of classroom discourse, learner interaction, peer and instructor feedback, and oral and written tasks (2007).

Learning should be scaffolded

It is beneficial to provide scaffolded and strategy-based instruction for language acquisition and reflective learning (de Graff et al., 2007). An area of uncertainty in CLIL is the question of "how it is possible that learners can produce equally good results even if they studied the content in an imperfectly known language?" (Dalton-Puffer, 2011, p. 189). This is a reasonable concern and hence learners should be supported with learning strategies to enable them to acquire knowledge and language effectively. For example, reading strategies are essential for content mastery (Wolff, n.d.; Wolff, 2009), and writing competence in the content area is a part of content area competence (Wolff, 2009). Genre-based instruction is an example of a reading and writing strategy suited to CLIL (Cendoya & Di Bin, 2010). Further, vocabulary and vocabulary skills are an area of particular importance in CLIL. Learners need to be provided useful language, such as vocabulary and phrases for classroom discourse (Wolff, n.d.), which can be taught as collocated or chunked language (Meyer, 2010). De Graff et al. also promote lexical development as part of meaning-focused instruction, which could be achieved through contextual vocabulary items or teaching strategies for lexical development. Meyer (2010) suggests the selection and sequencing of scaffolded learning based on the output expected.

Content and language teaching should be integrated

Language and content learning should be carefully and systematically integrated into the curriculum (Genesee, 1994; Wolff, 2009). It seems presupposed from the term 'content and language integrated learning' that this would be the case. However, it cannot be assumed that every teaching context where a second or other language is used as the medium for content instruction includes explicit language teaching. Especially in the case where subject matter experts, as opposed to language experts, are engaged in CLIL it is possible that language-specific support is not provided. For this reason, Lucietto advocates that teams made up of language and content experts be engaged in planning and preparation, teaching, and assessment (2008).

Considerable, authentic, and varied input should be provided

Input is important for learning content, and particularly important for language acquisition. Meyer suggests that input can include meaningful, challenging, and authentic classroom materials and also appropriate feedback from instructors (2010). De Graff et al. also point out that selection and adaption of input, including text and teacher talk, is an important element of CLIL pedagogy. Moore and Lorenzo (2007) discuss how authentic texts are used in different ways by CLIL teachers.

Program evaluation *vis-a-vis* good practice

This paper presents an eight-week English language training program in the context of integrated water resources management at the Mekong River Commission. The following intended learning outcomes (ILOs) can be inferred from the agreed terms of reference for the training:

ILO1: Effective and functional English speaking in the context of IWRM applied at the MRC;

ILO2: Effective and functional English writing in the context of IWRM applied at the MRC;

ILO3: Effective and functional presenting in the context of IWRM applied at the MRC; and

ILO4: Able to use the Internet for continuous learning of English language and IWRM content.

The program designed to meet the four ILOs when considered *ex post facto* is consistent with the CLIL best practices discussed above, as illustrated in the following discussion.

Task-based learning should be incorporated

The program which is discussed in this paper incorporated task-based learning to a high degree. Identification of learner tasks was the first step in program design and comprised a significant component of it, contributing to all four ILOs. The assignment tasks were written reports or oral presentations, complemented by lessons, supervised lab sessions, progress reports to the class and one-on-one consultations. For each of the eight weeks there was one assigned task, with the scope moving from IWRM generally, to the Mekong River Commission, to the specific MRC programs where participants would be placed, and finally individual project proposals for on-the-job training. Early assignments were done in pairs to encourage peer teaching/learning opportunities and also allow for authentic production of target language, while later assignments were done individually to allow facilitators to provide focused feedback and to prepare them to work on their MRC projects autonomously but within a community of practice.

Four of the assignments were presentations, followed by facilitator-led discussions of the presentation in terms of content and presentation skill. Participants were given both formative and summative feedback in the form of a detailed rubric with comments. Presentation rubrics contained descriptions of five levels of competence for each of language (such as vocabulary and grammar), voice (such as volume), and pronunciation, body language (such as gesture and posture), content (including task completion and appropriateness for the audience), organization, visual aids, and general opinion. As an active learning tool, presentations were also recorded with a digital video camera, allowing participants to observe themselves and review the rubric feedback. Learner-selected presentation topics for this group included: watershed management, water quality and navigation, trans-boundary flood issues, flood control, IWRM and water quality, gender equality in sustainable development, IWRM and gender, and effects of dams. Instructor-prescribed topics were specific areas requested by the MRC and included: MRC procedures, MRC programs, and principles of water basin management.

Written assignments were based on specific documents requested by the MRC. The first written assignment was the official MRC Back-to-Office Report, which has an expected structure according to a template. In order to complete the assignment, participants were asked to choose a partner and select a topic under IWRM. After reading about their topics online the participants were asked to consider questions that they could not answer based on the information available to them. Participants reported back to the class about their progress and received formative feedback from peers and a facilitator. Language Center staff arranged for graduate students from appropriate AIT fields of study to act as interviewees, then the background and results of the interview were written according to the MRC template, and the report was submitted for feedback and assessment. This assignment contributed to all four ILOs. The second written task was a policy brief which the students learned to write by analyzing authentic examples from relevant organizations such as the International Water Management Institute (e.g. IWMI, 2005; IWMI, 2008). As a capstone assignment near the end of the program participants wrote referenced proposals about IWRM projects, which they would like to undertake, that could contribute to the ongoing work of the MRC. Finally, the participants wrote an MRC Bi-Monthly Report to reflect on their learning and report on the training to the MRC. As with the presentations, a detailed rubric was used to provide participants with feedback for revision and future written work. The rubric for written work, customized for this program, contained descriptions of five levels of confidence for each of task completion, content, referencing, organization, coherence and cohesion (such as topic sentences and linking words), vocabulary, grammar, and general opinion.

Learner output should be extensive

Our program was designed to allow extensive learner output, as ILOs 1, 2, and 3 require learner production of the target language. In addition to the tasks described above, participants were encouraged to speak, write, and present about IWRM and the MRC through the use of daily news briefings, reflective journals, and communicative language teaching techniques.

Daily news briefings were conducted every morning by one JRP, on a rotation basis. This activity encouraged participants to read up-to-date and authentic information, usually via the Internet, and then give a short and informal presentation to the group on a topic of their choice. Participants were encouraged to select news stories which were related to the work of the MRC. The topics of climate change, flooding, and dams came up regularly, with some selected news articles mentioning the MRC specifically. In addition to promoting content knowledge, this activity contributed to ILOs 1, 2, and 4. Each briefing was followed by a short discussion of the topic and the presentation skill, with instructors facilitating group reflection and comments.

Reflective journals were used to encourage participants to write every evening and consider their intercultural experience or how they could apply the knowledge and skills gained in the program. There were no limitations on journal content, although participants were discouraged from writing a point-by-point account of daily activities. In addition to providing writing practice and encouraging reflective learning, journals provide an avenue for communication of concerns or problems which participants may otherwise not mention. The journals were collected weekly for instructors to review and provide formative feedback.

Communicative teaching techniques, such as the Socratic method of teaching through asking the learners guiding questions (see Paraskevas & Wickens, 2003) and think-pair-share activities, were used consistently during classroom instruction. Take, for example, a lesson where the objective was to improve JRP ability to write memos for the MRC, particularly within the context of Mekong fisheries, which was done in the following stages:

1. Elicit background knowledge of memo writing from participants.
2. Have participants work in groups to read sections of a document describing memo writing and identify key points, which were then written on the board by the groups.
3. Have participants work in groups to analyze authentic memo samples provided by the MRC, using the framework they had created on the board.
4. As a think-pair-share activity have participants use a useful language handout for memo writing, with phrases such as 'I am writing in connection with' or 'Please find attached my report', to complete a gap-fill exercise which is itself a memo to request that the groups complete the next task (see Appendix I).
5. Have participants work in three groups to watch an assigned ten-minute segment of a half hour video on fisheries in Cambodia (see MRC, 2002a; 2002b; 2002c). For

each segment, the group must write a memo to inform the other groups of the video content (see Appendix II).

Learning should be scaffolded

Classroom teaching sessions were primarily based on language and communication topics which were usually introduced and/or practiced in an IWRM context. To make effect use of limited time, where possible we used an overview approach to teaching skills -such as lessons on active reading strategies or vocabulary learning strategies- which participants could then apply during the rest of the program. An extra benefit of teaching strategies, especially in conjunction with websites as necessary for meeting ILO4, is that is provides the participants with skills they can continue to use for language development after the training is finished. Altogether there were 25 sessions devoted to research, language, and communication skills. They were selected and sequenced to assist the participants in completing their assignments and/or improving their language skills as per the assessments. In the case of assignments, the first writing task described above was supported by six sessions as follows:

1. Necessary for the assignment task, but not final language assessment:
   1.1. introducing participants to the research process,
   1.2. how to choose and develop topics, and
   1.3. how to prepare and conduct interviews.
2. Necessary for the assignment and contributing to language assessment:
   2.1. training on report writing generally and MRC back-to-office reports,
   2.2. process and paragraph writing (described above), and
   2.3. use of transition devices.

Content and language teaching should be integrated

A key aspect of the program included in all ILOs was to improve participant knowledge about IWRM; in most cases participants' existing knowledge is localized to the area of their work and restricted to their native language. Although our training was considered as the language component of the overall JRP training regimen, in order for the participants to speak, write, and present about IWRM they needed to have sufficient background knowledge and vocabulary. The broad scope of IWRM applied at the MRC cannot be comprehensively covered in an eight week "language" course; however, this provides us with a great deal of variety and flexibility in selecting specific topics and resources. We incorporated content: (1) as context for skills classes, (2) as topics for tasks, (3) using external content experts, and (4) through daily news briefings, (2) and (4) have already been discussed, above.

In the design phase authentic texts and videos were collected, primarily from the Internet, with the ultimate goal of including a different IWRM content topic in each skills training session. When preparing lessons the materials developer would sift through the resource pool for appropriate contextual aids. For example, the session on *Writing as a Process & Paragraph Writing* began with the screening of a short video about the people of the Mekong river basin (see RFA, n.d.). Participants were told beforehand that they would be writing a paragraph based on the video and were advised to take notes. As the lesson developed participants completed activities using their paragraph drafts, in addition to exercises using example paragraphs from an authentic text (see Hirsch and Cheong, 1996). By the end of the lesson participants had been led through the writing process and submitted an academic paragraph based on the video. Formative feedback was given on written paragraphs, and the session participants were provided with a list of selected lexical items from the video for further study. Such vocabulary lists were regularly distributed based on the authentic contextual aids, and bi-weekly vocabulary quizzes were scheduled to encourage participants to review new terms.

Near the end of the program, outside experts working in IWRM-related fields were invited to conduct discussions and engage in activities with the participants. These experts included a doctoral candidate from the field of Gender and Development, a masters student who had recently finished a research project on community-based sustainable ecotourism on the Mekong river, and two representatives from the Wetlands Alliance who introduced their organization and also the topic of fisheries management. Access to such expertise is a unique advantage of conducting this training at AIT, with Batch 6 able to meet two representatives from the United Nations Environment Program, and also join in a lecture on the state of climate science from Nobel Laureate Dr. Rajendra Pachauri. These experiences provide the participants with authentic and meaningful opportunities to engage in program content and target language.

Considerable, authentic, and varied input should be provided

The program coordinator and author of the present study endeavored to immerse the trainees in an environment conducive to their meeting the ILOs in as many ways as possible. During a preliminary trip to the MRC Secretariat in Vientiane we requested and received a collection of MRC posters and publications, which were used to create atmosphere in the classroom. Printed publications also served as reference materials for assignments. Authentic texts, videos, websites, learner chosen content, and outside experts were regularly used to provide copious amounts of authentic subject matter, and target language input. Examples of how authentic materials were incorporated in tasks and classroom instruction have been provided above.

Input from instructors in the form of classroom discourse and feedback on tasks was also extensive, in keeping with communicative language learning. *Ad hoc* feedback on content, academic or language skills, including form-focused feedback, was provided as teaching/learning opportunities arose. For example, if a student was presenting findings from a research task then instructors had opportunities to point out issues in speaking, writing, data collection, or presentation skills. Feedback on accuracy was primarily provided on written work, either verbally during individual consultations on the writing in progress, or written on a final submission. Systematic feedback was provided in the form of the rubrics used on weekly assignment tasks.

Program evaluation based on pre-/post test analysis

In addition to the tasks, vocabulary quizzes, and other formative feedback discussed above, the terms of reference for the project required that we use pre-/post-testing of language skills. Consultation with MRC representatives established that reading, writing, speaking, vocabulary, and presentation would be appropriate areas for assessment. Comparison of pre-/post-test results suggests that the program was beneficial for the five participants who attended the entire eight week intensive program; JRPs who arrived late and missed the pre-testing cannot be included in this measurement. Though the sample is small, the results support previous CLIL research which suggests that the learners improve language ability in addition to acquiring content knowledge, as outlined in the above literature review.

The reading pre-test was based on an MRC document (see MRC, 2001) for which exercises were designed to assess: pronoun referencing, identifying important/key information, identifying sources, understanding inferences, fact vs. opinion, vocabulary in context, rhetorical devices, and comprehension. JRPs were given an analysis of their pre-test results to show them which areas were difficult for them, and one session which discussed the assessed reading skills. A post-test, similar to the pre-test, was developed using another MRC document (MRC, 2010). A comparison of the averages shows an increase in reading skills across the group, with 26.9% increase from pre-test to post-test for all participants.

The writing pre-/post testing was divided into three parts: self-assessment, paragraph writing, and report writing. Again, the overall trend is that participants improved in their writing skills, scored against the writing rubric discussed above, and the self-assessment suggests that they feel more confident in professional writing. It is interesting to note that on the writing pre-test none of the JRPs chose to write about the Mekong River Basin, opting for more personal topics; this suggests that did not feel confident in their ability to write about IWRM or the MRC.

The pre-/post-testing for speaking consisted of two sections. First, participants selected randomly from a number of guided speaking tasks about the Mekong River. Their responses were assessed according to a rubric designed for this purpose. This rubric contained descriptions of five levels of competence for each of pronunciation, fluency (such as rate and rhythm of speech), grammar, vocabulary, and general opinion. The second element of the speaking test was an accent analysis (from Dale & Poms, 1994). As a part of their pre-test feedback, individual JRPs were informed which sounds they pronounced incorrectly, and resources for self-correction such as websites were introduced in a class. Again, assessment results suggest that the JRPs were able to increase their speaking ability, in some cases significantly. The usefulness of the program is illustrated by the fact that during pre-testing two JRPs did not know anything about their randomly chosen topics, which were ‘poverty’ and ‘the Mekong River’ respectively, while no such problem arose during the post-testing.

The vocabulary pre-test consisted of 46 lexical items taken from the glossary of an MRC training manual (MRC, 2011b). The post-test consisted of a sample of lexical items from a complete list of 201 lexical items (*e.g.*, access, accountability, accumulating, waterways, wetland, and yield) were compiled from their pre-test list and those distributed subsequently. All JRPs who were present for the pre-testing showed improvement, between 14% and 53%, on the post-test measurement. It is interesting to note that the pre-test vocabulary scores had a much wider range than the post-testing. The average score for eight JRPs on the post-test was 36% higher than the average score for five JRPs who completed the pre-testing.

Presentation pre-/post-tests were assessed using the same rubric as presented tasks. The presentation pre-test was not on an IWRM topic due the preparation time available for participants. The final presentation assignment was also considered to be their presentation post-test; participants showed us their on-the-job-training proposals.

Program Evaluation based on a survey of participant opinions

In order to improve the training for future JRPs, an informal questionnaire evaluation of the course was conducted with sections for classroom sessions, other activities, IWRM topics, program objectives, Bridging Program, and, further comments. The survey was completed on the last day of the program in order to guarantee responses from all eight participants. Moreover, a later informal query of participant opinions by email, in advance of the next group of participants, yielded no insights from participants engaged in their on-the-job training with the MRC.

For each of the 26 classroom sessions, JRPs were asked to rank their opinion of the usefulness by choosing one of the following: *this was very useful, this was somewhat useful, no opinion / neutral, this was not very useful*. JRPs who were absent because of the limited time to arrange documentation in their home countries were asked to leave these blank. The majority of participants reported that they found the classroom sessions to be useful, while there were no participants who reported that any of the classes were not very useful (Fig. 1).

Figure 1: Summary of participant opinions of classroom sessions

Other activities included the daily news, journal writing, assignments, and a field trip. The one-day field trip to the Khlong Tha Dan Dam was a capstone experience, where we were treated to a presentation and tour from an official of Thailand's Royal Irrigation Department; this allowed the participants authentic engagement with, and observation of, IWRM in the field. Due to the time-consuming nature of these activities, both inside and outside of the classroom, we are pleased to see that the JRPs felt that these activities were beneficial to their learning and development (Fig. 2).

Figure 2: Summary of participant opinions of activities outside of the classroom

The third section of the participant survey was an open ended question asking JRPs to consider what IWRM topics they had learned about. Since content knowledge was not assessed in the program, this question was included to get a sense of how well the MRC and IWRM topics were included. Responses from each participant show that although a broad range of topics was included in the course, most respondents identified few, and there was little overlap.

In order to help gauge the usefulness of the training with respect to the aims given by the MRC, participants were asked to consider five questions about English language and communications skills, ability to use the Internet, and IWRM and MRC vocabulary and content. A summary of their responses shows that, in the opinion of the JRPs, the program was successful in meeting the objectives set out by the MRC, as the participants feel that overall they have improved in all areas (Fig. 3).

Figure 3: Summary of participant opinions of MRC program aims

The penultimate section of the survey aimed to get feedback from the participants about the overall program and approach. Overall, the participants' responses indicate that they found the program to be challenging, but useful and worthwhile.

Finally, participants were asked to provide further comments for use in program revision; most participants expressed a desire for more time to work on their tasks. One student did request explicit grammar instruction in a classroom setting, which was not provided in favor of form-focused feedback on spoken and written utterances. This suggestion to the instructors suggests that she did not fully comprehend how the content driven program was meant to help improve her grammar, which is consistent with Vazquez and Rubio's (2009) concern that students may not readily accept a CLIL approach.

Conclusion

This paper presents an *ex post facto* evaluation of a CLIL program designed to prepare young professionals to work for a trans-boundary organization involved in IWRM. The program was found to be consistent with such established CLIL principles as were identified in the literature, and both testing and survey results suggests that the program was successful in meeting the ILOs. This supports CLIL literature which posits that CLIL has a positive effect on language acquisition, and particularly content-specific language such as vocabulary.

The issue of content-and-language integration was partially overcome in this program by a language specialist: (1) relying on authentic content in the form of text or video to provide the context for lessons, (2) asking students become experts and teach the class and/or themselves through tasks, (3) having participants interact with content area experts in seminar-style environments and (4) using this to provide topics for writing tasks. The use of authentic materials and experiences was a key part of this training. Another lesson learnt is that CLIL can effectively be implemented with adult students from South-east Asia.

This program could be improved, and especially the absence of content-area assessment should be reconsidered. Assessment of content was not required by the client, but an interesting area for future research would be the use of vocabulary cloze exercises for content and language integrated assessment. It should also be noted that the training program was not designed as an experiment, with the lack of a control group making the results stand alone. Another limitation of the present case is that the designer of the training picked the good practices after the program was implemented, which makes the results less than robust. Other areas raised in this work and worthy of future attention in the Asian context are (1) student and administrator perceptions of CLIL, (2) the use of online materials in CLIL contexts, (3) developing soft skills (such as intercultural communication, presentation, autonomous learning, critical thinking, and teamwork in addition to language skills and content knowledge), and (4) advantages and disadvantages of content experts who are not given objectives or guidance within the program. Bruton's (2011) concern that CLIL research is not consistently reliable or beneficial remains unresolved here and should be remembered in the design of later work intended for publication.

Designing a highly customized program in the manner described in this paper is difficult although we exploited authentic materials as the basis for language learning, developing teaching and learning activities which combine the desired skills and content is labor intensive for the designer (Moore & Lorenzo, 2007). Meyer, in discussing the planning of quality CLIL lessons, points out that it is difficult to combine several principles of best practice into one lesson (2010).

With an international group of students having varying content interests and a range of English language communicative competence, CLIL pedagogies provide a means of facilitating meaningful and useful learning for all participants. A high workload forced the participants to use English for their individual and group assignments on weekends and evenings. Further, the international environment of AIT meant that JRPs were regularly using English outside the classroom. Authentic need to engage in the target language was facilitated through the use of interviews and guest speakers. At times, even JRPs with a common native language would communicate in English out of habit.

CLIL is without doubt a challenging paradigm of education. Yet, with the seemingly unstoppable advance of internationalization, it follows that there will be ever greater promotion of language education, content education in a second or other language, and the importance of adding higher value to the educational experience by integrating content and language learning. CLIL practitioners and pioneers can remember, though, that even native speakers of a language engage in CLIL, as they learn the jargon, genre and tone of their field.

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Appendix I: Controlled practice exercise which gives instructions for open memo writing practice exercise

Memo Writing Worksheet

Part 1: Complete the following memo using the 'Useful Language' handout.

MEMORANDUM

Date: April 23rd, 2012

To: **[omitted]**

From: Tylor Burrows

Subject: Mekong River Fisheries

____________________________________ your training program at the Asian Institute of Technology. Due to the requirements of the Mekong River Commission (MRC), it is necessary that the Junior Riparian Professionals (JRPs) improve their ability to write MRC Memos, as well as their knowledge about Integrated Water Resource Management. _____________________________ both of these tasks will be completed during today's lesson. ________________________ more about: (1) the importance of Mekong fisheries,

(2) fishing methods in Cambodia, and (3) challenges and initiatives for Cambodian fisheries.

__________________________________ work in groups to write three memos on these topics, using the MRC Memo template. Your completed memo should be sent to the other JRPs, with a copy sent to me.

____.

____ receiving your completed memos.

Part 2: Using the MRC Memo template, and the appropriate video, prepare a memo.

Group 1 -	the importance of Mekong fisheries	– Video 1
Group 2 -	fishing methods in Cambodia	– Video 2
Group 3 -	challenges and initiatives for Cambodian fisheries	– Video 3

Appendix II: Sample of written submission for in-class memo writing activity

MEMORANDUM

Date: 25 April 2012

To: [omitted]

Cc: Tylor Burrows

From: [omitted]

Subject: The Importance of Mekong Fisheries

In reply to the Tylor's Memorandum, here are some reasons of the importance of Mekong fisheries as follows:

- Fishing is one of the major economic sectors of Cambodia.
- More than a million of people depend on fishing for their livelihood.
- The steady fish production ensure survival for poor people better health in general.
- Since fish is the only inexpensive and ready source of animal protein for most of population.

- Cambodian catch enough fish to feed the country and export to another countries.

Regarding to the reasons mentioned above shown that the Mekong fisheries are very important for the social and economic development in the Mekong region. Therefore, every development project related to Mekong River has to study careful about the impact on fisheries.

Let me know whether you would like us to provide more detail about the importance of Mekong fisheries.

We are looking forward to receiving your suggestion and recommendation.

Bi-cultural aspects of second language learning in a bilingual context

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Abstract

Taking into account the effect of *diglossia* in Arabic and its *orthographic complexity,* this study is aiming to investigate differences between Arabic-speaking (L1) and Hebrew-speaking (L1) parents' self-reports on their children's language practice at home within the

framework of Family Language Policy. Additionally, we (the researchers) aim to examine how children's language practice at home as a part of their Family Language Policy were linked to their word and text reading accuracy and rate in Arabic *versus* Hebrew. Native Hebrew-speaking and Arabic-speaking 3rd and 4th grade children from two bilingual Arabic/Hebrew-speaking schools participated. Speed and accuracy measures were examined in reading words, pseudo words, and texts in Arabic and Hebrew. We have seen that measures of speed and accuracy of reading in Hebrew among Hebrew speakers were significantly higher than measures of reading in Arabic among Arabic speakers. In addition, Hebrew speakers gained poor results in reading Arabic (L2) compared to Arabic speakers in Hebrew (L2). Our conclusion was that Hebrew speakers did not succeed in transferring their proficiency and success in reading in their mother tongue to success in reading the second language. The psycholinguistic and the socio-linguistic explanations and implications of these findings are discussed.
Keywords: Arabic, bilingual, diglossia, Hebrew, orthography, reading, socio-cultural factors

Introduction

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) refers to situations where subjects, or parts of subjects, are taught through a second, foreign or other additional language (Marsh, 2001). Teachers see frequently that there are some challenges in first language (L1) and second language (L2) learning as they constitute prerequisite resources in classroom practices. In the context of learning the two Semitic languages, Arabic and Hebrew, as L1 and L2, some teachers believe that not all students have a language level appropriate to the demands of the content.

The aims of this study were firstly to examine the effect of *diglossia* in Arabic and its *orthographic complexity* on reading accuracy and rate acquisition in Arabic (L1) and (L2) among Arabic (L1) and Hebrew (L1) speaking children educated in a bilingual Hebrew-Arabic school, and to investigate differences between Arabic-speaking (L1) and Hebrew-speaking (L1) parents' self-reports on their children's language practice at home within the framework of Family Language Policy (Spolsky, 2008). Furthermore, the study aimed to examine how children's language practice at home as a part of their Family Language Policy were linked to their word and text reading accuracy and rate in Arabic *versus* Hebrew.

Three topics are relevant to these research aims: diglossia in Arabic and its impact on basic literacy skills acquisition, orthographic complexity of written Arabic, the socio-cultural and educational context of the present study, and children's language practice at home as a part of Family Language Policy.

Diglossia and orthographic complexity of Arabic

The current research focused on parallel basic reading skills acquisition in two Semitic languages, Arabic and Hebrew, within the framework of bilingual elementary school education in Israel. Both Arabic and Hebrew are considered shallow orthographies in their vowelized form. That is, there is a one-to-one relationship between the grapheme and the phoneme. When the Arabic and Hebrew orthographies are presented without vowels, they are considered to be deep orthographies (Abu-Rabia, Share, & Mansour, 2003).

In any discussion of the Arabic orthography, the diglossic nature of this language has to be mentioned because of its influence on reading acquisition. Arabic has two forms: the spoken form (*ammia* or the spoken vernacular, which has many local dialects) is used by speakers of the language in a specified geographic area for daily verbal communication, and is the native language of virtually all Arabic speakers. The literary form *fuṣḥa* is the language in which all speakers of Arabic, from all over the world, read and write. This form of Arabic is universally used in the Arab world for formal communication and is known as Modern Standard Arabic. Spoken Arabic is a colloquial dialect and has no formal written form.

For Arabic L1 speakers, daily life requires a mixing of Spoken Arabic and Modern Standard Arabic. The differences between *ammia* and *fusha* have generated an extensive debate over the distinction between diglossia and bilingualism (e.g., Eid, 1990). Several psycholinguistic studies have addressed this issue directly. Recent research investigated the effect of diglossia on acquisition of phonological awareness and word recognition skills (Eviatar& Ibrahim, 2001; Saiegh-Haddad, 2003, 2004). The effect of diglossia has been demonstrated, where kindergarten children experienced particular difficulty when asked to recode or to access Standard Arabic as opposed to Spoken Arabic phonological structures in meta-linguistic awareness tasks. This difficulty has been demonstrated in explicit as well as implicit phonological awareness tasks (Saiegh-Haddad, Levin, Hende, &Ziv, 2011).

In addition to the complexity caused by diglossia, there are unique characteristics of the Arabic orthography, as opposed to the Hebrew orthography, that pose considerable challenges to novice readers (Share, 1999; Ibrahim, Eviatar, &AharonPeretz, 2007). The following section describes the orthographic characteristics of the Arabic as opposed to the Hebrew orthographies and the specific challenges posed by Arabic.

Arabic orthographic characteristics

Arabic is consonantal orthography (or "abjad") with 28 consonantal letters, and vowels which are represented mostly by diacritical marks. The Arabic orthography has three short vowels known as diacritical marks placed beneath or above the letter: 1. ***Fatha****- e.g. ba (ah, a, , wrote)* short diagonal stroke above the letter . 2. ***Damma****- e.g. bu, / / (o, , writes)* short diagonal stroke above the letter. 3. ***Kasra****- e.g. bi (i, , book)* short diagonal stroke under the letter. Almost all of the consonantal letters in Arabic (22 out of the 28) have more than one letter form, depending on its position in the word (*e.g.* The phoneme /*h*/ is represented as ( ) The Arabic orthography has a number of letters (graphemes) that share the same letter form (derived from Nabatean which historically had fewer consonants) and are distinguished only by the position and the number of consonant (dot) diacritics. For example, ث ب ت represent the consonants /t/, /b/ and / θ/ or /ð/ respectively. Some adaptations of the Arabic *abjad* (e.g., Sindhi is southern India), include up to 7 or even 8 diacritical variants of the identical letter-form.

An additional unique feature of the Arabic orthography is that the majority of letters vary in shape according to position in the word; word-initial, medial or word-final position. It is worthy to emphasize that letter position also dictates a visual change in the letter shape variant either minimally ((ط ـطـ ـطwith little feature before and after letters, or to a larger extent ((ه هـ ـهـ ـه. Six letters, however, have only two variant shapes which depend not only on position in the word but also on the preceding letter ر /r/, ز/z/, د/d/, ذ /th/, و /w/ and ا /a/. This subset of letters may connect only from the right side, (לוח ,لوح) Lawh but not from the left, ילד ,ولد) Walad). This sub-group of letters, therefore, may appear to the reader to be more separated or distinct in a word, that is, visually separated from adjacent letters. In this context, Taouk and Coltheart, (2004) investigated the reading acquisition in Arabic amongst children in Grades 3, 4 and 6. In one experiment they examined naming of real pronounceable ‘position-illegal’ words; which are words written with a wrong letter variant but with phonology preserved (e.gـطـويا TAWEEL). This finding provides evidence that positional variants of letters affect word reading. Thus, in comparison to Hebrew as another Semitic language presented in the scope of the current study, Arabic presents unique graphemic challenges for the young reader despite that fact that grapheme-phoneme relations in the traditional (orthographic depth) sense are highly regular or consistent. A consequence of this orthographic complexity is the extended period that is required for acquiring the Arabic orthography where research has indicated that only towards the end of second grade do typically developing Arabic L1 speaking children learn to read (Abu-Ahamad, Ibrahim, & Share, 2012).

Hebrew orthographic characteristics

Similar to Arabic, Hebrew has *consonantal* orthography, which has 22 consonantal letters and exist in two forms; pointed (fully vowelized by means of vowel diacritics) and unpointed (partly vocalized by a limited set of dual-purpose consonantal letters (א ה ו י) (Ravid, 2006). The latter is the most common mode of writing while the former is reserved for children's books, poetry, and sacred texts. The four consonantal letters (א ה ו י) also called mothers of reading serve the dual function of signifying vowels as well as consonants. The second system of vowelization utilizes diacritical marks or points *nikud*. This system supplies a complete representation of the vowels by means of tiny dots and dashes appearing mostly under but sometimes also above and between the letters. For example: רֶ= /re/, רִ= /ri/, רָ= /ra/, רֻ= /ru/, ◌ֹר= /ro/.

As opposed to the Arabic, diglossia does not exist in Hebrew. In addition, unlike the Arabic orthography, in Hebrew the majority of letters do not vary in shape according to position in the word. Only five letters, נ n, מ, m, פ, p, צ, tz, כ, h, have two forms depending on whether they appear in word-final or in other positions. Generally, the shallow version of the Hebrew orthography where every phoneme is represented by either consonant or diacritical mark is acquired relatively easily with typically developing first grade children reaching decoding accuracy by the end of the first grade (Shatil, Share & Levin, 1999). This is in contrast to the acquisition of basic reading skills in Arabic.

In the context of the present study, the parallel acquisition of Arabic and Hebrew literacy by both populations within the framework of a bilingual school allows us to examine diglossia and the orthographic complexity impact on Arabic basic reading skills acquisition in Arabic versus Hebrew. Within this context we expect that the acquisition of basic reading (rate and accuracy) skills will be more challenging in Arabic versus Hebrew for the Arabic (L1) speaking children. In the following section, we will provide a theoretical background for these studies' second and third aims, by describing Israeli language policy, the socio-cultural characteristics of bilingual Hebrew-Arabic speaking education, and existing data on Family Language Policy of parents who choose these educational settings.

Socio-cultural and educational context of the present study

The education system in Israel by and large retains the existing separation between Arabs and Jews. Schools are mostly for only one of the sectors, and even though Arabic is one of the official languages in Israel, Hebrew (L1) speaking students are only marginally exposed to this language and to Arab culture, whereas Arab students study Hebrew language, literature and culture extensively (Al-Haj, 2003; Amara & Mari, 2002). An alternative to the current reality is bilingual education, which provides both groups with equal exposure to both languages and cultures (Hertz-Lazarowitz, Azaiza, Peretz, Zelniker, & Sharabany, 2007; Hertz-Lazarowitz & Zelniker, 2007). More specifically, bilingual education offers an alternative to the existing educational reality in Israel both from a socialization and content perspective.

There are currently four bilingual schools in Israel, with an additional number of bilingual preschools. Bilingual schools emphasize a balance between the two languages, Hebrew and Arabic, in every aspect of teaching. In addition to education being conducted in two languages, the students are exposed to and taught two cultural narratives representing the two national groups. This condition is in contrast to the symmetric mono-cultural exposure within the framework of mono-national schools (Amara, Azaiza, Mor-Sommerfeld& Hertz-Lazarowitz, 2007). In these bilingual educational schools, literacy in Hebrew and literacy in Arabic is acquired in parallel from first grade. Children receive equal amounts of instruction in each language daily by both Hebrew and Arabic L1 teachers. In addition to diglossia which impacts Arabic reading rate and accuracy acquisition, home language practice in L1 and L2 might be related to children's reading outcomes in each language. The following section provides a background to addressing the extent to which Hebrew and Arabic are part of family language practice in the home environment and how reading outcomes are correlated with this language practice at home.

Children's language/s practice at home as part of Family Language Policy

Spolsky (2004) proposed a model of language policy which identified language ideology, practice, and management within the framework of any given speech community. Spolsky (2004:5) describes language practice as "… the habitual pattern of selecting among the varieties that make up its linguistic repertoire; its language beliefs or ideology – the beliefs about language and language use; and any specific efforts to modify or influence that practice by any kind of language intervention, planning or management." This model has been adapted to the family context and is used as a theoretical framework for examining the extent to which family language ideology, practice and management (known as Family Language Policy) are connected to one another, and the connection between family language policy and state language policy (Kopeliovich, 2009; Schwartz, 2010). More specifically, it was suggested that parents' ideas motivate their practices, which in turn are strong determinants of the children's development (De Houwer, 1999). In both monolingual and bilingual contexts, children's linguistic and literacy environments are shaped to a large degree by parents' beliefs and attitudes, which constitute the primary environments of early childhood (see Goldenberg, Rueda, & August, 2006).

In Israel, the dichotomy between ethnicity and citizenship has not been easily settled. According to Appel and Muysken (1987), ethnic group members more or less consciously choose to associate ethnicity with language. In his study, Suleiman (2002) examined the Social Identity Theory for the case of minorities in the context of the Palestinian (Arabic-speaking) minority in Israel. Suleiman (2002) proposed a "double marginality" model, according to which members of the Palestinian minority internalized a marginal civic identity alongside a marginal ethnic identity. Minority members resolved the inherent contradiction between their civic (Israeli) and ethnic (Palestinian) identities by separating the two, rather than by reconciling them. In addition to achieving a critical stability of the self, it is argued that such separation provides minority members with a reasonable degree of self-esteem. This socio-cultural approach is particularly relevant to understanding the motivation of Arabic L1 students acquiring Hebrew as a second language and English as a foreign language in Israel (Amara & Mar'i, 2002; Bekerman & Tatar, 2009).

In the context of the present study, Hebrew L2 input might be a part of Arabic L1 speaking family language practice, which, in turn, is influenced by family language ideology as a part of their family language policy (Spolsky, 2008). Arab parents of students in bilingual educational frameworks choose this alternative in order for their children to learn Hebrew as best they can and, as such, improve their chances of integration and advancement in society (Amara et al., 2007). Bekerman and Tatar (2009) supported this finding by conducting semi-structured interviews with Arabic and Hebrew L1 speaking parents who chose bilingual education for their children. Arabic L1 speaking parents claimed that their children's competence in Hebrew was a primary predictor of their future academic success, since Hebrew is used at academic institutions of higher learning.

Finally, the parents expressed that their children are living their dream of co-existence. In addition, they found that Hebrew L1 speaking parents send their children to bilingual educational frameworks usually for ideological reasons and a belief in coexistence. They also claimed that education for peace was a main factor in their choice, and not necessarily bilingualism. This summarizes differences in the motives that could influence the choice of a bilingual education.

With this theoretical background in mind, we expected there to be a difference in children's language practice at home, which reflect family language ideology regarding L2 practice at home. We expected to find that Arabic speaking families used Hebrew as part of their family language practice to a greater extent as opposed to the extent that Hebrew speaking families used Arabic.

The present study

The current research studied the question of whether the transfer of linguistic abilities from L1 to L2 depends on the viewpoints of the language-speakers' group to the target language. In order to answer this question, we compared L1 Arabic participants to L1 Hebrew participants on three different matched reading tasks in both of the two languages (Hebrew and Arabic) including measures of accuracy and speed of reading. This comparison between reading measures in the two languages was carried out within each subject. That is, the principle innovation of this study is that each subject acquired the opposing language as a second language in the same framework and in the same educational environment (all within the confines of the same bilingual school). This as compared with previous studies that compared readers in different languages (for example, between Russian, Hebrew and Arabic or between Arabic and French), in which the comparison was made between groups of subjects.

In addition, the parents of the children filled out a questionnaire expressing their opinions towards the L2 and the group that it represents (see Appendix 1). Operatively, opinions were tested through multiple-choice tests of preferences of language use (Hebrew or Arabic) that addressed the following areas: the amount of exposure of their children to the L2 in speech, print, books, writing, television shows, and computer games in the target languages at home or with friends. In addition, the questionnaire collected information on parents' education.

The following questions were examined:

1. Is there a difference between Arabic (L1) and Hebrew (L1) speaking children in the acquisition of their L1 (Arabic/Hebrew) and L2 (Arabic/Hebrew) basic reading (rate and accuracy) skills?
2. Within the framework of Family Language Policy, do differences exist between Arabic-speaking (L1) and Hebrew-speaking (L1) parents' self-report on their children's language practice at home?

The dependent variables were word and text reading accuracy and rate in Arabic and Hebrew, and the independent variables were children's L1 background and language that the test was conducted in and children's language/s practice at home.

Method

Participants

Participants included 49 bilingual students from two bilingual schools in Israel (see Table 1 for details). L1 teachers who were also homeroom teachers were consulted and indicated which of the students had mastered reading in both languages. None of the children in the samples suffered from known neurological, emotional, or attention disorders. Only children without reading disabilities participated in the study. Bilingualism was assessed indirectly. For Hebrew native speakers, Hebrew was the sole or major language used in the home. For Arabic native speakers, Arabic was the sole or major language used in the home. The parents of both groups of children were given a 13-item questionnaire to assess the degree to which their children were exposed to L2 at home (see *measures).*

Table 1: Bio-social Background of Children (n = 49)

	N	Mean age in years (SD)	Number of children at home (SD)	Father’s education (M in years and SD)	Mother’s education (M in years and SD)
Group 1 - Arabic native speakers	28	9.4 (5)	3 (2)	15.7 (3.7)	15.6 (2.6)
Group 2 – Hebrew native speakers	21	9.2 (7)	3 (0.8)	18.6 (4.5)	15.6 (2.3)

Measures

Arabic and Hebrew word reading. In order to answer the research questions, three types of lists of words in Arabic were arranged; words consist of connected and similar letters (n = 72), e.g., 24 words consist of connected, e.g., خَيْطٌ and 24 dissimilar letters, e.g., جَاد and 24 words consist of disconnected letters, e.g.,وَرَاء (see examples, Appendix 2). In the Hebrew language, two lists of words were arranged: words consist of similar letters, e.g, דַּדְּר and words consist of dissimilar letters, e.g.,מָיִג since in Hebrew letter do not connect with each other. (see examples, Appendix 3).

For each test of real words, a list of non-words was designed in order to test pure decoding compared with familiar word reading. Words were chosen by distributing a word frequency questionnaire according to the language of the test was given. In other words, Arabic words were rated by L1 Arabic speaking students at a school in the north of Israel. Words in Hebrew, on the other hand, were rated by L1 high school Hebrew speaking students, from a neighboring school in the north of Israel. The word frequency tests scale ranged from 1 (rare) to 5 (very frequent). Finally, 24 words were chosen for each test that scored within the range of 1.5-3.5 on the frequency scale. This facilitated controlling for frequency in the word lists.

Arabic and Hebrew text reading. This consisted of easy, medium and difficult level texts in both languages. The three Arabic texts were chosen based on a rating done by Arabic L1 teachers, where 1 represented very easy and 5 represented very difficult texts. Teachers rated the target texts as ranging between 2 and 4. The texts represented three levels: easy (50 words), medium (92 words) and difficult (146 words). Three parallel Hebrew texts were chosen from a range of texts used in a number of schools in the north and center of Israel as well as from the "Meitzav" tests (Meitzav, 2003). The “Meitzav” tests are standardized tests that are given to pupils countrywide at the end of the each school year in Israel. They are constructed to assess school growth and efficiency indicators and specify how well Israeli pupils are meeting the benchmarks and standards specified in school curricula. The Hebrew texts that were chosen represented three levels and received a rating of between 2 and 4 by L1 Hebrew teachers (1 – very easy and 5 very difficult) where the easy text consisted of 50 words, the medium text consisted of 92 words, and the difficult text consisted of 146 words.

Parent background and children's language practice at home questionnaire

The questionnaire included 13 items of which four items focused on bio-social background information including child's age, number of children in the family, father and mother education, and parents’ education. In addition, a further nine items asked about family language practice in Hebrew and Arabic: language/s spoken between the child-parent and the child with other family members (thee-items), language/s child reads (books and newspapers) in (two-items), language/s child writes in (one-items); language/s child watches TV and plays computer games (three-items). A five-point scale was provided for each answer: 1 - 'Arabic only', 2 - 'Mainly Arabic', 3 – Arabic and Hebrew to an equal degree', 4 - 'Mainly Hebrew', and 5 - 'Hebrew only'.

Procedure

The research was carried out at the respective schools in a quiet room where the researcher met individually with each participant. The meeting with each participant began with a short introduction which provided a short explanation about the content of the session. The aim was to create a relaxed atmosphere and to allay any anxieties about the research. After acquiring participant consent to begin the task, it was explained that he or she should complete 15 tasks in two languages, Hebrew and Arabic, as quickly and as accurately as possible. The tasks included words, pseudo words, and texts. The participants were told that they would not be tested on comprehension at the end of each text.

The order of task presentation was rotated between the participants. In order to ensure that the participant understood test instructions, four example items were provided at the beginning of each test. In addition, the participant was told that reading time would be measured with a stopwatch. All students, regardless whether their L1 was Arabic or Hebrew conducted the tasks in Arabic and Hebrew.

Results

The results are presented in two parts. First, comparisons between L1 and L2 basic reading skills (rate and accuracy) amongst Arabic speakers versus Hebrew speakers are presented. Second, correlational analyses between children's language/s practice at home and their word and text reading accuracy and rate in Arabic versus Hebrew are conducted.

Differences between the groups on decoding rate and accuracy in Arabic and Hebrew as *L1 and L2*

The following results answer the first question of this research which addressed the ease with which children acquired Arabic versus Hebrew second language reading. Reading times and accuracy percentages were analyzed, with first language (Arabic speakers and

Hebrew speakers), language of the test (Arabic and Hebrew), as independent variables, and word and text reading accuracy and rate were used as dependent variables.

To test the differences in L1 word reading rate amongst Arabic L1 versus Hebrew L1 speaking children different one-way analyses were carried out on L1 word reading rate according to L1 background. Significant differences were found $F(1,47) = 19.80$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.30$ where Hebrew speakers were faster than Arabic speakers in their L1 (see Table 2). It is important to note that matching was carried out (as much as possible) for the number of syllables and length of words in all of the word tasks in the two languages. In the discussion section these differences will be addressed.

Table 2: Comparison between the Groups on Reading Rate and Percentage of Reading Accuracy in Arabic and Hebrew as L1 and L2

		Reading rate Hebrew (in sec.)		Reading rate Arabic (in sec.)		Reading accuracy Hebrew		Reading accuracy Arabic	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Arabic L1 speakers	Word	55.79	20.97	50.14	13.32	94.31	5.05	93.73	4.26
	Text	45.49	21.88	24.73	8.38	94.55	4.44	97.73	2.74
Hebrew L1 speakers	Word	34.39	10.67	128.57	53.80	97.62	1.78	64.55	26.22
	Text	16.68	5.10	124.00	56.41	98.87	1.00	65.95	27.32

To test the differences in L1 word reading accuracy amongst Arabic L1 versus Hebrew L1 speaking children different one-way analyses were carried out scores received for word reading according to L1 background. A significant difference was found $F(1,47) = 15.47$, $p< .001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.25$ where Hebrew speakers were more accurate than Arabic speakers.

To test the rate of word reading according to L1 background (Arabic versus Hebrew) and language that the test was conducted a paired t-test was used, and significant differences were found according to language of test $F(1,47) = 80.43$, $p< .001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.63$.

All participants regardless of L1 background were found to be faster in their reading of Hebrew versus Arabic.

In testing word reading accuracy differences according to L1 background and language that the test was conducted in, it was found that Arabic speakers performed similarly on the Arabic reading tasks and the Hebrew reading tasks (truly a second language), while the Hebrew speakers' reading performance in their own language was significantly better. A two-way analysis was carried out on grade of word reading according to L1 background and language that the test was conducted in with repeated measures for test language, and significant differences were found according to L1 background $F(1,47) = 23.14$, $p< .001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.33$. It was also found that Arabic speakers were more successful than Hebrew speakers in reading their second language. Finally, an interaction was found between L1 background and language of test $F(1,47) = 43.84$, $p< .001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.48$. Post-hoc tests reported that for L1 Arabic speaking children no differences were found between accuracy in Arabic word reading and Hebrew word reading, yet for L1 Hebrew speaking children accuracy in Hebrew word reading was higher than Arabic word reading.

In addition, two way ANOVAs showed that Arabic L1 speakers were faster than Hebrew L1 speakers when reading texts in Arabic $F(1,47) = 60.08$, $p< .001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.56$. In addition it was found that Arabic speakers were faster at reading texts in Hebrew as opposed to texts in Arabic, $F(1,47) = 131.51$, $p< .001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.74$.

Results for reading rate in Arabic tasks showed that text reading rate was faster (67.28 sec) than word reading rate (83.76 sec) $F(1,47) = 54.21$, $p< .01$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.54$. A similar trend was found for Hebrew whereby text reading rate was faster for texts (33.14 sec) as opposed to word reading rate (46.52 sec) $F(1,47) = 107.07$, $p< .01$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.70$. This outcome can be attributed to effect of context on reading rate as was found numerously in another language contexts (Adams, 1990).

Two way ANOVAs of reading text accuracy with L1 background as the between group variable and language that the test was conducted in as the within group variable were carried out. Significant differences were found for each group according to L1 background $F(1,47) = 26.05$, $p< .001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.36$. It was also found that Arabic speakers were more successful text accuracy than Hebrew speakers beyond language that the test was conducted in. In addition, differences were found according to language that the test was conducted in,$F(1,47) = 33.16$, $p< .001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.41$, where accuracy in Hebrew was higher than accuracy in Arabic reading. In addition, it was found that the two L1 background groups were more successful (beyond type of test) in reading in Hebrew than in reading in

Arabic. An interaction was found according to L1 background and language that the test was conducted in$F(1,47) = 48.90$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.51$.

Parents' self-reports on children's language practice at home

Group comparisons with regards to their L2 exposure revealed significant differences (see Table 3). As expected, the Arabic L1 speaking parents reported a numerically higher level of exposure of their children to Hebrew than Hebrew L1 speaking parents did with regard to Arabic. Arabic speaking parents reported that their children were less exposed to Hebrew than the Hebrew speaking parents reported regarding their children's exposure to Hebrew. On the other hand, the Hebrew L1 speaking parents reported less exposure of their children to reading books and newspapers written in Arabic, Arabic TV programs and to spontaneous or occasional use of the Arabic language at home.

Table 3: Comparison between Arab and Jewish Children's Exposure to L1 and L2 according to Parents' Self-reports

Variable	Arabic L1 speaking Parents (n = 28)	Hebrew L1 speaking Parents (n = 21)	
	Mean (SD)- hours	*Mean (SD) - hours*	*t*
Exposure to Arabic			
Child-parent spoken language practice	4.2 (.54)	3.1 (.82)	-.58*
Reading of books and newspapers in Arabic at home	4.1 (.37)	3.0 (1.04)	-.57**
Watching T.V. and playing computer games in Arabic	4.5 (.38)	2.9 (.62)	-.48*
Exposure to Hebrew			
Child-parent spoken language practice	3.9 (.36)	4.3 (.22)	.26*
Reading of books in Hebrew at home	3.8 (.45)	4.4 (.46)	.45*
Watching TV and playing computer games in Hebrew	3.6 (.56)	4.3 (.36)	.41*

** p<0.01, ** p<0.001*

Discussion

The current research provides new insights regarding literacy acquisition within the context of bilingual education. The first finding was that after three years of literacy acquisition, the Arabic L1 speaking group was faster and more accurate in Hebrew L2 than in Arabic L1. This highlights the complexity of diglossia together with the orthographic specific characteristics of Arabic. The second finding focuses on socio-linguistic perspectives within the framework of Family Language Policy whereby as expected, Hebrew was used more in the context of Arabic L1 speaking homes than Arabic in Hebrew L1 speaking homes.

The impact of diglossia

The present study provides sobering evidence as to the impact of diglossia on accuracy and reading rate in L1 and L2 Arabic. Hebrew reading was found to be faster and more accurate than Arabic reading for both first language groups (Hebrew, Arabic) and for all measures (word reading, pseudo word and text reading). This finding supports previous findings regarding the challenges of written Arabic for speakers of Arabic as a second language (Eviatar, Ibrahim, & Ganayim, 2004, Ibrahim, Eviatar, & Aharon Peretz, 2002, Maamouri, 1998; Saiegh-Haddad, 2003).

Maamouri (1998) elaborates this further by explaining that Hebrew speakers read in the language they speak, whereas Arabic speakers do not read in the language they speak. In other words, Modern Standard Arabic, which is the literary language, is not a first language. A similar explanation can be found in Saiegh-Haddad's research (2003), where it is suggested that Arabic reading acquisition is influenced by the diglossia of the Arabic language to the point where acquisition of spoken and subsequently Modern Standard Arabic can be considered to be bilingualism (see also in Ibrahim &Peretz, 2005). The fact that the two languages – written and spoken – are used in different contexts and for different communicatory functions retain, and even increases the distance between them.

When comparing the two languages (Hebrew and Arabic), reading rate of words with similar shaped letters in Hebrew among Hebrew speakers was faster than reading rate of words with similar shapes and connected letters in Arabic among Arabic and Hebrew speakers. In this context, it is important to note that even though acquisition of the Hebrew orthography is characterized by some level of complexity due to for example the similarity in the shape of the letters, the acquisition of the Arabic orthography is very much more complicated. Besides for the diglossia of the Arabic language, there is an additional complexity stemming from the similarity in the shape of letters, number of dots above or below, the connection between the letters, together with the changing shape of letters depending on their location within the word. Thus, our data bring additional evidence that this complexity influences both reading accuracy and reading rate among the two groups (Arabic and Hebrew speakers).

This central finding relates to fundamental differences between the two types of tests as well (words versus texts). In this comparison, it was found that among Arabic speakers, text-reading rate was faster than word reading in both languages, and that among Hebrew speakers, text-reading rate was found to be faster than word reading only in their first language. These findings are in line with the processing model of Adams (1990) which emphasizes the role of context in text-reading rate.

Regarding the results of the Hebrew speakers, two compatible explanations account for their poorer results in accuracy and rate of Arabic reading. The first is a psycholinguistic explanation whereby Hebrew-speaking children begin attending classes at the bilingual school without any phonological basis in spoken Arabic because they are not exposed to spoken Arabic in their surroundings (Amara &Mar'i, 2002). The implications of this is that due to diglossia in Arabic which creates phonological and lexical distance between the two layers of the language, the Hebrew L1 speaking children are required to acquire both spoken language ("amiya") and the literary language ("fusha"). This challenge significantly influences the low reading achievements of Hebrew-speaking children (Saiegh-Haddad, 2003, 2004). Second, a connected socio-linguistic explanation is provided in the following section.

Children's language practice from a Family Language Policy persepctive

In addition to the challenges posed by diglossia on the Arabic reading acquisition success of Hebrew speaking children, a possible influencing factor that affects performance of these children in Arabic was found to be socio-linguistic. There were found to be differences between Hebrew speaking parents and Arabic speaking parents, reports on their children's L2 exposure at home.

According to this, knowledge of the Arabic language is not considered to be a priority among the L1 Hebrew speaking public, since fluency in Arabic does not provide career opportunities or career advancement and is was addressed in the introduction, Israeli Arab citizens are Hebrew speakers (Spolsky&Shohamy, 1999). Moreover, in many sections of Jewish society, opinions of the Arabic language are not particularly positive and reflect negative attitudes towards Arabs in general (Amara et al., 2007).

However, it is important to note that these aforementioned studies on attitudes toward the Arabic language did not investigate attitudes within the framework of bilingual schools. In this regard, Abu-Rabia (2005) reports that social context might affect language acquisition at a young age, and it was found that Hebrew-speaking students do not learn Arabic for day-to-day needs, and this may explain their weak emotional ties to the Arabic language and culture (Abu-Rabia, 1998).

As was reported above, Bekerman and Tatar (2009) found that Hebrew L1 speaking parents who send their children to bilingual schools usually do so mostly for ideological reasons including a belief in coexistence. Arabic (L1) speaking parents of children in bilingual schools, on the other hand, choose this option among the others to facilitate their children learning Hebrew to the best possible extent in order to ease their integration and advancement in society (Amara et al., 2007; Bekerman& Tatar, 2009). These differences in the main motives might affect the level of home oral and written practice of L2 in Arab and Jewish homes. Indeed, we found that the Arab parents reported a higher level of exposure of their children to Hebrew. On the other hand, the Jewish parents reported less exposure of their children to TV programs in Arabic and to Arabic language in spontaneous or occasional use at home. Similarly, in a recent study by Klayle (2012), which focused on family language policy in bilingual Arabic-Hebrew speaking preschools, it was found that only few Jewish parents exposed their children to TV in Arabic. In addition, significant differences were also obtained concerning the parents' occasional use of the L2 with their child: the Arab parents used the L2 in the household to a greater extent than the Jewish group.

Another socio-linguistic explanation for the Hebrew-speaking children's results in Arabic reading is the predominance of the Hebrew language within the reality of the bilingual school environment. Amara et al. (2007) found that the language that is emphasized in bilingual schools is still Hebrew. This is despite the immense effort in the linguistic arena to make these languages equal (mostly two teachers in each class, L1 Arabic speaking and L1 Hebrew speaking, Arab science teacher in Kfar Kara in the Galilee, posters in both languages) (Amara, et al, 2007). In this situation, the two languages are still not presented equally in the school as in Israeli society for a number of reasons: (1) most of the Hebrew-speaking teachers do not speak Arabic, and (2) therefore when these teachers teach a class by themselves, the class is mostly monolingual. When a Hebrew-speaking teacher requires students to complete homework, all of the students submit their homework in Hebrew, because the teacher cannot grade homework in Arabic.

However, the Arab teachers speak a considerable amount of Hebrew and enough to teach one class in two languages if necessary (despite the clear requirement of the management of the school to try to speak Arabic both in and out of the classroom). In addition, when a teacher of a subject is an Arabic speaker she does not require the students to submit their homework in Arabic and the Hebrew-speaking students choose to submit their homework in Hebrew.

A representative survey that was conducted among Jews and Arabs at the end of 2007 reported positive opinions regarding the establishment and development of bilingual schools (Azaiza, Shoham, Hertz-Lazarowitz, Amara, Ali &Mor-Sommerfeld, 2007). Alongside this survey of opinions, it seems that the children and parents in bilingual schools are interested in the study of Hebrew and Arabic and contribute together with the results of this study to the negative perceptions that were found and reported by Abu-Rabia, Cummins, and colleagues (Abu-Rabia, 1996; Cummins &Danesi, 1990). Without a doubt, the situation of Arabic-speaking students in Israel learning the Hebrew language, with the reality of the Arab-Israeli conflict and the existing social-ethnic conflict between Jews and Arabs in Israel in the background, reflect the social problems of Israel (Bar Tal, 2007). It almost certainly seems that these conflicts influence the educational arena in general and second language learning among Hebrew and Arabic speakers in particular.

Based on the results within the Arabic-speaking ethnic minority, we believe that the pattern shown by the native Arabic speakers reflects group identification and attitudes toward the majority, for whom Hebrew is the national language. These results conform to Schumann’s (1986) Acculturation Model. Thus the Arabic speaker’s perception of the general relationship between their L1 and L2 culture and the social distance between them influences the degree of their language control in the target language. According to Schumann’s Acculturation Model bilingual schools utilize language learning situations which are far from optimal, since the Arab language group views the Hebrew speakers group as dominant and the Hebrew speakers group views itself in the same way. Cook (2001) explained that the roots of motivation to learn L2 are deep in the minds and the cultural backgrounds. On the other hand, Lambert (1990) says that L2 learners feel they are adding something new to their skills and experience by learning a new language, without taking anything away from what they already know. This is called additive bilingualism.

Conclusions and future research

The present study investigated 3rd and 4th grade bilingual Arabic/Hebrew-speaking learners in relation to several factors which are central to issues of second language learning. While it does not aim to propose an explanatory model of second language proficiency, the findings of the present study hint that the predictors discussed above may be good candidates in building such a model, at least for the present target population. We have seen that measures of speed and accuracy of reading in Hebrew among Hebrew speakers were significantly higher than measures of reading in Arabic among Arabic speakers. Our conclusion was that Hebrew speakers did not succeed in transferring their proficiency and success in reading in their mother tongue to success in reading the second language. Although in the educational system in Israel, there is no doubt that bilingual schools allow for a real change in the segregation of the educational system and in giving due respect and emphasis to both languages and cultures together (Amara et al, 2007), there is a Hebrew still the dominant culture and language. The findings regarding parents and learners' attitudes towards the foreign (Arab or Jewish) culture contribute to debates regarding policies in acquiring second language as follows: second language learning in the state of Israel may need to be reevaluated in terms of its current status in bilingual schools, in view of the finding that it is not so favorable to young learners. The findings of the present study rather suggest that it is useful to explore the relationship between some hitherto neglected aspects of second language learning (L1 proficiency, vocabulary knowledge, and learners' attitudes) and L2 proficiency. Furthermore, in view of the growing interest in the spectrum of socio-linguistic integration and bilingualism, the bilingual schools approach delivered through one few institutions appears to be neither a learner-favored one, nor a cutting-edge teaching methodology. However, we evaluate that such idea (of bilingual schools) can encourage shared activities of parents and by this to bridge the gap between the opinions of parents in each ethnic-cultural group, especially with regard to attitudes of Jewish parents. Updated research findings found that opinions of the Arab parents regarding coexistence is more positive than that of Jewish parents, and therefore Arab parents reported investing more in cultivating a higher level of Hebrew literacy in the family (Hertz-Lazarowitz, 2004; Zelniker, & Hertz-Lazarowitz, 2005).

Finally, as it may be true that while L1 influence could be negative in terms of some specific linguistic elements, L1 and second language proficiencies, particularly in the sense of Affective Attitudes, may be related (though not causative). In that regard future research is needed to investigate such factors.

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Appendix 1

Parents' questionnaire

a. What language do your children speak at home?

1	2	3	4	5
Only Arabic	Mostly Arabic	Hebrew/Arabic the same	Mostly Hebrew	Only Hebrew

b. What language your child is watching on television?

1	2	3	4	5
Only Arabic	Mostly Arabic	Hebrew/Arabic the same	Mostly Hebrew	Only Hebrew

c. In what language does your child read books?

1	2	3	4	5
Only Arabic	Mostly Arabic	Hebrew/Arabic the same	Mostly Hebrew	Only Hebrew

d. What languages your child read the printed press?

1	2	3	4	5

Only Arabic Mostly Arabic Hebrew/Arabic the same Mostly Hebrew Only Hebrew

e. In what language/s does your child prefer to write?

1	2	3	4	5
Only Arabic	Mostly Arabic	Hebrew/Arabic the same	Mostly Hebrew	Only Hebrew

f What languages do your child prefers to talk?

g What are you child's favorite television shows? (give examples)

h Is the child at home using another language?
Yes / No.

i If yes, what language? ________________________________

j What is the main use of the additional language? (You can mark more than one answer).
1. Speaking on. 2. Reading 3. Writing 4. TV shows.

k Which computer games your child prefer to play? (Give examples)

l In which language they prefer to play?

m What languages your child read the printed press?

Appendix 2.*Experimental conditions in Arabic*

Words which of similar letters and connected	Words which consist of dissimilar letters and connected	Words which consist of letters that are disconnected.			
Word	Non-word	word	non-word	word	non-word
تنْتَاب	بَتْنلت	مَذْياع	ذَ يْعَم	أوْزَان	أزْوَان
Tantab	Batnat	methyaa'	thaya'am	awzan	Azwan

Appendix 3.*Experimental conditions in Hebrew*

Words which consist of similar letters	Words which consist of dissimilar letters.

A word	A non- word	A word	A non- word
חֲרָדָה	דָחוּר	זָהוּב	זָהוּל
Harad	dahor	zahov	Zahol

A Case of CLIL Practice in the Turkish Context: Lending an ear to Students

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Abstract

Though CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) has not yet been extensively practiced in Turkey at all educational levels, it could be observed mainly at the higher education levels at some selected faculties of either state universities or private ones. This study explores the CLIL practice reflections by reporting the views of students at a state university. After data had been collected through semi-structured interviews, the findings were coded and categorized based on the principles of content analysis. The findings revealed that students considered instruction in English as a great advantage with feelings of success and self-confidence; on the other hand, students expressed that comprehension of the content in L2, specifically the terminology, was a big challenge. Additionally, they claimed that their course curricula are simpler than those in L1 as a result of CLIL practice. What's more, they feel no improvement but some regression in their productive skills after having had the one-year intensive program of preparatory courses. Content instructors could be suggested to cooperate with language teachers and be more aware of the students' language problems and seek linguistic advice.

Keywords: CLIL, higher education, advantages and disadvantages, reflection, student perspective

1. Introduction

A wide range of approaches and models has been tried out with the ultimate aim of increasing the effectiveness of language teaching. Among these, content-based instruction (CBI) is an approach integrating language and content instruction (Brinton & Wesche, 2003) that is grounded in sound theoretical approaches. The two dimensions of the approach– language and content– melt in the same pot with different proportions from different perspectives. Although what is expected as to language teaching is considerably long-established, the reference for *content* has been subject to change in the course of time. In that sense, Crandall and Tucker (1990, p.187) restricted the scope to “academic subject matter” whilst Curtain and Pesola (1994, p.35) covered level appropriateness as seen in “...curriculum concepts being taught through the foreign language ... appropriate to the grade level of the students...”. More recently Marsh (2000), who has coined the term CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) in 1994, broadened its scope by adding the cultural dimension. Content-based instruction can be categorized according to the weight given to content and language teaching. The proportion and degree of language and content teaching are given particular importance during curriculum preparation. To illustrate, the most eminent continuum model outlined by Stoller (2004) shows from the most content-oriented to the least content oriented, namely from the sheltered content instruction to the theme-based language instruction.

2. Theoretical background

The need to make a distinction between what CBI and CLIL refer to should be met and where this paper is positioned along with this continuum should be determined. The plethora of definitions about teaching content in another language rather than in the mother tongue of learners has led to the clarification of focus. Long before CLIL emerged, CBI had been considered as “a continuum of language-content integration” (Met, 1999, p.4) with content-driven focus at one end and language-driven at the other. To link this continuum to this paper, the research focus here is the content-driven one and specifically sheltered-content instruction (Brinton, Snow & Wesche, 2003, pp. 15-22) in which content is taught to non-native speakers by a subject specialist with an indirect attention to the language-teaching dimension. Moreover, this instruction coincides with the CLIL perspective set as “a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language.” (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010, p.1). As an additional note, CLIL makes use of a foreign language, not a second language. In other words, practicing the language of instruction is limited to classrooms since it is not regularly and commonly used by the wider society (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smith, 2010).

In this respect, CLIL is content-driven (ibid.) and thereby, the context in Turkish higher education institutions offers such a “dual-focused approach” through “English as an additional language”. Hence, this paper hereafter will use the term *CLIL* to refer to the higher education context studied.

2.1. How CLIL differs from other instructions

CLIL differs from other content-based approaches in that “classroom content is not so much taken from everyday life or the general content of the target language culture but rather from content subjects, from academic, scientific disciplines or from the professions.” (Wolff, 2007, p.16). Moreover, CLIL is not a forced make-believe situation; on the contrary, it sets a specific goal on content learning through L2, and making the classroom context more feasible and plausible. Widdowson supports this idea by stating “… what is told in classrooms in certain crucial respects cannot be in accordance with actual language use. Actual language use occurs naturally within the continuities of social life. Apparently activated by context, and motivated by the need of communication and the expression of communal and individual identity.” (Widdowson, 2010, p.112).

Students do not just come and sit in classrooms; some attained roles are performed as individuals, group members, students, listeners or actors. They constantly interact with their classmates, their teachers, the objects in the classroom, and the task they work on as Widdowson (2010, p.113) points out its vibrant structure as a “social construct” of its natural components. The dynamic form of CLIL classroom in which students and their teachers are not only passive recipients but also active and interactive agents (Halliday, 1982) generates a better-constructed classroom that supports efficient language practice. Essentially, as for the productive feature, Marsh underlines the role of a wide variety of opportunities for meaningful tasks and language use helping students to speak in the classroom more (Marsh, 2000).

The learning environment CLIL provides is full of vast opportunities with abundance meaningful input. As is the case, the root of CLIL could be linked to both Swain’s Output Hypothesis (1985) and Krashen’s Input hypothesis (1994). Although it is vital to point here that two hypotheses differ in their basics, CLIL eclectically makes use of both, by providing learners opportunities to experience the language while pushing them beyond their comfort zone. Thus, students could see the gap between what they want to and are able to say; hence, making them more self-aware by reflecting on their needs, and linguistic knowledge. On the other hand, CLIL gives utmost importance to exposure to comprehensible input, which increases the linguistic competence while creating a basis for learners to act upon. In this case, input is provided through various content materials either written or spoken, and always challenges students to be engaged and motivated by the material.

For a detailed insight to the practices, it is necessary to provide what Wesche and Shekan (2002, p. 221) listed as the highlighted contextual and pedagogical features of CBI: Learners receive 'two for one: content and language', while expository texts and discourse are central in the language curriculum; additionally, orientation into a new culture is enhanced; language input, interactional moves, and context are adapted to accommodate learners' limited language proficiency, and focus is on the academic language proficiency.

The need for this study emerged from a bottom-up perspective; that is, the researchers realized the gap in the national and local literature as for the practical side of the CLIL approach from the practitioners' view. Related studies conducted in Turkey, mainly in the form of theses and dissertations, cover topics ranging from teachers' working definitions of CBI (Durmaz, 2001) to the needs analysis for the CBI curriculum (Canbay, 2006) and theme-based CBI in the young learners' foreign language development (Kızıltan & Ersanlı, 2007). More recently, with respect to the advancements in the ICT integration, Demirdirek, Özgirgin and Salatacı (2010) analyzed the use of e-documentaries in academic contexts of CBI reaching positive outcomes. As a final striking example, Kırkgöz (2009) examined the effectiveness of foreign language instruction in an English medium university from the students and teachers' perspectives. Given the fact that the active agents' roles and perceptions play a significant role as a part of needs analysis and curriculum development, this study aims to identify the place and role of CLIL throughout the learning process.

3. The study

3.1. Context: CLIL in Turkey

CLIL in Turkey dates back to 1955 with the foundation of Maarif Schools in six different cities of Turkey (Çetintaş & Genç, 2001). Those pioneer schools started education at the high school level and were later named as Anatolian (Anadolu) High Schools in 1975 where the medium of instruction was a foreign language most preferably English; while a few schools offered courses in French and German. The reason for the establishment of these schools according to the national government publication was "Gradually developing cultural and economic contacts between our country and other nations demand young people who are good at learning other world languages, and who know how to benefit from scientific studies at an utmost level so as to keep up with rapidly developing economic and technical studies" (TBMM Tutanak Dergisi, 1955 as cited in Çetintaş & Genç, 2001, p.51). To note further, these schools, as stated in the official paper, aimed to provide the required knowledge and skills to "students who are capable of speaking in a foreign language, comprehending it in different contexts, translating scientific texts into Turkish effectively, and expressing themselves in writing adequately" (Resmi Gazete, 1984 as cited in Çetintaş & Genç, 2001, p.51).

According to the data from Council of Higher Education (Yükseköğretim Kurulu-YÖK), in Turkey there are 188 universities (state, foundation and private) and they fall into three categories in accordance with the use of English as a medium of instruction: Universities that use English as a medium of instruction in all, some (selected majors mainly natural sciences) or none (L1 only) of their academic programs (YÖK, 2012). As of 2012, 35 universities in Turkey use English as the medium of instruction in all their academic programs; whilst, only selected programs in 80 universities use English as medium of instruction. These selected programs are mainly offered at the Faculty of Engineering, Faculty of Economic and Administrative Sciences, and lastly the Faculty of Arts and Science (YÖK, 2012). It is possible to say that CLIL is being practiced in all levels of education with varying degrees, seen more in higher education which coincides with what Coleman (2006, p.1) stated as "English is progressively becoming the language of higher education in Europe". Further, he uncovers the reasons as (ibid, p. 4): "CLIL, internationalization, student exchanges, teaching and research materials, staff mobility, graduate employability and the market in international students". Accordingly, this study explores the CLIL factor in higher education institutions (HEI) in the national context with regard to foreign language education. Nonetheless, this study is limited to the number of students, to a single location and methods of data collection. Further research with students at different proficiency levels in different stages of education would likely to yield more prosperous results.

4. Methodology

This qualitative study is based on the data collected through semi-structured interviews. The sampling for this study is grounded in volunteer sampling as a type of non-probability sampling (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). Fifteen voluntary participants were asked 11 questions in a semi-structured interview by one of the researchers. Each interview took about 15 minutes and was recorded by taking detailed notes. The interviews were conducted in Turkish to elicit the answers in more detail and to communicate with students more effectively. Additionally, the interviews were not video recorded as students would not probably feel comfortable and give consent. During the data collection process, two researchers later coded the written records separately; combined the separate sheets and revised coding considering the principles of content analysis approach (ibid, 2007) by identifying the patterns and concurring themes in the interviews at the same time. As a final step, the categorized data were listed in tables.

With the aim of outlining the current CLIL practices from the students' perspectives, this study seeks answers to the following questions:

1. What are the positive perceptions of students about English-medium instruction with regard to their CLIL practice?
2. What are the negative perceptions of students about English-medium instruction with regard to their CLIL practice?
3. What are the perceived language use and strategies of students about English-medium instruction with regard to their CLIL practice?
4. What are the reflections of students about English-medium instruction with regard to their CLIL practice?

4.1. Setting

This study took place in a mid-sized university located in the western part of Turkey. The medium of instruction is English in the departments of Physics, Chemistry, Biology, and Mathematics at the Faculty of Arts and Science. Although Faculty of Engineering as well as Faculty of Economic and Administrative Sciences have several programs in English, this study focuses on a single faculty that offers the highest number of programs in English. It should be pointed out that CLIL typically is practiced in natural sciences majors and courses in Turkey.

All of the participating lecturers, non-native speakers of English, have no direct relation or interest in language teaching pedagogically; namely, they are not language teachers with content knowledge as typical of majority of CLIL contexts in Turkey. However, although they are subject specialists and researchers in their professional domain; language instruction and feedback have been provided throughout the lessons where necessary. For instance, the most common ways of dealing with language issues are working on affixes for the new words with a detailed analysis of words and their origins, making use of analogies and visuals as often as possible. The educational materials used aid teachers to overcome the issue of “language as a barrier”. As for instructors’ language competence, according to the related YÖK (Council of Higher Education) Law numbered 27074 and dated 04/12/2008, the instructors for these programs should meet one of the following requirements: being a native speaker of the language instructed, having studied abroad or in a university/program where the medium of instruction was the related foreign language or having passed the inter/nationally recognized language proficiency tests (YÖK, 2012).

The students of aforementioned departments have to attend a 780-hours-long Basic English courses, named as preparatory classes, unless they succeed to pass the English proficiency exam before they are allowed to start their departments. The students, moreover, have to enroll in two Academic Reading-Writing classes during their first year at their departments, designed according to their proficiency level and major.

4.2. Participants

As can be seen in the Appendix 2, 15 participants are the students from the departments of Physics, Chemistry, Biology, and Mathematics, where the medium of instruction is English for all the classes except for Turkish language and History. They will be referred hereafter in this paper as listed and coded in the Appendix 2; for instance, St6 refers to 3rd year Biology student. Their age ranges from 18 to 25; seven of them are male, while eight of them are female. They all had stayed at the university preparatory schools for a year before they started studying in their departments. Their proficiency level of English is between B1 and B2 according to CEFr (Common European Framework of References for Languages), and they go through a proficiency exam assessing both productive and receptive skills. All the participants have been learning English since fourth grade as foreign language education in Turkey starts then. As officially required, they attended English classes for four hours a week at the primary level for five years; additionally, received English classes two to four hours a week for the first two years of their high school education. They are all graduates of regular high schools; therefore, have not participated in any kind of CLIL classes before university. They were expected to have reached B1 level by the end of high school. However, they all consider themselves beginner learners, though all have attained English at the preparatory school at the university.

5. Findings and Discussion

The interview questioned the students' view of CLIL in the aforementioned HEI in terms of its perceived advantages and disadvantages. The interview can be divided into four parts; the questions (see Appendix 1) were organized mainly to gather insights about students' perspectives on the advantages and disadvantages of CLIL. The following part of the interview sought to uncover how students use the language in and out of class and their language learning strategies they utilize to increase their level of proficiency in English. The last part of the interview dwells on students' reflection on what they should or should not do to succeed in their departments.

5.1 Perceived Advantages of CLIL

The students' responses described below demonstrate their perceived advantages of CLIL as they have experienced it during their higher education. Table 1 lists the reported advantages with frequency and percentages.

Table 1. Students' Perceived Advantages of CLIL

Perceived advantages	F	%
English as a global language	15	100
Access to materials	9	60
Practicing English	15	100
Job opportunities	15	100
Going abroad for work or study	8	53
Academic studies	6	40
Feeling of accomplishment	10	67

When asked whether they decided to study in their particular departments considering the means of education, all the participants responded positively. They perceive studying at their departments in English as an advantage for they assume CLIL could foster their proficiency in English.

It could be inferred that students consider themselves privileged compared to those who study in the same departments from other universities with instruction in Turkish. Student 13 explained her reasons to choose her department as *"Knowing English is an advantage when it comes to finding a job and when the time comes, I will not need to learn*

English from the scratch." Yet another student (St14) lists her reasons to study in her department, as "I want to work in a place where knowing English is an advantage. *There are so many math departments in Turkey but only five or six of them use English as the medium of instruction. Here I feel privileged and special.*" Almost all students consider CLIL instruction advantageous as a means to study and even work abroad.

Students specify and classify other advantages of CBI as personal and academic. With reference to the personal ones, they describe a feeling of success and confidence when they compare themselves with other students from L1 instructed departments. They see studying at their departments in English extremely challenging. In addition, they consider fully understanding the course content as a sign of success and accomplishment. To quote one student (St1), "*I like the feeling of success. I feel better when I understand the concepts of that course.*"

The academic benefits reckoned by the students are those related to the status of English in the world. As Crystal (2003) defines knowing English motivates learners because it links them to the outer world; students state respectively that they can reach more and up-to-date materials, find abundant examples on the subjects predominantly in English. Unfortunately, the number of materials available in Turkish is limited and most of the available ones are translated from English. Graddol (1997, p.45) in his book devotes a section to English-medium higher education and explains the need for English instruction "especially in the sciences, as it is easy to access worldwide to a wide-range of resources already published in English". The student statements clearly indicate that they obviously find themselves academically and personally better situated with CLIL.

5.2 Perceived Disadvantages of CLIL

In addition to the advantages, some challenges and disadvantages perceived by the students are listed below (see Table 2).

Table 2. Students' Perceived Disadvantages of CLIL

Perceived disadvantages	F	%
Subject matter difficulty	15	100
Studying in English	8	53
Terminology/vocabulary	9	60
Curricula	3	20
Discomfort in classes	14	93
Qualified instructors	7	47

CLIL brings some challenges to the students; first, subject matter difficulty. All students depict the subjects and concepts as “backbreaking” even in Turkish, which explains why they find learning content in English even more challenging. They set learning and understanding new terms as the most difficult goal to attain. When asked what the difficulties of CLIL are, one of the students (St12) answered as “*Terminology; always a new concept comes up and knowing it in Turkish is never enough. You have to understand what it means*.” The student continues by admitting that he occasionally does not understand the underlying concept even in Turkish. Another one (St2) added “*I study in English, and when there is an unknown term that I cannot understand, I look it up, then, it leads to another unknown term. Before I learn it, I am way distracted from my starting point and everything turns into a mess*.” Though at the high school level, the study by Mirici, Arslan, Hoşgörür and Abdullah (2000; as cited in Çelebi, 2006, p.294) reveals that students complain about science courses in English perceived as leading to failure both during the courses and later in the university entrance exam that is in Turkish. Hence, some students see no point in having the content classes in English.

Many of the students (St 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 10, 12, 14 and 15) complained about studying in English as there are numerous unknown vocabulary items hampering them. They reported distress about having to memorize the concept without fully grasping the whole idea behind it because they are overwhelmed by tedious hours of study. Similar incidences were also observed in the study by Hellekjær (2010) in the Norwegian English-medium classes; however, the study pointed out that higher education students could have similar comprehension problems both in L1 and L2. Besides, students, in their self-assessments, criticized having more difficulties in L2 lectures. One of the students (St15) summarized the situation “*We try to understand the language itself (English) in the first place, then, the topics*.” Students expressed their linguistic problems in relation to not only homework and self-study but also the lectures. All of the students expressed their insecurity and lack of confidence during lectures. They say no matter how carefully they listen to the lectures, there is always something missing; they never completely understand it. They said, sometimes *that missing key word* could cause to misinterpret the whole lecture. Student 3 explained that she studied before each class and checked terms and vocabulary so that she could comprehend 70-80% of the lesson. She commented as “*It is all about the language. If you are good at it, you do not encounter any major problems in class*.”

Moreover, students (St1, 3, 4, 5, 8, 11, 12 and 14) mentioned the difficulty of studying for the exams as another negative aspect of CLIL. The biggest problem stated was struggling with the unknown vocabulary while getting ready for exams. When compared to students studying in the Turkish-medium departments, they find themselves studying more and getting lower grades. Student 3 listed their proficiency level in English as the reason, stating that it definitely has an effect on the exams. Another explanation for low grades by St 4, 8, 12 and 14 is their use of course materials in Turkish, that causes to internalize the concepts in Turkish and makes it harder to answer the exam questions in English. However, to the students, their grades increase as they get used to the instructions and using materials in English as also mentioned by Klaassen (2001, as cited in Airey, 2009: 26).

Echoing Butler (2005:231) this study in the local context highlights similar issues listed as stress, difficulty in understanding the content, and low levels of L2 development. However, no point has been declared about time and energy loss. In the Turkish context, Erdem and Morgil (1992) identified that students have had issues in comprehending the content of science and mathematics courses; besides, teachers have fallen short of effective instruction in terms of both the language and content. In support of our findings, this research (ibid, 1992) pointed out the need for a variety of materials and a curriculum based on the academic needs of the learners. Accessing materials and finding the way to comprehend the content either in L1 or L2 have long been topics of concern for the CLIL settings.

A further discomfort declared by some students (St1, 2 and 3) is that the curricula in the first two years are less complex compared to the curricula of the universities whose medium of instruction is Turkish. The freshman students interviewed were in agreement on this; yet, other students rejected stating they would catch up with everyone else in the end.

5.3 Language use and strategies

The actual language practices through language use in the classroom as can be seen in Table 3 give clues about impact of CLIL on the language proficiency development of learners.

Table 3. Students' Language Use in the Classroom

Language Use in the Classroom	F	%
Regression in productive skills	8	53
Progress in receptive skills	13	87
Code-switching	15	100
Correction they receive	1	7
Classroom language in L2	10	67
Participation in class	1	7

All students commented that their competence in productive skills is either regressing or making no progress as stated by Airey (2009), Johnson and Swain (1994) as well as Varkuti (2010). To students, because they do not have enough opportunities to practice speaking and writing in or out of classes, they cannot improve their productive skills. Nevertheless, receptive skills such as increased vocabulary were listed as favorable due to compulsory practice opportunities to survive in class. When asked their degree of participation, they mentioned to have rarely participated in classes. They described what they do in the classes simply as “taking notes and giving one word answers to the questions or just nodding”. They pointed out the time needed to construct one sentence in English and the pacing of the lecture as an explanation for their silence. Airey (2009, p. 33) named this problem as “the problem of English scientific literacy” based on the data from student interviews and classroom extracts that emphasize the students’ difficulties with science-related concepts. Accordingly, Bellar (2003) explored that interaction in another language takes time because of the demanding cognitive process it requires to find the right idea and its corresponding forms. He listed the difficulty of communicating with more fluent speakers and claimed that it added up complexity to the process making it almost impossible. As for the interaction in this study, it is essential to analyze the classroom context clearly; classes are generally teacher-fronted with lectures including laboratory work with a little student output unless students make presentations. This can be linked to the limitations of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) setting where target language production opportunities are restricted to student participation in classes mainly through tasks and presentations.

On the other hand, all of the students admit switching to Turkish if they need to form a sentence, confessing that they are not forced or pressured to speak in English and they know it for a fact that the professor will understand well what they want to say as they speak the same L1. The major reason for code-switching is to facilitate the learning and teaching process as also encountered in several studies (Ariffin & Husin, 2011; Jingxia, 2010). Following this, the students compared the lesson structure in preparatory school to their lectures, concluding that preparatory school was language focused as the teachers had placed emphasis on how and how much to use English; however, students’ L1 use mattered to an extent as long as they have the right answer. Concerning the relation between EFL lessons and CLIL classes, students in the study by Dalton-Puffer, Hüttner, Schindelegger and Smit (2009) reported the benefits of grammar instruction and time spent on communicative skills practice in the EFL lessons. Furthermore, they expressed that

"You do not learn a language in CLIL but in the English lesson" (ibid, 22). Moreover, most of the students (St3, 5, 6, 9, 10, 11, 12, 15) share that they do not find themselves good at speaking and writing as they used to be in preparatory school. These statements contradict with the study by Sunel (1994) in that preparatory classes were seen as pointless and useless for further studies, namely as a waste of time. Nevertheless, participating students declared no negative statements about their previous language education.

Student 12 stated "*I don't think I would get as high grades from the speaking and writing exams of proficiency exam as I did last year. Neither can I write those essays I did last year nor can I speak that fluently*." Another student (St3) marked "*I listen to songs in English, watch TV series in English. All I do is to listen and read. The only place I can practice English is class and it just doesn't happen there.*"

Lack of confidence and entrepreneurship seems to a secondary reason why students do not speak in classes. They all mentioned picturing themselves humiliated in front of everyone in the class when they tried and failed to speak fluently. Student 8 said, "*It is not like preparatory school, no one is encouraging you to speak. When you make a mistake, all sixty pairs of eyes are staring at you*." Another student (St2) described how he prepares himself to ask a question in English as "*If I want to ask a question in English, I form it first in Turkish, then translate it to English and write it on a piece of paper so that I don't forget it*." It could be concluded that when students' accuracy increases, their fluency and complexity drop and vice versa. It is difficult to concentrate on both at the same time as has been stated by Skehan and Forter (1999). Hence, CLIL teachers need to pay as much attention to language output as they do to provide input and help students feel comfortable with their linguistic mistakes.

The required occasions where students have to write are limited to class notes, laboratory reports and exams. Students gave several answers about how they took notes; some stating it was best to take notes in English because the materials were already in English, or in Turkish as they understood better and wrote faster in L1. About the reports, students explained there was a template of laboratory reports and they basically followed it using a very limited number of grammar structures. They (St7, 8, 9, 10, and 11) commented about laboratory reports, as "*Mastering passive voice and some connectors is enough to write a laboratory report.*" Finally, they write in English during the exams; however, if the professors permit they can answer the questions in Turkish. Student 4 told an interesting anecdote "*I once begged the professor to let me write the answer in Turkish. I said I know the answer but can't write it in English. I got 4 out of 10 instead of 0*."

Some of the students (St 1, 2, 3, 12, 13, 14 and 15) pointed out the manner and style of some professors and their attitude towards English as other important factors influencing the students' English usage. They criticized that some professors hardly pay attention to pronunciation mistakes and do not self-correct. It would be appropriate here to cite Hellekjær (2010) who identified the main problems in lecture comprehension in L2 as unclear pronunciation and word segmentation of lecturers or low listening proficiency and strategy use levels of learners. They also expected a high level of proficiency in English from all professors pointing to the fact that if the proficiency level of professors in English is not high, they are not fully qualified to teach in English. Student 7 claimed "*I don't understand anything not because there are unfamiliar terms or vocabulary but because I forget the beginning of the sentence as the professor speaks with long pauses.*" There is a general agreement among the students (St 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 and 15) that they have difficulty in the class when they are not familiar with the pronunciation of the professor or when there are too many pauses during the lecture. To go further, having similar problems, students in the study by Dalton-Puffer, Hüttner, Schindelegger and Smit (2009) proposed that teachers who lack required proficiency level should go abroad for a year.

Students perceived that their receptive skills have been improving and their level of vocabulary has definitely been increasing because they "were exposed to English even if they try not to". Students reported almost 70% of the classes were in English and they were satisfied with the level of English. Student 4 emphasized that "*It would be much more difficult and I would not be able to understand the classes this way if professors did not use Turkish during the lecture at all. I, at least, get the gist of the subject when they summarize the point in Turkish*." Additionally, some students (St1, 4, 8, 9, 10 and 11) expressed their content in the way the instructions are switched to Turkish saying "it is much easier that way."

Student 5 uttered the opposite "*I wish the professors did not use Turkish at all. That would make me force myself to understand the English version rather than waiting for the Turkish explanation*." In a similar fashion, students in the study by Dalton-Puffer, Hüttner, Schindelegger and Smit (2009) addressed the importance of teachers' use of English and how they appreciate having been exposed to English at all times. Student 15 further explained the situation saying "*Even if the professor lectures in English, the laboratory practice of the same class is in Turkish so I learn some stuff in English some in Turkish. It is all a mess*." Student 2 commented about the laboratory instruction telling "*We have all* *the resources in the laboratories, even the machines we use are in English, but we do it all in Turkish*."

One of the factors that forces both students and professors to constantly and consistently use English in class is the foreign students (mainly exchange students) who know little or no Turkish. The students stated that although the materials were all in English, the professors generally switched to Turkish to explain the key points. However, with the presence of foreign students, students were forced to ask and answer questions in English and the percentage of switching to Turkish is highly limited to very vital occasions. Airey (2009: 26), as well, pointed out the effect of "a single exchange student" as a positive contribution. Student 10 added "*Sometimes the professor lectures for an hour, repeating the same thing again and again but we just don't get it. At that point he has no other option but to give up and explain in Turkish despite our foreign classmates*."

Students listed their studying strategies as studying the class notes, studying materials in Turkish or in English (see Table 4).

Table 4. Students' Use of Language Strategies

Language Strategies	f	%
Note taking	15	100
Consulting to L1 resources	15	100
Dictionary use	5	33
Translation	12	80
Integration of L2 into daily life	5	33
Authentic materials (eg. music, movies, books) in L2	5	33

All of them accepted that at one point or another they consult to materials in Turkish but studying only with them proves very risky as one of them (St11) portrayed, "*I studied only from a resource in Turkish. I knew answers to all the questions in the exam but I could not translate them. I was terrified then*." This case mirrors the findings of Hellekjær (2010:246) unveiling the comprehension difficulties among which "unfamiliar vocabulary" is a major case. All students attain importance to memorizing vocabulary and getting familiar with the terminology. Some of them (St4, 5, 7, 9 and 11) even advocated the need to use three dictionaries: a bilingual, a monolingual in English and a content dictionary. They pointed that the richer their vocabulary schema was, the more successful and confident they felt. They commented on trying to incorporate English into their daily lives but they felt it looked ridiculous to communicate with another Turk in English. When asked what they specifically and intentionally did to improve their competence in English, they thought for a while and most of them said “Not much, nothing special I guess.”

5.4 Students’ reflections about themselves

As conclusive from the statement above, students do not consider themselves as trying really hard to improve their English. They are not very content with the proficiency level of their English and obviously they find themselves getting worse regarding productive skills. They relate this to the lack of self-discipline and the overwhelming process of studying itself.

Student 15 described his studying process: “*You need to know every word while studying. You need to look up in the dictionary many times. Sometimes I do not feel like searching for each word but this is the only way and it is totally devastating*.”

Student 12 said:

“*The way we use English is not like in preparatory school. I can survive with 200-300 words and a few structures. Fluency is completely lost, because we do not use English in class. I don’t think I can ask and answer questions fluently in English. I do not speak in English and the less I speak it, the more I feel like I am forgetting and I cannot do it. I think everybody feels like me.*”

Although it is very important to feel capable and confident, the students implied the opposite. However, they commented it got better as they got used to the system as also highlighted by Klaassen (2001, as cited in Airey, 2009, p. 26) as problems disappear or lessen over a period of time.

“In the first year, there are so many expectations in one’s mind about university; classes, professors, and his/her own success. The first months are too confusing and you need to get used to a lot of stuff. In time, you learn how to study, how to listen to the lectures, how to take notes, in a sense how to cope with it. Then, it gets better and you feel proud of yourself.” Student 9 reported.

As a final point, contrary to the aforementioned statements, several studies in Turkey (Çelebi, 2006; Erdem & Morgil, 1992; Sunel, 1994) have declared a negative stance towards teaching content through a foreign language and the year-long preparatory classes. For instance, Sunel (1994) considers preparatory class a year of loss in time and money; while, to him, receiving content in a foreign language hinders the scientific mind.

6. Pedagogical Implications

These reflections raise the issue of how content and language integration at this level could be practiced at its best. Paying close attention to the students illuminates the deficiencies as well as its promising nature. Without a doubt, CLIL lessons make students feel stressed out and at the same time successful for achieving such a challenging task. It generally goes without saying that a foreign language needs to be taught in a contextualized way; therefore, to truly succeed CLIL practice, consideration should be on both content and language outcomes.

This study pointed out that students have been viewing CLIL practice from a wide variety of perspectives. Teachers can benefit from this study by adapting a flexible approach with a delicate concentration on the language points. Administrators could pay more attention to the linguistic background of the students and how well the faculties offer facilities and educational materials accordingly to fit student needs. Finally, students could benefit from all of the above self-reflections to approach their problems effectively by practicing English at all times.

Last but not the least, the role and impact of a two-hour language course that is quite limited need to be questioned as stated by Genç (2011). The list of problems is long; some of which are having students with different proficiency levels in a class, overcrowded classrooms, lack of language aids like equipment and materials, focus only on grammar and vocabulary and unmotivated instructors. In addition to these factors, the curriculum could be a challenge if not prepared by the cooperation of content specialists and language instructors; however, could be a solution if well prepared. Students could be included in the negotiation of the content and language focus as well as weight. Following a well-grounded and flexible curriculum based on the principles of CLIL could act as a key agent for the course success.

7. Conclusion

Content-based instruction context examined in this paper reflects the current practices and reflections. Among the emerging conclusions, needs analysis as highlighted by Butler (2005) could meet the needs of learners and decrease the number of challenges as well as disadvantages. It could be suggested that, as Hellekjær (2010) calls for, attention be given to the course design and effective teaching strategy use accompanied by the integration of visual materials to the lectures. Moreover, if lecturers devote some of the lesson time to introduce the basic terminology allowing clarification requests, the struggles of students could be minimized (ibid.). Finally, future research will greatly benefit from a broader selection of sources of data including triangulation with observation and self-assessment surveys.

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Appendix 1

Interview questions

1. Did the medium of instruction have any effect in your decision while deciding on your department?

2. Can you describe your L2 experience? How long have you been learning English?

3. Do you think the education you received in preparatory school is helpful to your classes in the department now?

4. Do you feel content that the classes are in English? Do you wish to change it?

5. How often do you switch to Turkish during classes?

6. How much do you think you understand the classes in English? Does the difficulty arise because of the medium of instruction or the content matter?

7. What do you plan to do when you graduate? Do you think your education in English will give you any advantages?

8. Do you think your English has improved since the preparatory school? Which skills do you find improving? What do you think is the reason for this?

9. What is the most favorable point about classes in English?

10. What difficulties do you experience when the classes are in English? How do you cope with them?

11. Do you think you would be more successful if the medium of instruction were in Turkish?

Appendix 2List of the participating students:

Student #	Year & Major	Gender
1.	1st year Biology	Male
2.	1st year Biology	Male
3.	1st year Biology	Female
4.	3rd year Biology	Female
5.	3rd year Biology	Female
6.	3rd year Biology	Male
7.	4th year Biology	Female
8.	4th year Biology	Female
9.	4th year Biology	Female
10.	4th year Chemistry	Male
11.	4th year Chemistry	Male
12.	1st year Math	Male
13.	2nd year Math	Female
14.	2nd year Math	Male
15.	2nd year Physics	Female

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Bestriding Boundaries: Towards Talk Authenticity in the Undergraduate Business Communication Classroom

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Bioprofile

Jane Tsoi joined the field of education after an extensive career in the international corporate sector based primarily in Hong Kong. As an educator, Jane has taught and coordinated a range of professional and academic communication courses for various disciplines at tertiary level in Hong Kong. She now teaches with the Centre for Applied English Studies at The University of Hong Kong. Her interests include English for Specific Purposes, professional communication and technology in education. She holds an MSc in Operational Research from the Management School at Lancaster University, UK, and an MA with Distinction in Educational Technology and TESOL from Manchester University, UK.

Abstract

The challenge of creating an authentic learning environment in language classrooms has been highlighted by CLIL and ESP scholars alike (e.g. Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Belcher, 2006). This paper seeks to address this issue of authenticity in the classroom from a novel perspective within a specific context, namely undergraduate business communication teaching in Hong Kong. The ultimate objective of the literature-based research described in this paper was to make classroom interactions and related discourse ("classroom talk") more authentic to the interactions and discourse that take place in the learners' target community of practice, the corporate workplace. Conceptual similarities were sought between organizational interactions in the corporate workplace and effective teaching and learning interactions in the classroom. From these similarities, it was concluded that aspects of organizational interaction and discourse could authentically be applied within the context of the business communication classroom.

The concept of "transferable authenticity" derived from this research simultaneously addresses CLIL classroom talk constraints highlighted by Dalton-Puffer (2007), and offers students exposure to more authentic, integrated examples of corporate practice and corporate discourse in the classroom. It can therefore help to facilitate students' legitimate

peripheral participation (Lave & Wenger, 1991) in their target community of practice, the corporate workplace.

Keywords: transferable authenticity, authenticity transfer, business communication, university teaching, educational practice, interdisciplinarity, boundary work, communities of practice, legitimate peripheral participation, corporate leadership, management practice, organizational management theory, CLIL, classroom talk, classroom discourse

1. Why Authenticity of CLIL Classroom Talk Is Important

A core tenet of the CLIL methodology is authenticity of communication that takes place within the CLIL classroom environment, enabling natural acquisition of language by the learner. According to Dalton-Puffer (2007),

> The hub of the pro-CLIL argument is that the curricula of the so-called content subjects…constitute a reservoir of concepts, topics and meanings which can become the object of **'real communication' where natural use of the target language is possible**…CLIL itself is one huge task which ensures the use of foreign language for **'authentic communication'**…In other words, CLIL classrooms are seen as environments which provide opportunities for **learning through acquisition rather than through explicit teaching**. (p. 3; bold highlights are this author's own)

Dalton-Puffer however goes on to question the effectiveness with which this ideal scenario is being achieved in practice. She points to variances between the findings from her 2007 study of 40 European CLIL language transcripts and the argument underlying many CLIL implementations, namely that learners should "first and foremost use language for **social interaction and communication with peers and experts**, and this is the prerequisite for their being able to later internalize what was said as knowledge or competence" in the subject under instruction (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, p. 9).

Her study found that much of CLIL classroom talk is specific to the highly structured environment of the classroom, thus restricting opportunities for students to effectively acquire authentic target language through social interaction and communication. She concluded that CLIL lessons are "likely to be good training grounds for listening to and reading in the foreign language, but less good training grounds for participation in speech events that are oriented towards interaction rather than transaction" (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, p. 295).

This conclusion finds support in other recent literature on classroom talk at all levels of education, which often tends to focus on shortcomings and restrictions imposed by the classroom environment, and at times, by the teachers themselves. For instance, Hellermann (2008) applied a conversation analysis approach to study classroom talk in a U.S. high school biology project, and identified significant artificiality of teacher-student discourse sequences in the analyzed classroom interactions. In Malaysia, Yassin, Ong, Alimon, Baharom and Lai (2010) found that teacher questioning strategies in nine CLIL primary science classrooms focused predominantly on eliciting known information from students in short utterances; this predominance of teacher talk restricted opportunities for students to express ideas or ask questions, thereby limiting learning to lower cognitive levels.

It would seem a logical inference from Dalton-Puffer's conclusions that there is particular scope for improvement when the language classroom aims to replicate the conditions of a target environment that is often highly interactive in nature. One such target environment would be the corporate workplace, which undergraduate business communication classrooms aim to replicate to varying extents depending on the specific pedagogy applied. For all the challenges that it entails, this type of classroom forms the focus of this paper.

2. What This Paper Aims to Achieve

To address the issues identified above, this paper will explore ways to move beyond viewing classroom talk as a barrier to authenticity, seeking instead to use it as a means of bringing greater authenticity to the language learning classroom. This approach complements the nature of work done by Gil (2001) in analyzing the interplay between pedagogic and natural modes in classroom discourse. She suggests that these two types of talk are complementary, and cites Edmonson's view (1985) that different discursive activity can combine to help learners effectively acquire a foreign language.

The present discussion is confined to a specific aspect of language learning, namely the learning of business communication at undergraduate level in Hong Kong. Within this context, the wider aim is to make more authentic the language learning environment that supports the Hong Kong business undergraduate's transition to the corporate community that he or she anticipates joining upon graduation. This entails exploring the viability of participants in the business communication classroom simultaneously assuming two different situated identities (Zimmermann, 1998 cited in Richards, 2006) in their interactions and discourse: teacher and student within the classroom, and participants in a corporate context.

Relevant texts from both academic and corporate literature are analyzed to identify ways in which workplace discourse might be effectively transferred to the classroom without loss of authenticity. In seeking ways to achieve this "authenticity transfer" from one environment to another, the wider, long-term goal is to move towards devising a research-based methodology for enhancing business communication classroom talk, which could also have wider applications beyond the Hong Kong context described in section 5.

3. Scope of This Research

It is clear from studies such as Hellermann (2008) and Yassin et al. (2010) that the underlying quality of teaching can itself have a negative impact on overall learning effectiveness in CLIL classrooms. For instance, had more effective questioning strategies been applied in Yassin et al.'s (2010) study, the levels of learning achieved in their studied classrooms might conceivably have been higher. Such studies, however, vary significantly in the nature of pedagogical deficiencies exhibited, hence it is not the aim of this paper to analyze samples of classroom talk across different contexts with the aim of drawing general principles for effective pedagogy - that endeavour would be larger than can be accommodated in a paper of this length. Rather, the core research objective is to seek ways to make learning in CLIL classrooms more effective specifically through enhancing ***authenticity*** of classroom discourse, and the scope of this paper will be confined to the presentation and theoretical validation of a proposed research methodology for achieving this objective.

4. Structure of This Paper

This rest of this paper begins with a description of the context within which this research was first conceived. It then presents the theoretical rationale behind the research and the comparative literature-based research methodology proposed. After testing the methodology through the analysis of various literature samples, conclusions are drawn and recommendations made for further work.

5. The Teaching Context

Two aspects of context are considered in this section: Hong Kong's socio-linguistic backdrop to English language learning, and the business communication teaching methodologies applied in Hong Kong's government-funded tertiary institutions.

5.1 The Socio-linguistic Context: The Need for Authentic Language

"The term Content-and-Language-Integrated-Learning (CLIL) refers to educational settings where a language other than the students' mother tongue is used as medium of instruction" (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, p.1). Government-funded universities in Hong Kong might be to some a surprising example of such educational settings.

Widespread government rhetoric about a trilingual language policy in Hong Kong (Bolton, 2000, p. 270) identifies the special administrative region's three official languages as English, Cantonese Chinese (the most widely spoken language in Hong Kong) and Mandarin Chinese or Putonghua (the most widely spoken language in mainland China). Given also Hong Kong's reputation as "one of the largest and busiest international financial centres in the world, attracting a large number of Chinese, Asian, and Western speculators and investors" (Lin, 1996, p. 53), one might expect few barriers to the learning of English on Hong Kong's campuses, and may even question the need for it. However, despite the rhetoric and prevailing opinions about what amounts to one specific and elite aspect of Hong Kong's social landscape, the predominantly preferred language of most local undergraduates outside class (and one might argue naturally so) is their first language, Cantonese Chinese.

Morrison and Lui (2000, p. 476) point out that

> …although Hong Kong is a diglossia in which both Chinese and English are used, the English and Chinese-speaking communities largely live apart. There is no need for most Hong Kong children to use English outside of school. They attend their own concerts, watch locally-made films and Cantonese television, listen to local Chinese radio, and read Chinese newspapers. The typical Hong Kong child does not speak English at home, read English books, or watch English television…English is confined to work, and children's exposure to English is largely confined to school.

Luk and Lin (2007, p. 62, referring to Lin, 2000, p. 65) agree, observing that most students in Hong Kong "inhabit a Cantonese sociocultural life world, where there is little access to English and where English is largely irrelevant to their daily lives".

The Hong Kong SAR government has in the past imposed a strict quota on enrolment of overseas students on publicly-funded tertiary education programmes with the aim of protecting education opportunities for local students. Although it has in recent years announced a strategic target to increase the proportion of non-local students at government-funded universities from 10% to 20%, and to “broaden the range of countries represented” (Baty, 2009), the impact of past restrictions is still felt on Hong Kong’s campuses, though more so at some universities than others. At City University of Hong Kong, local Hong Kong students still accounted for more than 91% of the institution’s total undergraduate population in the academic year 2011/12 (City University of Hong Kong, 2012a). More than 74% of its international students originated from mainland China and hence likely spoke Putonghua as a first language, further restricting opportunities for local students to come into contact with English in authentic communicative situations (since the most frequently-used means of communication between Chinese students is a Chinese dialect). At The University of Hong Kong in 2010/11, the percentage of international undergraduate students was a more encouraging 20%, with 47% of those students originating from countries other than China (The University of Hong Kong, 2012a). In recent years, these statistics show an increasingly marked improvement when incoming and outgoing exchange students are accounted for. However, English remains a long way from being the on-campus student language of choice outside the classroom.

In summary, a combination of educational policy and sociolinguistic factors constrain local Hong Kong students’ opportunities to use and experience the English language outside the classroom. An emphasis on authentic talk within the classroom becomes therefore all the more important to effective language acquisition.

In the realm of business communication, effective acquisition of authentic language is less than straightforward in the out-of-class environment of a university campus. However, it is an important foundation for the students’ future careers. Nunan (2003, p. 597) for instance points out that “Hong Kong is a major international trading, business, banking, and communications centre, and English is seen as a key to maintaining its position in these areas”.

More recently, a study conducted by Evans and Cheng of The Hong Kong Polytechnic University (2008) substantiated the continuing need for English in the business and professional world in Hong Kong. The investigators surveyed 2,030 mainly ethnic Chinese professionals in Hong Kong’s financial services, trading and logistics, tourism and professional services, 70% of whom were at middle to senior management levels. They found that over 90% of these respondents considered both written and spoken English as important as ever in the workplace after Hong Kong’s 1997 return to Chinese sovereignty. They also found that the need for effective communication skills in English “becomes increasingly important as a professional rises through the ranks” (The Hong Kong

Polytechnic University, 2008), alluding to the type of interactive communication that Dalton-Puffer (2007) suggests is currently under-addressed in CLIL classrooms.

Statistics show that the majority of business and economics undergraduates from Hong Kong's universities are recruited directly into commerce and industry. In 2010, for instance, 88% of graduating Bachelor of Business Administration (BBA) students from the University of Hong Kong were employed in commerce and industry, and all of them had secured employment within 7 months after graduation (The University of Hong Kong, 2012b). These figures, in combination with the findings of Evans and Cheng's study, would suggest that most graduating BBA students may be called upon to apply their business communication skills in a professional context very soon after graduation.

The aim of this research therefore is not only to give students more opportunities to use English whilst at university, but also to create an environment that offers exposure to authentic interactive language of the workplace so that students might graduate better prepared to meet the demands of corporate work life.

5.2 The Classroom Context: How Business Communication Language Classrooms Function

Before embarking on an exploration of possible methodologies for enhancing language learning, it is worth reviewing the pedagogies that are currently in use in Hong Kong's undergraduate business communication classrooms.

At time of writing[1], a brief glance through the course descriptions for undergraduate business communication courses run by various Hong Kong-based tertiary institutions shows close alignment with the view that business communication teaching should integrate three key components of a business English curriculum: subject knowledge, business practice and language skills (Zhang, 2007, p. 406). The University of Hong Kong's Centre for Applied English Studies for instance runs CAES1907 Business Communications which requires students to investigate and report on real-life business activities. City University of Hong Kong's Department of English's GE2402 English for

[1] The general nature of the business communications courses described in section 5.2 has been relatively consistent over recent years. It is worth pointing out though that the government-funded tertiary education system in Hong Kong is in a period of transition. As of academic year 2012-2013, the standard duration of an undergraduate degree programme is changing from 3 years to 4 years. As business communication courses for the new curricula are just starting to be launched across Hong Kong at time of writing, it is too early to determine the overall direction of business communications teaching across all local universities after the transition; this paper is therefore based on past and current practice for the 3-year degree programmes.

Business Communication likewise requires students to engage in business related communications such as writing an email and a persuasive report. The Hong Kong University of Science and Technology's LABU2051 Business Case Analyses requires students to analyze business cases and to write or present recommended action plans for resolving those cases.

Zhang's tripartite model (2007) inevitably requires that content and language instruction be integrated, though the degree and nature of integration varies between courses and institutions. In Hong Kong's government-funded universities, because business communication courses are normally developed and managed by English departments, language centres or language teaching units (which will collectively be called "English education entities" for conciseness), the form of teaching applied is for the most part more language-driven than content-driven (see Met's 2009 continuum of content and language integration). Incorporating Adamson's terminology (2011), one could say that the methodology applied ranges from "medium-soft" CLIL, with its use of adjunct models delivered collaboratively by English education entities and business faculties, to "soft" CLIL, where language courses are developed by English education entities with the input of business faculties, and draws upon business texts and knowledge during language practice.

Irrespective of the exact nature of content-language integration, researchers such as Zhang (2007) and Bhatia (2002) agree on the need for business communication students to acquire discursive competence, a necessary part of which is exposure to authentic discourse. This paper therefore seeks to identify a methodology that can be applied in any classrooms that lie on the "soft CLIL" half of Met's content-based integration continuum, so as to enhance levels of authentic interactive discourse employed.

6. Research Rationale

The core theoretical premise on which this paper builds is Lave and Wenger's 1991 concept of legitimate peripheral participation (LPP). Lave and Wenger developed this concept out of their earlier work on situated learning theory, which locates learning in the social communities in which the learner either operates or anticipates operating at a later stage. In the case of BBA undergraduates, these social communities will be the professional communities which the learner hopes to join after graduation (for instance, an accountancy student might hope to join the ranks of certified public accountants upon graduation). In situated learning theory, learning is considered "an intrinsic and inseparable aspect of any social practice, not the goal to be achieved, and it occurs when people engage in joint activity in a community of practice, with or without teaching" (Haneda, 2006, p. 808). In other words, this theory proposes that an individual learns through a natural process of participation in the target community, irrespective of whether he or she engages in formal training. This concept would explain the attraction of student memberships in professional bodies such as ACCA (Association of Chartered Certified Accountants): whilst these professional bodies often offer formal training for students, it is as much the social and professional networking opportunities that students find attractive and of value to their personal and career development.

The concept of LPP (Lave & Wenger, 1991) describes the process whereby a novice in a community of practice or CoP (Wenger, 1998, p. 73) acquires the expertise of a skilled individual within that community; this is therefore a concept that can be useful applied to the transition made by a business undergraduate to a working professional in the corporate world. In LPP, the novice progresses through an initial stage of observation of experienced community members, through to apprenticeship, with partial assumption of responsibility overseen by experienced community members, and eventually evolves into a fully skilled member of the community. Lave (1996, p. 157) suggests that this learning process is closely interconnected with the concept of identity, and entails "becoming kinds of persons", in which the novice gradually assumes the identity of a skilled individual within the target CoP. Lave's assertion that "crafting identities becomes the fundamental project subjects engage in" (p. 157) is particularly applicable to business undergraduates seeking to begin assuming the identity of a future business professional.

It is through LPP that individuals acquire the three dimensions of professional expertise that Bhatia (2002) calls disciplinary knowledge, professional practice and discursive competence, that is, what they should know, what they should do, and what they should say, as skilled members in their target CoP.

The discursive competence dimension in Bhatia's tripartite model offers clear support for the view that the evolution into a skilled professional happens partly through learning the "language of the trade". Indeed, Young (2008) suggests that one of the most frequent indicators of community membership is language, and Hyland (2006) points to how within the culture of a professional community, "individuals acquire specialized discourse competencies that allow them to participate as group members" (p 383). Similarly, Ng Candlin and Chiu (2004, p. 19) assert that "to a large extent, social identity is a discursive construct", suggesting that business students' psycho-social evolution into business professionals can be scaffolded through acquisition of language that is authentic to the professional world that they hope to join.

Akin to the notions of discursive competence and communities of practice is another sociolinguistic concept, namely that of a discourse community, which is defined by Swales (1990 cited in Flowerdew, 2000, p. 129) as "a group of people who share a set of social conventions that is directed towards some purpose". Whilst Flowerdew (2000) discusses discourse communities in the context of academic scholarship in which students are inducted into the community under the guidance of their tutors and supervisors, wider applications exist in other contexts, including those that involve corporate practice and discourse.

For clarity of presentation, this paper will confine its discussion of sociolinguistic theory primarily to Lave and Wenger's communities of practice, and it will seek to integrate LPP theory with Flowerdew and Peacock's (2001)[2] view that learners are more motivated to learn language that is relevant to their learning goals. In seeking to expose learners to language that is truly authentic and relevant to their learning goals, it is proposed that CLIL practitioners can go beyond bringing authentic business communication texts into the learning environment through classroom activities that simulate interactions in the target CoP. Through developing a deeper understanding of the target CoP, the aim is to more authentically replicate aspects of that CoP, including its natural patterns of discourse and interaction, within the classroom.

Haneda (2006, p. 814) asserts that when developing an understanding of learners' mode of engagement within a CoP, it is important to consider their envisioned futures. This process involves identifying the patterns of interaction and discourse that students will experience as a skilled professional in their target CoP. If the identified patterns of interaction and discourse in students' envisioned future communicative contexts are simultaneously authentic to the CLIL classroom context, they will by definition carry a higher degree of authenticity for the learners.

In summary, the explicit goal is to identify and exploit patterns of interaction and discourse that can be authentically applied in both an educational CoP (the university business communication classroom) and the learners' target CoP (the international business community), so as to enable learners to more authentically begin their legitimate peripheral participation process in the CLIL classroom. In Adamson's terms (2011), the

[2] Whilst Flowerdew and Peacock applied this view in the context of EAP (English for Academic Purposes), the principle can be applied equally to any ESP context

aim is to exploit literature-based wisdom from "the academic world" to analyze for commonalities in interaction and discourse between the "practical world" (the workplace) and the classroom environment, with a view to enhancing the language teacher's understanding of both spheres of existence.

7. A Review of Key Literature: Identifying a Starting Point

This section will examine a particular aspect of management theory that is commonly applied in interactions within the international business sector, namely corporate management theory, and review its potential for authentic application in a business communication classroom. Sections 8 and 9 will then propose and test an appropriate methodological direction for further research. This will involve referring to current literature in both effective university teaching and this identified aspect of management theory, with the aim of seeking *commonalities in conceptual frameworks* (section 8) between the two disciplines that could be translated to a *common discourse* (section 9) that is authentic to the two fields.

Management theory was selected for this research because its integration into a business communication classroom has benefits for the learner beyond creating opportunities for authentic application of relevant discourse. According to its practitioners and researchers, all management theory needs to be experienced to be learnt:

> **Management is a practice –** it has to be **appreciated through experience, in context**. (Gosling & Mintzberg, 2004, p. 19)
>
> People need to not only learn theories but also to **actively embed themselves** into these theories, **develop the actual skills and competencies**…**and apply them** to specific situations in their personal and professional lives (Kessler, 2010, p. 6)

Further to this, for a number of reasons, organizational leadership was identified as a suitable business practice for specific analysis.

Management theorist Kessler (2010, p. 223) asserts that "to be a successful modern manager, one must be able to lead", suggesting that successful managers need to acquire a strong foundation of both conceptual and practical knowledge about leadership. Additionally, the concept of leadership lends itself readily to literature-based research, being a well-documented area of theory and practice that has applications across a wide variety of contexts including both corporate and academic. In any contexts where a group of people seeks to achieve common objectives, leadership can add value.

Kessler (2010) offers a formal definition of leadership:

> Leadership is the practice of orienting and facilitating the progress of…followers towards the attainment of desired objectives. (p. 223)

If one confines these desired objectives to learning goals, a clear analogy is immediately drawn between a teacher in a university classroom and a leader in a commercial organization. The concept of goals achievement is fundamental to outcomes-based education, or OBE for short (Biggs & Tang, 2007). Whilst OBE was adopted as an educational standard only relatively recently in 2007 by all government-funded tertiary institutions in Hong Kong, the value of setting learning objectives is generally well recognised by educationalists. As highlighted by Shuell back in 1986,

> If students are to learn desired outcomes in a reasonably effective manner, then the teacher's fundamental task is to get students to engage in learning activities that are likely to result in their achieving those outcomes… (p. 429)

Comparisons between the role of a teacher and the role of an organizational leader are not new. For instance, in the context of Hong Kong primary schools, Cheng (1994) suggested that certain teacher leadership styles (personal and expert power bases) produce more positive outcomes in the classroom. In the United States, Luechauer and Shulman (2002) have urged Organizational Development faculty to empower their students by sharing responsibility for learning between teacher and student, just as managers share responsibility with their team-members for the attainment of business goals in a modern-day organization.

However, research to date has yet to focus on the viability of identifying a common leadership discourse between academic and corporate contexts with a view to enhancing the educational effectiveness of CLIL teaching. The work described in this paper builds on the principle of legitimate peripheral participation and the professional practice and discursive competence components of Bhatia's (2002) tripartite model of professional expertise, with the dual educational aim of using the business communication classroom as an environment for learners to experience the authentic application of both organizational leadership theory itself and its related discourse.

The following two literature review sections will draw comparisons between aspects of university teaching and corporate leadership. After first exploring for key conceptual similarities between the two communities of practice, opportunities will be sought for the authentic application of corporate leadership discourse in the context of the undergraduate business communication classroom.

8. A Comparative Literature Review for Conceptual Similarities

Management theorist McGregor (1960) differentiates between Theory X and Theory Y management styles, positioned at opposite extremes of the trend in recent decades away from command-and-control management approaches (as described by McGregor's Theory X management style) to approaches based on mutual trust and support between managers and subordinates (characterized by McGregor's Theory Y management style). These same management styles can in fact be usefully applied in academic contexts to encourage and describe a similar educational trend away from teacher-centred instruction towards learner-centred development. Biggs and Tang (2007) propose that tertiary education environments with a learner-empowering Theory Y climate are more likely to result in effective learning than those with a teacher-controlled Theory X climate.

Educationalist Glasser (1998, p. ix) presents a simple comparison between the two management styles, summarized below in Figure 1, differentiating between the management behaviours of a Theory X "boss" versus a Theory Y "leader":

A Theory X boss…	**A Theory Y leader…**
Drives	Leads
Relies on authority	Relies on cooperation
Says "I"	Says "We"
Creates fear	Creates confidence
Knows how	Shows how
Creates resentment	Breeds enthusiasm
Fixes blame	Fixes mistakes
Makes work drudgery	Makes work interesting

Figure 1: Comparisons between Theory X and Theory Y management behaviours (adapted from Glasser, 1998, p. ix)

Many of Glasser's characteristics of a good leader echo the characteristics of exemplary university teachers as described by educational researchers such as Kember and McNaught (2007). Core similarities therefore exist between the role of a corporate leader and a university teacher. It is therefore unsurprising to find that theoretical frameworks for effective corporate leadership share elements in common with strategic frameworks for effective university teaching.

A clear example of this similarity starts with Kessler's definition of the leadership process (2010, p. 223), outlined in simplified terms in Figure 2 below:

1. **Determine objectives**
    a. **Create** a vision
    b. Establish a mission

2. **Orientate people towards these objectives**
    a. Clarify expectations
    b. Gain commitment

3. **Facilitate achievement of these objectives**
    a. Inspire progress
    b. Show the way

Figure 2: Kessler's definition of the leadership process (2010, p. 223), reflecting a "*create-orientate-facilitate*" methodology

As highlighted in Figure 3 below, fundamental "*create-orientate-facilitate*" parallels can be drawn between Kessler's leadership model and Laurillard's four-stage teaching strategy for tertiary education:

1. **Discursive**
    - Maintain open communication channels with students
    - Set learning goals (**create a mission**)
    - Check student understanding of goals (**orientate**)
2. **Adaptive**
    - Set tasks focused on goals (**facilitate**)
3. **Interactive**
    - Provide environment for action (**facilitate**)
    - Solicit and respond to student feedback (**facilitate**)
    - Provide feedback on student actions (**facilitate**)
4. **Reflective**
    - Support students in linking actions to goals (**facilitate**)

Figure 3: Laurillard's teaching strategy for tertiary education (2002, p. 78), reflecting a "*create-orientate-facilitate*" methodology

Laurillard sees the process of university teaching as being one of iterative dialogue based on the creation of learning goals to which students are orientated and facilitated towards achieving; this clearly mirrors the way in which Kessler and other management theorists see organizational leadership as being a process of engaging (orientating and facilitating) the understanding and commitment of individuals towards the achievement of established organizational goals.

Having established the existence of core similarities in underlying theoretical leadership frameworks between corporate and academic contexts, one can start to evaluate for leadership similarities on a more application-based and discursive level.

9. A Comparative Literature Review for Discursive Similarities

This section will explore the literature for opportunities to apply corporate leadership discourse authentically in the university business communication classroom context. It will examine a selection of stages or sub-stages of Laurillard's university teaching strategy, and compare them to specific aspects of leadership interaction in the corporate context.

As a starting point for the analysis, three stages and sub-stages of Laurillard's model are examined discursively:

a) Discursive Stage – Maintaining open communication channels
b) Discursive Stage – Setting learning goals
c) Adaptive, Interactive and Reflective Stages – Facilitating achievement of goals

Each analysis will compare relevant discourse from educational contexts and corporate contexts, and will then suggest possibilities for authentic application of corporate discourse in the classroom.

9.1 Leadership Discourse for Maintaining Open Communication Channels

Lee, an award-winning teacher of Curriculum and Instruction at Chinese University of Hong Kong, points to the need for open communication between teachers and their students in order for effective learning to take place:

> Nowadays, young people…expect a friendship-type of relationship between their teachers and themselves. Teachers have to adjust their attitude. Both teachers and students should communicate in a mutually-acceptable attitude and should understand each other. (Lee cited in Kember & McNaught, 2007, p. 47)

In a similar vein, respected management author Drucker advocates that leaders take responsibility for communications, building working relations that "are as much based on the person as they are based on the work", and seeking to communicate with subordinates "in a way in which they [prefer to] receive a message" (Drucker, 2007, pp. 160-162).

These conceptual similarities suggest that the following leadership discourse applied by Drucker in the corporate context could equally be used in the university business communication classroom when establishing or reinforcing an environment of open communication during the teaching process:

> This is what I'm good at [as your manager/teacher]. This is how I work. These are my values. This is the contribution I plan to [focus] on and these are the results I should be expected to deliver…What do I need to know about your strengths, how you perform, your values and your proposed contribution? (Drucker, 2007, p. 162)

Dialogue of this nature can encourage learners to take responsibility for their own learning and can foster meta-cognitive awareness of their current strengths and skill level; used in combination with effective learning strategies (e.g. Oxford, 1990) this could build a greater sense of mastery and control over progress towards identified learning goals.

Returning to the central theme of authenticity, this type of dialogue also has the dual CLIL-oriented benefit of enabling the learner to experience authentic application of corporate leadership interaction and discourse within the classroom context, and thus contributes to cross-curricular links that, in Mehisto's view (2008, p.101), make learning more meaningful. As such, this constitutes not only an example of LPP in action, but also a practical application of the new rhetoric school of genre theory that sees "immersion in target situations as essential for genuine acquisition of genres" (Freedman, 1993 cited in Belcher, 2006, p. 141). The rest of this section examines similar such applications of LPP and new rhetoric genre theory.

9.2 Leadership Discourse for Setting Learning Goals

In order to identify similarities in discourse on goal-setting between academic and corporate contexts, we can compare the words of award-winning teacher Butler in Ballatyne, Bain and Packer (1997) with those of Drucker. Butler, a teacher of Zoology in Australia, applies a general teaching philosophy and discourse that are equally applicable to other academic disciplines in all educational contexts:

> I would define good classroom teaching as teaching that has a stated aim for what the students are going to learn or be able to do at the end…and that successfully achieves that aim. (Butler cited in Ballantyne, Bain & Packer, 1997)

Clear parallels can be drawn between Butler's words and Drucker's discourse on the goals of management and leadership:

> The task is to lead people. And the goal is to make productive the specific strengths and knowledge of each individual. (Drucker, 2007, p. 19)

> Management is about human beings. Its task is to make people capable of performance, to make their strengths effective (Drucker cited in Edersheim, 2007, p. 157)

This would therefore suggest that corporate discourse of the following nature could be usefully applied in a university classroom at the goal-setting stage of Laurillard's teaching strategy model:

- "My goal is to enable you to recognise and build on (develop) your strengths and knowledge."
- "My goal is to enable you to produce your highest level of performance towards your learning objectives."

9.3 Leadership Discourse for Facilitating Achievement

A detailed look at Laurillard's teaching strategy model reveals references at every key stage to the role of feedback in identifying and facilitating the achievement of learning goals (2002, pp. 77-78). Corporate leaders too draw upon the process of feedback to empower (i.e. create, orientate and facilitate) individuals in achievement of goals. Byham and Cox's HeroZ (1994), presents a simple, fable-like interpretation of this empowerment process. HeroZ tells the story of how a castle of once-famed arrow-makers is starting to lose its winning edge against its competitors, and how one arrow-maker learns strategies from a wizard to empower his people to succeed once more.

Of course one might argue that discourse of the type used in HeroZ may not be fully representative of that applied in the learners' future workplace, but this discourse is nevertheless representative of how many corporate management trainers and authors enhance the accessibility of their theories to their intended audience of professionals. From this perspective, reference to this style of discourse in the classroom would therefore be very authentic to the students' target community of practice, and an early introduction to this style of management theory acquisition could form a valuable (and also a motivating and appealing) aspect of students' induction into the world of corporate management.

Continuing on with the analysis, Byham and Cox's HeroZ wizard teaches the arrow-makers to cast a number of spells, including the "Guide-Through-Feedback Spell", summarized in Figure 4 below:

Guide-Through-Feedback Spell
Positive Feedback
- Tell exactly what was done right
- Explain what made this action 'right'

Improvement Feedback • Tell what could have been done better • Explain reasons why • Suggest how to improve

Figure 4: The Zapp! Wizard's Spell Book "Guide-Through-Feedback Spell" (Byham & Cox, 1994, p. 104)

This 'spell' aligns well not just with Laurillard's strategy model, but also with the feedback processes applied by other educationalists in establishing a productive learning climate (see for example Kindsvatter,Wilen & Ishler, 1996, pp. 52-58).

Similarly, Byham and Cox's coaching spells (1994, pp. 98-102) as summarized in Figure 5 below, are fundamental practices that can be usefully employed to help students develop metacognitive and independent learning skills needed for self-directed achievement of their learning goals (Kindsvatter et al., 1996, pp. 61-63). According to Ornstein (1990, in Kindsvatter et al., 1996, p. 61), part of the teacher's role is to help students to engage in metacognition during learning, that is "to analyse what they are thinking, to make comparisons and distinctions to models the teachers or they have in mind, to see errors that are occurring in their thinking, and to make self-corrections". Byham and Cox's coaching spells shown in Figure 5 could conceivably be used as an outline of basic steps that a teacher and student would apply in Laurillard's iterative dialogue process, with a view to building the student's metacognitive skills.

Coaching Spell - Part I	***Coaching Spell - Part II***
(cast by experienced people)	***(cast by those in need of coaching)***
1. Ask Questions	1. Share your Needs and Problems
2. Listen for Understanding	2. Listen
3. Share Knowledge, Experience	3. Ask Questions

Figure 5: The Zapp! Wizard's Spell Book "Coaching Spell" (Byham & Cox, 1994, pp. 98 & 101)

In summary, the three comparisons presented in this section have provided evidence that a CLIL practitioner could describe and implement aspects of effective learner-centred teaching using very similar interactions and discourse to those that an organizational leader might apply in describing and implementing processes that empower team-members to a higher level of performance in a corporate environment.

10. Conclusions

Although the comparative analysis described in this paper is very preliminary work, already it is possible to draw the following basic conclusions:

- Clear similarities in theoretical framework can be drawn between effective organizational leadership in corporate contexts and effective learner-centred teaching in university education, as evidenced by the comparison between models and concepts proposed by, respectively, management theorist Kessler and tertiary educator Laurillard amongst others.
- Owing to these similarities in employed theoretical frameworks, it has proved possible to identify organizational leadership discourse that could conceivably be applied in an authentic manner to describe and implement aspects of the teaching and learning processes that take place in any effective university classroom.
- As argued earlier in this paper, this "authentically transferable" leadership discourse is regarded as being most valuable when integrated into business communication courses for undergraduate students. In such contexts, this discourse, used as pedagogic talk, could constitute a means of supporting students' pre-graduation induction into the language and professional practices of the corporate workplace, and hence facilitate their evolution into business professionals through Lave and Wenger's process of legitimate peripheral participation.

This paper has aimed to go one step further beyond Flowerdew and Peacock's (2001) view that motivation in the language learning classroom can be enhanced by introducing language of direct relevance to learners' goals. It has been argued that authentic transfer of organizational leadership discourse to the classroom has the potential to further enhance learner motivation through the simultaneous application of ***both corporate discourse and corporate practices*** that are authentic to learners' goals.

It is recognized (for instance in Belcher, 2006) that many language teachers do not have direct experience of workplace leadership practices or related discourse. The literature-based research approach that is presented in this paper could therefore, in addition to validating the proposed concept of transferable authenticity, also eventually offer such teachers a resource of workplace practices and discourse that could be authentically and usefully applied in the business communication classroom either in or beyond the Hong Kong context.

11. Further Work

Before taking the obvious next step of empirically testing the authentic transfer of organizational leadership discourse to the business communication classroom, a more comprehensive comparison of frameworks is required to identify more conclusively the degree of conceptual alignment between organizational leadership and effective teaching strategy. This will then build a sufficiently strong theoretical foundation for fully exploring the potential for the authentic transfer of leadership discourse from corporate to educational contexts. It is also envisaged that the general of concept of transferable authenticity could have research application beyond the scope of leadership discourse to other areas of corporate workplace interactions[3].

The analysis presented in this paper has highlighted clear similarities between key stages in Laurillard's effective teaching strategy model and Kessler's organizational leadership model. These comparisons can be extended to analyze other aspects of Kessler's model, and indeed other commonly applied corporate leadership frameworks. That said, it is noted that some aspects of Kessler's model may not be as readily transferable as others to the educational context. A possible example of this is step 1 of Kessler's model as presented in Figure 2, which consists of the sub-stages "create a vision" and "establish a mission". Whilst clear similarities exist between a corporate mission statement and the course learning outcomes defined in outcome-based teaching and learning (Biggs & Tang, 2007), the concept of a vision is not as readily located in the classroom context.

According to management theorist Maxwell (1999),

[3] Before attempting to transfer any corporate workplace practice to the classroom, it is important to research the degree of conceptual and discursive alignment between the chosen workplace practice and classroom practice. The similarities highlighted in this paper between organizational leadership interactions and educational interactions could enable language teachers to transfer authenticity between the two contexts without necessarily needing to develop a fully expert level of competence in organizational leadership. However, when seeking to authentically transfer other corporate workplace practices to the classroom, the existence of possibly fewer similarities with educational practice could give rise to greater levels of disjuncture for teachers, which would need to be researched and addressed before implementation. Disjuncture, defined by Mehisto (2008, p. 108) as the tensions associated with making the transition from the familiar to the unfamiliar, has been discussed by various researchers in interdisciplinary contexts. Spanner (2001), for instance, has studied the cultural and informational dilemmas experienced by interdisciplinary scholars at the University of Western Ontario, Canada, whilst Klein (1996) has explored in depth the challenges associated with "boundary work" between disciplines.

> Vision is everything for a leader. It is utterly indispensable….vision leads the leader. It paints the target. It sparks and fuels the fire within, and draws him forward. It is also the fire lighter for others who follow that leader. (p. 150)

A vision in the corporate context entails a strategic, long-term focus on objectives that often may not be achievable by the organization in the foreseeable future, but rather constitutes a goal towards which the organization will constantly be driving. Whilst this concept is directly applicable in educational leadership, the literature on (and indeed practice of) classroom teaching and learning does not often make reference to a vision. For instance, the role of a teacher, as defined by McKeachie and Svinicki (2006, p. 280-286) includes all the following personae: expert, facilitator, person, role model, formal authority and socializing agent, though makes no mention of a visionary persona. This is not to say, however, that effective teaching could not be enhanced by introduction of more visionary discourse, and indeed, most business communication teachers would probably agree that learners would benefit from a clearer understanding of how their learning on a particular business communication course will directly aid their long-term development (once again alluding to Flowerdew and Peacock's assertion that motivation can be enhanced through building upon learners' individual goals). This would probably necessitate the tailoring of visionary corporate leadership discourse for the classroom context, casting a spotlight on the implementation challenges that are likely to be encountered when aspects of management theory and educational theory (and hence the respective discourse) are not directly comparable. Language teachers without direct experience of workplace language and practices may find the invention of such discourse an obstacle to full implementation of any authenticity transfer methodology, and are therefore likely to benefit from further research giving practical suggestions on how this invented discourse might look.

A wider direction for further research would be to explore for other areas of professional practice (corporate or otherwise) to which this proposed methodology of authenticity transfer could be usefully applied to enhance the language learning environment.

12. Summary

In conclusion, this preliminary investigative work has shown that when corporate leadership practices are closely aligned with effective university teaching and learning practices, it is conceptually possible to authentically transfer aspects of corporate practice and related discourse to the university business communication classroom. Where the conceptual alignment between the two contexts is less direct, language teachers may still be able to transfer corporate leadership practices to the classroom, though may need to more extensively tailor the related corporate discourse to suit the university classroom. Through further research, the degree of alignment between the two conceptual frameworks and hence authentic transfer of corporate practice and related discourse can be further explored and documented. Longer term, the general of concept of transferable authenticity may also have research application beyond the scope of leadership discourse to other areas of professional interactions (corporate or otherwise), thereby further expanding the methodologies and resources available for making university communication courses more personally valuable and authentic experiences for learners.

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Authenticity of Purpose: CLIL as a way to bring meaning and motivation into EFL contexts

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Richard Pinner is a teacher and teacher trainer who has worked in London and Japan. He recently produced a chapter in an edited book on CLIL and is guest editor of the forthcoming special edition of the *International CLIL Research Journal* which is focusing on the Japanese context. He is currently a PhD candidate at the University of Warwick where he is focusing on authenticity and motivation.

Abstract

In this paper I will outline how Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) can be used to achieve what Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, p. 5) refer to as "authenticity of purpose" and provide a better vehicle for authentic language exposure and production in English as a Foreign Language contexts. This increased authenticity is hypothesised to lead to an increase in engagement and motivation in the learning. The paper begins with a definition of CLIL and explains the sociocultural background of the methodology. Then, after briefly looking at the suitability of CLIL for the Asian context, I move onto a definition of motivation and authenticity whilst examining the interplay between them both in relation to content and classroom interaction. I will then address some of the criticism against CLIL and the use of authentic materials. Finally, I advocate a CLIL approach as a means of increasing exposure to authentic content, thus potentially increasing motivation to learn.

Keywords: CLIL, Asian context, EFL

Introduction

The European Commission for Languages states on its website that "owing to its effectiveness and ability to motivate learners, CLIL is identified as a priority area in the Action plan for Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity" (European Commission, 2012). The growing interest in CLIL not only in Europe but also worldwide, such as Japan and other parts of Asia, has meant an exponential growth in conferences, workshops, publications and research funding in recent years. I first came into contact with CLIL methodologies in 2011, after moving to Japan and finding work with Sophia University in Tokyo. I was hired by the English Literature Department primarily as a language teacher. Although my undergraduate degree is in English Literature my master's degree and current PhD research is in the field of Applied Linguistics. My role at the English Literature Department is primarily to teach skills classes, designed to help the English majors to develop a heightened language ability whilst at the same time teaching them about English Literature. The Literature Department specifically advocates a CLIL approach and assessments are expected to reflect learning in both areas of content and language.

What is CLIL?

The Literature Department's specification that assessments should reflect progress in both content (literature) and language areas is in keeping with popular definitions of CLIL, such as the often cited "dual focused aims" (Marsh, 2002, p. 2) where both content and language are the focus of instruction and assessment. Mehisto offers the definition that "CLIL is a dual-focused teaching and learning approach in which the L1 and an additional language […] are used for promoting both content mastery and language acquisition to pre-defined levels" (2012, pp. 52-53). It could be said that, in essence, CLIL is about killing two birds with one stone. Marsh explains that this provides added value and efficiency for both the students and the institutions offering CLIL courses (2002, p. 175). Mehisto, Marsh and Frigolis (2008, p. 9) claim that although the term 'CLIL' was only coined in 1994, the concept has been in existence for thousands of years. CLIL originated in Europe but it is in existence and has been studied extensively under other guises throughout the world. It is closely connected with the early immersion experiments conducted in Canada into bilingual education (see Navés, 2009 for a summary). Dalton-Puffer acknowledges that terms such as Content-Based Instruction, Bilingual Teaching and Dual-Language Programs all have their own histories, "contextual roots and accompanying slightly different philosophical implications" (2007, p. 1), however these terms are in many respects synonymous with CLIL. Further terms such as English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) and Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education (ICLHE) show that there is a growing trend towards the combination of content and language disciplines in order to achieve the ever diversifying educational needs of today’s global institutions.

> CLIL is taking place and has been found to be effective in all sectors of education from primary through to adult and higher education. Its success has been growing over the past 10 years and continues to do so. (European Commission, 2012)

Despite the potential for CLIL to offer educational gains in two distinct areas (language and content), it is not merely a cost-cutting or bureaucratic imposition on teaching practice. However, it is true that in many ways, CLIL offers greater challenges to teachers and students alike. Language teachers and content teachers must work together in collaboration and share their skills. It is rare for a teacher to be qualified and experienced in both language and content teaching simultaneously. Also, for students, the dual-focus of the CLIL class means that the workload can seem very demanding at times. Despite this, CLIL has been found to be extremely successful in achieving its dual aims in programs around the world, especially in Europe (see, for example European Commission, 2012). It can seem more challenging, but at the same time more motivating and authentic for students and teachers (Marsh, 2002, p. 72).

The distinction between CLIL methodologies and those of more traditional EFL instruction, such as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task-Based Learning (TBL), is that CLIL is about teaching something else through the target language as a medium of instruction. Thus, in Vygotskyian (1978) terms, language is being used as a ‘tool’ through which other aims and objectives are achieved and knowledge is socially constructed. This also means that CLIL, by definition, evolves very much from a sociocultural framework of learning. This includes terms such as scaffolding (the interaction and negotiation of meaning between expert and less expert speakers), the zone of proximal development (ZPD), as well as lower and higher order thinking skills (LOTS and HOTS), as illustrated in Figure 1 below.

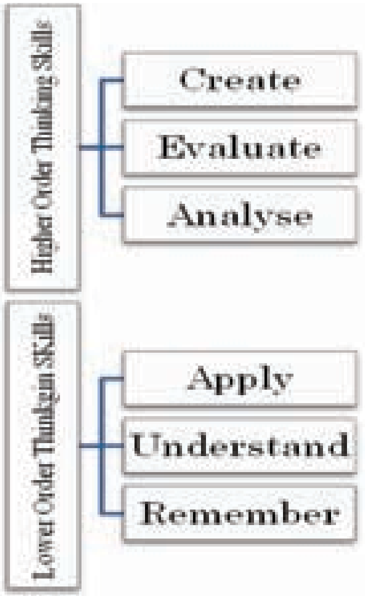

Figure 1: LOTS and HOTS (adapted from Anderson, & Krathwohl, 2001).

CLIL is more concerned with the HOTS, but naturally these are dependent on the existence of LOTS. For this reason, CLIL is more cognitively engaging for both students and teachers. Whilst this may increase the demands and difficulty of CLIL, it also leads to increased engagement and thus motivation.

Another important concept from sociocultural theory relating to CLIL is the ZPD, which refers to the abilities of a learner acting on their own and how far this ability can be extended with guidance in order to facilitate learning. In this respect, the ZPD is similar to what Krashen, in his *Monitor Theory* calls ‘comprehensible input’ or L+1[4](1982). These terms are all central to the core CLIL methodology, and in many ways they simply reflect popular beliefs based on empirical research in the wider field of education (see for example Hattie, 2009). In other words, CLIL is nothing particularly special, other than the fact that it specifically employs strategies from educational research which have been shown to be effective and combines them with language learning practices, such as language learner autonomy and communicative competence. CLIL then, advocates what Ikeda (2012, p. 12) calls an “intentional organic” approach to language learning, in that language input and output arise naturally in the process of engaging with the content.

Authenticity is also a key term in CLIL, and indeed practitioners such as Coyle, Hood and Marsh have criticised conventional EFL methodologies because they lack the “authenticity of purpose” (2010, p. 5) of CLIL classrooms.

[4] Level+1

> It is challenging for language teachers to achieve appropriate levels of authenticity in the classroom. For example, even if 'authentic' texts are used, and the subject matter is highly relevant to the lives of the learners, the predominant reasons for these texts being in the lesson remains language learning. (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010, p. 11)

Authenticity is frequently referred to as a defining aspect of CLIL. Dalton-Puffer (2007) explains that one of the main advantages of CLIL is that content subjects give rise to 'real communication' by tapping into a great reservoir of ideas, concepts and meanings allowing for natural use of the target language (TL).

> In this sense, CLIL is the ultimate dream of Communicative Language Teaching [CLT]… and Task Based Learning [TBL]… rolled into one: there is no need to design individual tasks in order to foster goal-directed linguistic activity with a focus on meaning above form, since CLIL itself is one huge task which ensures the use of the foreign language for 'authentic communication'. (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, p. 3)

Such comments assert that authenticity is not just an important feature of CLIL methodology and practice, but actually a defining aspect of the entire approach and one of its greatest strengths over other foreign language instruction pedagogies such as CLT or TBL. The term 'authentic' however, is problematic because it is marred by a conceptual looseness which at times seems to make it difficult to define. Later in this paper I will return to the concept of authenticity in order to examine how it is related to motivation and why the CLIL approach can increase motivation by providing the aforementioned 'authenticity of purpose' which I have shown to be a defining feature of CLIL methodology.

Why CLIL in Japan and other Asian contexts?

In Japan, English education is given a very high level of importance, as demonstrated by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology's (MEXT) recent decision to implement English education from primary school level as of 2011. In China also, children begin learning English in the 3rd grade (around the age of 8). The ability to speak English is held in high esteem throughout most of Asia. Japanese English school adverts sell the language as a career boosting, world unlocking, missing piece in the struggle for success (Seargeant, 2009, pp. 107-131). However, despite the ideology of English and its prestige, Japan continues to feature on the lowest ranks of the TOEFL score board across Asia (Yoshida, 2009, p. 387). In a survey conducted by Benesse Corporation involving 4,718 participants, Yoshida noted that 55% claimed not to enjoy studying

English and 90% said that they were not confident in using English. It is perceived as exceedingly difficult for the Japanese to learn English. Although the educational policy and instructional methodology being used in Japan to teach English is often being revised to introduce better practice, teachers and institutions are rarely given enough support to implement them fully, and thus there remains a gap between what should be happening and what is happening in language classrooms. Further, according to the English First *English Proficiency Index* (EPI, 2012), Japan, Hong Kong and South Korea are ranked as having only 'moderate proficiency' in English, whereas China, Taiwan and Indonesia are marked as having 'low proficiency'. The situation seems worse for Thailand and Saudi Arabia, who are in the bottom category of 'very low proficiency'. Conversely, English education in Scandinavian countries such as Finland has been marked by great success. Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Finland and Norway all take up the top positions and are rated as having 'very high proficiency'.

The Finnish education system is receiving a lot of publicity in the Japanese media at the moment, and it seems that Japan is looking to Finland to provide a model for how its English education could be improved. One of the key aspects here is CLIL. In 2007, 16 of the 24 Polytechnic Universities in Finland were offering full degree programs which were conducted entirely in English. The project was very successful (Isokallio & Grönholm, 2007) and more and more universities are following suit around the world. In Japan, The University of Tokyo has just launched the PEAK program, which offers classes on Japan & East Asian Studies and Environmental Sciences entirely in English. At Tokyo University of Foreign Studies, teaching staff are specifically informed that they should use a Content-Based methodology for many of the English language programs offered to both English and non-English majors taking language courses. Sophia University is also leading the way in Japan as a centre for educational reform, utilizing (English as a Medium of Instruction) EMI and CLIL implementation. Sophia now, offers a degree in Global Environmental Studies, with English as the medium of instruction, as well as a module about CLIL as part of its Masters' Degree program in Teaching English as a Foreign Language. Sophia also arranges annual conferences and training workshops with a regular focus on CLIL and is the base out of which the CLIL-Japan initiative is run (see Ikeda & Pinner, 2011). Many other schools and universities are offering CLIL components or EMI courses, and it was announced by MEXT (2006) that as many as 227 universities were offering one or more full-credit content courses taught in English.

CLIL is certainly becoming more popular in Japan, as exemplified by the increase in Japanese-context CLIL books, such as Watanabe, Ikeda and Izumi (Eds.) Volumes One (2011) and Two (2012), Sasajima's (2011) book on CLIL and the forthcoming special edition of the *International CLIL Research Journal* focusing on the Japanese context. CLIL is also important for countries where English is the official second language, such as Singapore and Malaysia, which are notable for being ranked highly in the English First English Proficiency Index (EF EPI, 2012). It seems that CLIL is in a good position to become one of the leading methods of language instruction around the world, but how and why is the CLIL approach so successful?

CLIL in practice

I believe one of the most important aspects of the language classroom is the content being taught. Language teaching has a dilemma in that the content being taught is also the medium of instruction. In other words, we teach language using language. This is not the case for other subjects. Therefore, there is a greater need in language teaching for the content to have a focused topic which is authentic and relevant to the students. I have always been aware of CLIL since I trained as a language teacher over ten years ago, and I thought that its methodology and principles seemed valid. However, until recently I did not think that I could adopt a CLIL approach in my own teaching because I was primarily a language rather than content teacher. My subject was language – therefore the C in my CLIL would be an L, and there is no such thing as Language and Language Integrated Learning. However, when working for a language school in London, I did find myself constantly moving towards what I felt was a content-driven approach. I would embark on large scale projects with my classes which involved learners creating a biography presentation about a famous person or an explanation of how a certain type of alternative energy worked. Some classes even featured students writing letters to the Prime Minister or leaving the class on excursions to interview people on the streets in English. I encouraged my classes to make videos and post on web-pages, all of which I found to be much more motivating and engaging for the students (and for me) than simply using the traditional 'Presentation Practice Production' approach that I had been trained to use on the Certificate of English Language Teaching to Adults. The project-based or content-driven classes still had a language focus, but the language was not isolated or compartmentalised – it was integrated into the work I was doing with the class as part of the projects. Then I realised that I was in-fact using a content-based approach, only perhaps the language focus was what gave birth to the content rather than the other way around.

Since I have been working at Sophia University and implementing a more discernible CLIL approach in my classes, I have grown as a teacher and my enthusiasm and enjoyment for my work has grown accordingly. When I was a student, I imagined I would become an English literature teacher, because it was literature which inspired me the most and it was my literature teachers who seemed the most enthusiastic about their work. I got work as an EFL teacher simply because I wanted to travel to Japan. Back in 2004 when I first started working in EFL, I was not aware that I was embarking on a life-time career in which I would eventually begin a doctoral research degree. I did know, however, that I was passionate about the subject and the students and that I enjoyed the job. I was, and have always been, proud of my work as a language teacher. In a way my own dual focus in both educational background and teaching experience has a lot in common with the dual aims of CLIL. Becoming a CLIL teacher was a natural part of my evolution as my ideas developed about how languages should be taught and learned developed. I was lucky to find work in the English Literature Department, but I have also taught CLIL in many other departments. I have taught Applied Linguistics, Environmental Issues, British Culture, Presentation Skills, Research Methods and even IT as CLIL classes in which there was a distinct dual focus on both language and content. However, engaging with the content and overcoming language barriers is a challenge for both students and teachers. Motivation is therefore a very central issue when facing such high learning goals.

Motivation – Background and Definition

Despite its widespread use in language teaching and research, 'motivation' is a very difficult term to define. For some, motivation is the single most important factor in determining the success of a learner to achieve their linguistic goals (Dörnyei, 1994; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010; Gao & Lamb, 2011). The importance of motivation is not in debate, so it is little wonder that the research on motivation in both educational psychology and second language acquisition enjoys a rich and complex history.

L2 motivational theories

The literature about second language (L2) motivation has developed independently of the general motivational literature from the field of psychology (Gardner, 1979; Ushioda, 1998, p. 83). L2 learning is often perceived as having a very different and individual position due to the size of the task of learning another language, the long time periods involved and the way language learning motivation is “the product of a complex set of interacting goals and intentions” (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 13). Dörnyei (ibid) refers to this as ‘parallel multiplicity,’ highlighting the very different nature of L2 motivation to that discussed in the mainstream psychological literature. Examining the motivation to learn to drive a car, for example, and that to learn another language will necessitate a very different view of the concept of motivation.

Gardner and his associates were highly influential early researchers interested in L2 motivation, most notably for making a distinction between *instrumental* and *integrative* orientations (Gardner, 1985 see Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010 for a summary). This distinction was considered vital when issues of culture were involved, which are naturally present in L2 learning environments. The integrative orientation was perceived to arise from positive attitudes towards the target culture, which might be either the desire to speak to members of that culture or to even become one of them. Instrumental orientation, on the other hand, was seen as comprising extrinsic factors such as wanting a better job or to improve one’s social standing (Dörnyei 2001, p. 49). One criticism of these distinctions arose from the fact that many instrumental orientations might actually be internalised and thus there are *levels* of instrumental orientation (Dörnyei 1994, p. 520). A further criticism comes from the idea that the integrative/instrumental approach relies too heavily on a binary view of culture, and as such does not represent the modern world.

In the subsequent articles and discussions relating to theories of L2 motivation, Gardner’s model has been expanded upon, most notably by Dörnyei and his proposal of a ‘self’ framework (2005). He later developed this framework into *the L2 Motivational Self System* (Dörnyei, 2009), best summarised by its distinction between the learner’s L2 *ideal self* and *ought to self*. Within this system the *ideal self* is predominantly defined as a “desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves” (ibid, p. 29) and as such incorporates both integrative and internalised instrumental components of motivation. In contrast, the *ought to self* has a focus on avoiding negative outcomes, such as failure or embarrassment or being able to meet with social expectations. Dörnyei states that this theory “represents a major reformation” (ibid, p. 9) of previous L2 motivational theory because it incorporates theories of the self from mainstream psychological literature whilst maintaining the roots of previous L2 approaches. Dörnyei argues that “the self approach allows us to think BIG” (ibid, p. 39) and as such it has the flexibility to relate to a multicultural and globalised view of L2 motivation which is necessary when considering the cross-cultural implications of CLIL.

In terms of authenticity and motivation, one particularly insightful view of motivation is what Ema Ushioda advocates a in her *person-in-context* view of motivation, which is "emergent from relations between real persons, with particular social identities, and the unfolding cultural context of activity" (2009, p. 215). For Ushioda, the individual identity of the learner is essential in their motivation to learn the target language, stressing the importance of allowing learners the autonomy required to speak as themselves. The importance of autonomy in motivation has also been established for many years, most notably in Deci and Ryan's (1985) *self-determination theory* which posits that autonomy, competence and relatedness are essential factors in the motivation to learn a foreign language. For van Lier also, authenticity and motivation go hand in hand. His definition of authenticity echoes Ushioda's *person-in-context* approach to motivation:

> An action is authentic when it realises a free choice and is an expression of what a person genuinely feels and believes. An authentic action is intrinsically motivated. (van Lier, (1996, p. 6)

Elsewhere, Ushioda notes that "the notion of engaging our students' identities is something many experienced language teachers have intuitively recognised as important" (2011, p. 17) and explains that doing so is not new or surprising but is in fact what many good teachers do instinctively. In breaking down and analysing what it is that 'good teachers' do to motivate their students, it might be possible to use this information in teacher training programs and perhaps also to inform materials design. However, I would like to point out here that this process of personal engagement and encouraging students to use their own identities would be likely to rely heavily on the type of materials being used or the content of the class. In Lasagabaster's (2011) study, which directly compared two different classroom approaches, EFL and CLIL, he found that in the CLIL groups motivation was not only higher but also sustained for longer. Further, his study found that learning gains were also higher. For this reason I strongly advocate the CLIL approach. It is my view that by using authentic materials it is much easier to motivate students and to encourage them to engage with the materials, as long as exactly what constitutes as 'authenticity' is understood.

Authenticity – Background and Definition

The use of authentic materials has for almost a hundred years been a relatively common place occurrence in the language classroom (Gilmore, 2007, p. 98). Authenticity is used often in and around the language classroom, and it can be used to describe either the learning materials used for input or the actual language produced by a speaker, which I will look at separately in the next section. Authenticity is referred to both in practical terms as a methodologically sound component of language learning materials and also it is frequently mentioned in the research literature, usually in terms of its desirability and the way it can effect motivation and add value to what is being taught. For example, Widdowson (1990, p. 44) explains authenticity in terms of its relationship to learning aims and outcomes, referring to what he calls the *means/ends equation*. He explains that it is necessary for students to learn authentic language because it stands to reason that they will have to be able to comprehend and make use of authentic language when they communicate in the target language beyond the classroom situation. Therefore authentic language is a 'means to an end'. Widdowson defines authenticity as "natural language behaviour" (ibid, p. 45) and goes on to explain that he sees it difficult to imagine a definition of authenticity which deviates from this. Despite Widdowson's assertions, there are actually numerous definitions of authenticity which have arisen over time from the research literature. Gilmore identifies eight 'inter-related' meanings, which are:

I. *the language produced by native speakers for native speakers in a particular language community*
II. *the language produced by a real speaker/writer for a real audience, conveying a real message*
III. *the qualities bestowed on a text by the receiver, in that it is not seen as something already in a text itself, but is how the reader/listener perceives it)*
IV. *the interaction between students and teachers and is a 'personal process of engagement'*
V. *the types of task chosen*
VI. *the social situation of the classroom*
VII. *the relevance something has to assessment*
VIII. *culture, and the ability to behave or think like a target language group in order to be validated by them*

Adapted from Gilmore (2007, p. 98)

In order to visualise the interplay of these definitions I have developed a simplified diagrammatic version. This diagram will later be used as the basis for a continuum of authenticity in language learning.

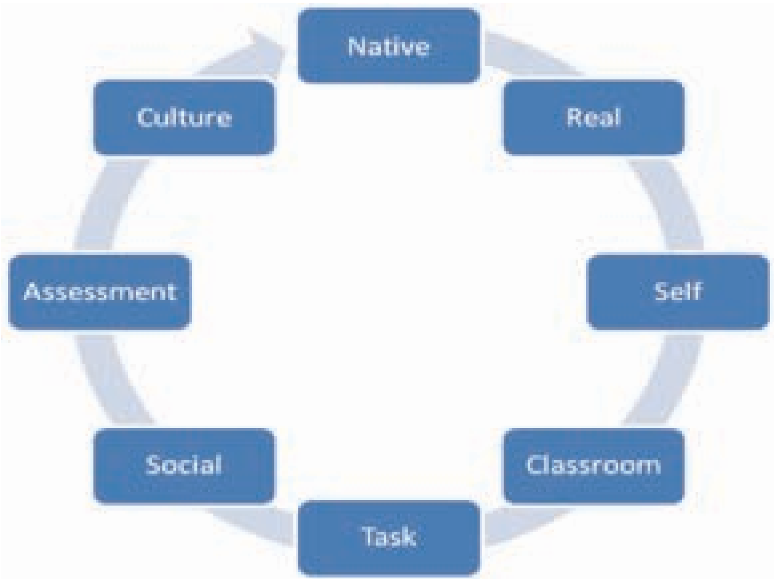

Figure 2: Eight inter-related definitions of authenticity

It may be important to draw the readers' attention at this point to the very first of Gilmore's definitions, which frames authenticity as deriving from the L1 or 'native speaker' realm. For a long time, this definition was the accepted and unchallenged norm. Perhaps this is because it is only relatively recently, say in the past ten or twenty years, that more precedence has been given to the voices of the international community who speak and use English daily as their second language. Previously, the 'classic' example of authentic materials was to obtain a newspaper from the target-language culture and to use that in class in some way, either for linguistic analysis or for a debate of some kind around current affairs. Whilst newspapers certainly are authentic, they are not necessarily the archetype of authenticity. Furthermore, newspapers force us to question the concept which for a long time was the bedrock of authenticity, the idea of the target language culture. In framing authenticity from the realm of the 'native speaker' we automatically presume that there exists some kind of target culture from which examples of 'authentic' language can be extracted and then presented, preserved and still with their authenticity intact, to our learners. This falls under the definition of what Hung and Chen refer to as extrapolation approaches, which they point out assumes "similarity between abstracted concepts and the actual phenomena" (2007, p. 149). This foundation for the definition has proved to be unstable now, because as it turns out we no longer reside in a world where culture is clear cut and where samples of language can simply be picked like fruit from the single tree of the target culture (see for example, Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009). Pavlenko notes that cultures are increasingly homogenous in certain respects because they "continually influence each other" (2002, p. 280) and therefore it can be difficult to draw distinctions between one culture and another using such binary notions.

Gilmore's definitions offer a useful opportunity to take stock of what exactly is meant by the term 'authentic' which is so often used in and around language teaching in general and also the literature on CLIL. Authenticity is seen as important, however I think it is time for teachers and researchers to realise that the term is not always as straightforward as it might initially appear. Gilmore provides a glimpse of the frustrations involved in trying to gain a firm theoretical footing with the concept when he asks whether the term has become "too elusive to be useful" (2007, p. 98). Fortunately, Gilmore overcomes this difficulty choosing to ground his enquiry based on Morrow's earlier definition, that authenticity is "real language produced by a real speaker or writer for a real audience and designed to convey a real message" (1977, p. 13). Gilmore, thus following Morrow, decides that this allows the criteria to be limited to something objectifiable, therefore becoming more conceptually manageable.

While it is certainly useful to keep the definition grounded in tenable concepts, the definition of authenticity becomes untenable again when examining the use of the word 'real'. It seems to me that whilst certainly useful, as a term 'reality' is still rather elusive. Distinctions have been drawn already between 'real' language that takes place outside the classroom and 'genuine' language which is brought in from outside and possibly adapted to suit the learning environment (Widdowson, 1990), yet the term still seems to lack solidity.

For this reason, I prefer Tomlinson and Masuhara's definition, which states that authentic materials are "designed not to transmit declarative knowledge about the target language but rather to provide an experience of the language in use" (2010, p. 400). In this definition, a clearer concept is provided by explaining what is *not* authentic – i.e. language teaching which prioritises description over actual use. Tomlinson and Masuharas' description also adds a new term into the mix, the use of the word 'experience'. An experience is almost as hard to define as what is real, however the definition clearly places the emphasis on language as it is used and casts aside the notion of breaking language down into compartmentalised rules which can be explained as 'declarative knowledge' but not actually used as the language would be in its natural state. In this way, Tomlinson and Masuhara's definition places authenticity within a sociocultural context, prioritising the use of language as a 'tool' (returning to the Vygotskyian term defined earlier) through which some other function is achieved. To put it simply, authentic language is language where something other than language for its own sake is being discussed. Grammar drills and repetitive explanations of the rules for forming correct sentences in the target language are not authentic, whereas discussions about environmental issues or exchanges of other information such as personal beliefs and opinions are authentic. This situates the use of authentic materials clearly within a content-based or CLIL methodology, in which authenticity is gained by there being an "authenticity of purpose" (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010, see also Lasagabaster, 2011). This definition also forms a strong conceptual link with Ushioda's (2009) *person-in-context* view of motivation.

Three domains of authenticity

In Tomlinson and Masuhara's definition, authenticity is being used to refer mainly to the materials (texts) being presented to the students. However, it may be more illuminating to further separate the concept of authenticity so that it refers to one of three distinct, yet overlapping and interacting areas: authentic texts, authentic tasks and authentic language in use.

Figure 3: Three domains of authenticity

Basically, authenticity can refer to materials with which the students interact and use as sources of input for language, but authenticity may also refer to the tasks set by the teacher as a way of engaging with or *experiencing* this content. For example, a teacher may provide students with a newspaper which is from an L1 English speaking context, the aforementioned 'classic' example of an authentic text. However, suppose all the teacher does is to ask the students to underline every instance of the passive-tense and then copy them out into their notebooks for translation. Under the definition of authenticity established in the previous section, this would *not* be authentic. This refers to the use of authentic texts in authentic ways (Pinner, 2012), and thus a distinction between texts and tasks is important. The third domain of authenticity is the language in use, which refers to the classroom interactions between learners with their peers and teachers. This is especially important in CLIL classes where there may be more instances of translanguaging (Garcia, 2009a) or code switching as the students deal with the content they are learning and negotiate understanding, which happens naturally in bilingual speakers (see Lorenzo, Casal and Moore, 2009). Although each domain of authenticity is distinct, they overlap and influence each other continuously. For this reason, I would like to propose that authenticity ought not to be defined in terms of a single target culture or the origin of the text used. Authenticity needs to be conceptualised in a way that takes into account the degrees of involvement and levels of personal engagement that will result from the task used, which preferably will also feature some form of local contextualisation. Authenticity also needs to take account of the context of the learners, in order to gauge the relevance of the materials to them and thus predict the level of engagement. Therefore I have developed an authenticity continuum which tries to take into account the various degrees of authenticity and the contexts in which they are used.

The Authenticity Continuum

In order to address the difficulties of overlapping cultures, classroom contexts and real contexts whilst at the same time accommodating the distinction between authentic texts, tasks and language in use, I have devised a continuum which can be used to evaluate authenticity from multiple perspective

s.

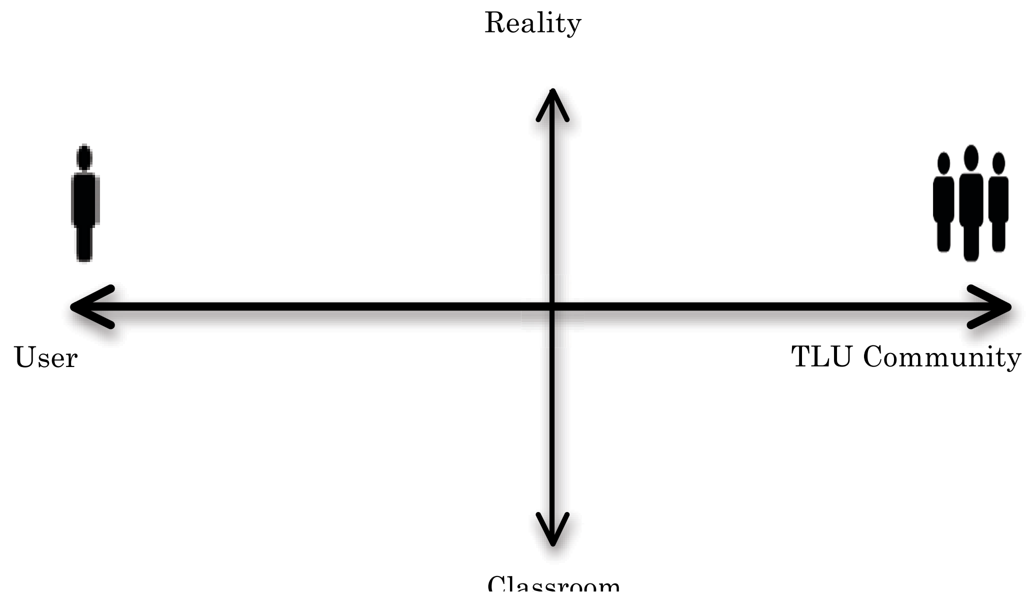

Figure 4: The Authenticity Continuum

The vertical lines represent relevance to the user or the Target Language Use (TLU) community (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). The horizontal lines represent the context in which the language is used. Using this continuum, materials, tasks and language in use can be evaluated according to relevance and context of use without the danger of relying on a pre-defined notion of culture or of falling back into practices that utilise extrapolation approaches. It is hoped that this continuum will also allow further emphasis to be placed on materials which are relevant to the students, thus allowing for a more personal engagement and potentially leading to greater motivation and autonomy. The continuum also helps to establish the importance of the choice of content when designing language learning courses and activities.

With a working definition of authenticity in place and a further distinction between authenticity as it relates to three separate instances where language is used in the classroom it is hoped that the term has gained a more concrete base from which to launch a deeper analysis of the relationship between content, authenticity and motivation in future studies.

EFL and CLIL – integration or opposition

In this article I have tried to establish the deep conceptual links between CLIL and authenticity, stressing the value of authenticity in terms of increasing motivation. However, a shared common criticism levelled against both the use of authentic materials and the integration of CLIL is that they require an existing knowledge of the language, and in the case of authentic materials the requirement is usually thought to be a high proficiency in order to deal with the inevitable linguistic complexities. However, as Peacock (1997) was able to demonstrate, authentic materials can be used to increase motivation even with lower-proficiency learners. One of the main points I would like to make in this article is that CLIL can also be used with any students at any level of the curriculum (Mehisto, 2012, pp. 51-52). It should also be noted that CLIL is not off-limits to non-English majors or lower proficiency learners, there can in fact be benefits to lower proficiency learners as well. CLIL has been successfully implemented in primary school level educational contexts and with lower-proficiency learners, (see for example Yamano, forthcoming). However, I would say that in order to teach CLIL and for it to be effective, the teacher either needs to be experienced and familiar with both language teaching and the content area, or there needs to be a team-teaching scenario in which teachers support one another in their specialisms, as is suggested by Coyle, Hood & Marsh (2010). At Sophia University I taught English Literature because that is what I have experience with, but CLIL courses or CLIL electives could just as easily focus on Economics, Global Issues or Mathematics. There are many different configurations of CLIL (see Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010 ibid). The key to CLIL implementation is to have clear goals for both content and language, with the students and teachers working together towards “pre-defined” goals, as Mehisto (2012, p. 52) advocates. Depending on the existing language proficiency of students at the time of beginning the course, and depending on the content learning outcomes, CLIL courses need to be adapted and assessments negotiated to meet achievable goals. One of the other criticisms levelled against CLIL is that inevitably one of the subjects suffers, be it content knowledge or language proficiency. The research literature presents a mixed picture on this front. For this reason, the language and content learning aims need to be clear and within the students’ ZPD. This is why expectations, learning outcomes and assessment methods need to be reasonable and they need to be made very clear to the students all stakeholders from the outset in order to successfully implement a CLIL approach.

Conclusion

The main point of this paper was to establish that CLIL is a framework which requires the combined use of authentic materials and higher order thinking skills in a sociocultural learning environment. One of the defining aspects of CLIL is that it uses authentic materials in authentic ways (Pinner, 2012) and ‘authenticity of purpose’ is a central aspect in the strength of the CLIL approach. I also tried to show that authentic language and authentic materials are not the sole domain of the ‘native speaker’ and that by educating learners (and indeed other teachers and teacher trainers) that this is the case it is hoped that authenticity can have an empowering effect on speakers. In addition, I intended to demonstrate that the link between authenticity and motivation is not merely conceptual but in fact very real and demonstrable when authenticity is viewed as a process of personal engagement, following Ushioda’s (2009) *person-in-context* definition and taking into account the learner’s own identities. It would also be an interesting line of enquiry to examine to what extent CLIL classrooms should allow L1 use, perhaps allowing for the L1 and L2 self to interact as the emerging-bilinguals, as Garcia (2009b) calls them, negotiate meaning.

Using a CLIL approach incorporating authentic materials need not be a source of confusion for students or teachers and is not only suitable for elite or high level learners. However support networks need to be in place and CLIL cannot simply be rolled out without adequate training or establishing communities of practice. Authentic CLIL materials are not the sole domain of advanced learners, in fact they are a useful way to motivate students at all levels and make the classroom content more engaging and relevant for them. I would advocate the implementation of CLIL courses because of the rich opportunities and positive effects they can have on the classroom and on the learner’s *experience* of learning the target language.

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Utilizing the CLIL Approach in a Japanese Primary School: A Comparative Study of CLIL and EFL Lessons

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Abstract

In recent years, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has become the subject of attention, especially in East Asian countries, due to the introduction of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education in primary schools. However, limited empirical studies have been conducted regarding the feasibility and potentiality of content-integrated instruction in these contexts (Butler, 2005) with fewer studies related to Japanese primary schools. Therefore, this study explores the potential of CLIL application in a Japanese context from four important aspects, known as the 4Cs: Content (subject matter), Communication (language learned and used in the CLIL lesson), Cognition (cognitive skills), and Community/Culture (awareness toward learning community and pluricultural understanding) (Coyle, 2007; Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010; Mehisto, Marsh, & Frigols, 2008). This paper first defines Japanese primary EFL education and discusses the rationale for applying CLIL approach in a Japanese primary school context. Then, based on the 4Cs perspective, it investigates the differences between a CLIL class of 35 students in a cross-curricular instruction and a non-CLIL class of 36 students in conventional EFL instruction conducted under a common theme, and analyzes results from three different data sets: classroom observations, pupil questionnaires, and teachers' interviews. Lastly, the present study indicates the potential of CLIL approach in a Japanese primary EFL environment.

Keywords: CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning), Japanese primary English education, comparative study, 4Cs perspectives

Introduction

In recent years, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has become the subject of attention, especially in East Asian countries, due to the introduction of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education in primary schools. However, a limited number of empirical studies have been conducted regarding the feasibility and potentiality of content-integrated instruction in these contexts (Butler, 2005). On the other hand, Coyle (2007) encouraged the CLIL research community "to be connected" by "involving more practitioner researchers in articulating theories of practice through learning communities" (p. 558). In regard to these issues, it is particularly important to investigate possible outcomes of CLIL at Japanese primary schools, in which English education was formally implemented in April 2011 and many teachers have been searching for effective educational programs (The Society for Testing English Proficiency (STEP), 2012), while integrating CLIL research into Asian contexts. Therefore, this study explores the potentiality of CLIL at a Japanese primary school by utilizing the four principles of CLIL, known as the 4Cs: Content (subject matter), Communication (language), Cognition (cognitive skills), and Culture/Community (awareness toward learning community and pluricultural understanding) (Coyle, 2007; Coyle et al., 2010; Mehisto et al., 2008).

Background

Japanese Primary EFL Education

Before discussing the implementation of the CLIL approach at a Japanese public primary school, it is necessary to first define the goals and characteristics of Japanese primary EFL education.

According to the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), the formal name of Japanese primary EFL education is "foreign language activities" (MEXT, 2009). Although it does not include a specific language in its name, MEXT (2009) clarifies that "[i]n principle, English should be selected for foreign language activities" (p. 1). The name of the subject itself represents the uniqueness of Japanese elementary EFL education, which is in fact different from that in other Japanese contexts such as junior and senior high schools.

Overall objectives of Japanese primary EFL education.

According to MEXT, the primary purpose of Foreign Language (FL) education is "to form the foundation of pupils' communication abilities through foreign languages"

(MEXT, 2009, p. 1). More precisely, it includes three overall goals: 1) developing an understanding of languages and cultures through various experiences; 2) fostering a positive attitude toward communication; and 3) familiarizing pupils with the sounds and basic expressions of foreign languages (MEXT, 2009, p. 1). Through these objectives, this education was initiated for all fifth and sixth graders in Japan. At the same time, it imposed certain responsibilities on Japanese elementary school teachers who were basically subject teachers. Such responsibilities included creating lesson plans for their English classes on their own.

In this regard, MEXT provides a suggestion for constructing a curriculum under these educational guidelines and recommends that teachers utilize their knowledge of other subjects in order to maintain the interest of their pupils as well as enhance the communication activities in the classroom (MEXT, 2009). On the one hand, this treatment imposes a certain burden on Japanese primary school teachers, who basically differ from English specific teachers at junior and senior high schools in Japan. On the other hand, it provides an opportunity for primary teachers to utilize their knowledge of other subjects in the class. Therefore, it is expected that CLIL can be helpful for Japanese primary teachers to conduct their lessons by informing them how to integrate content and language into the classroom.

The importance of experiential learning of primary EFL education.

As indicated by Yoshida (2011), the importance of experiential learning and the “practical and real use” was lacking in Japanese EFL education until its formal implementation in 2011 (p. 111). In order to define experiential learning, Yoshida (2011) cited several instances of other major subjects that pupils study in the class. For instance, as a part of social studies classes, they can visit a garbage disposal plant in order to observe how refuse is recycled and “to see how society functions” (Yoshida, 2011, p. 104). As a part of science classes, they can grow plants or raise animals as hands-on experiments. Through these study processes, pupils can engage in “practical, down-to-earth experiential learning” (Yoshida, 2011, p. 104).

Furthermore, Yoshida (2011) defined this phase of experiential learning as an “approach phase” (p. 104) and argued that this segment empowered pupils to “take off” where “abstract formulas and cognitively demanding de-contextualized content is introduced” (Yoshida, 2011, p. 104) (see Figure 1). In fact, English was the only major subject that lacked this particular “approach phase” (Yoshida, 2011, p. 104). Therefore, Yoshida (2011) attributed one of the reasons for the failure of Japanese English education as the lack of experiential learning in primary school (see Figure 2).

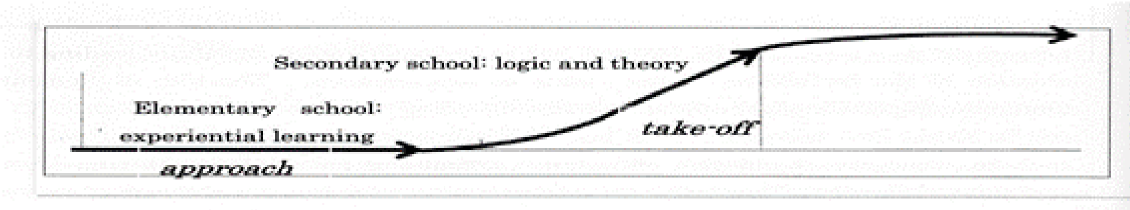

Figure 1. Approach to take off of other subjects in Japan (Yoshida, 2011, p. 104)

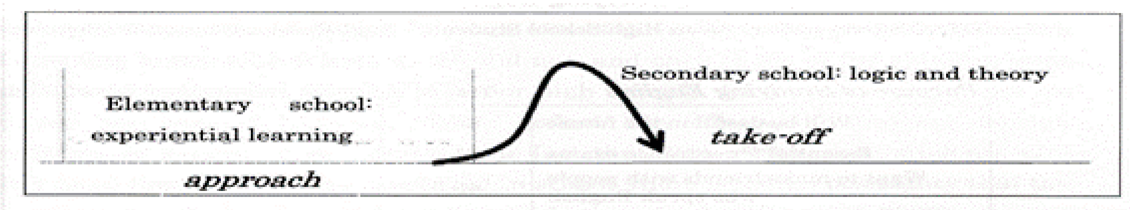

Figure 2. English education in Japan (Yoshida, 2011, p. 105)

In regard to evidence about the failure of Japanese English education, Yoshida (2011) referred to the result of a questionnaire conducted by the National Institute for Educational Policy Research (NIER, 2006). It suggested that the number of junior high school students who favored English declined as they became older. In addition, almost one-third of the junior high school students stated that they could not comprehend English, which was “more than any subject the students [were] studying” (Yoshida, 2011, p. 103).

In order to solve the aforementioned problem as well as realize the successful transition from “approach to take-off,” Yoshida (2011) argued that Japanese primary EFL education should be taught not only “through exposure in the here-and-now cognitively undemanding communicative situation” (p. 111) but also by “learning the skills and knowledge necessary for higher level communication activities” (p. 111). Furthermore, Butler (2005) encouraged Japanese primary teachers, when creating their lesson plans, to include a balance between their pupils’ cognition levels and their English competence. She also insisted that lowering the cognitive level of the activities or materials was not appropriate for pupils in the fifth and six grades even though their English was somewhat limited (Butler, 2005). Thus, the importance of experiential learning is acknowledged in this study based on the premise that CLIL would be useful to enrich experiential learning in regard to Cognition, the third principle of the CLIL approach.

The development of international understanding.

In addition to experiential study, Yoshida (2003, 2008) also suggested that another goal of Japanese primary English education was to develop an understanding of international issues such as global warming, environmental issues, and cultural diversity. The guidelines of MEXT (2009) also stipulated the importance of “deepen[ing] the experiential understanding of the languages and cultures of Japan and foreign languages” (p. 1). MEXT (2009) indicates that deepening the understanding of other cultures and languages can enhance awareness of students toward their own culture and native language. Thus, the development of international understanding should be included as one of the important elements of Japanese primary school English education.

The goals and characteristics of Japanese primary EFL education involve an effective integration of content and language, experiential learning, and intercultural understanding. In other words, these objectives acknowledge the 4Cs: Content, Communication, Cognition (various types of experiential study), and Culture/Community (Coyle, 2007; Coyle et al., 2010; Ikeda, 2011; Mehisto et al., 2008). In the following section, the use of the CLIL approach in Japanese EFL education will be further explored based on the 4Cs perspective.

CLIL and Japanese Primary EFL Education

CLIL was developed in Europe in response to the European Union (EU), which aimed to develop its foreign language education by encouraging students to learn two other languages in addition to their native tongue (European Commission, 2003). Since then, the CLIL approach has proven to be a hopeful educational approach that enhanced student proficiency in their second language by integrating learning content courses along with the non-native language (Coyle 2007; Coyle et al., 2010; Eurydice, 2006; Ikeda, 2011; Marsh, 2000; Mehisto, et al., 2008). The CLIL approach has proliferated in Europe and numerous studies have been conducted on its educational effects (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula, & Smit, 2010). In addition, insightful frameworks have been developed to clearly define CLIL practices, one of which is the four principles of CLIL (i.e. the 4Cs) (Coyle, 2007; Coyle et al. 2010). In fact, it has been reported that CLIL implementation in European primary schools is effective in improving pupil proficiency in the target language (Bentley, 2010; Lorenzo, Casal, & Moore, 2010; Serra, 2007) and fostering a positive attitude and motivation toward language acquisition (Gonzalez, 2011). Thus, this raises the question: is it possible to share these positive attributes in a different context and environment?

As I have explained in the previous section and elsewhere (Yamano, 2013), Japanese primary EFL education appreciate: Content and Communication, Cognition, and Culture/Community, which the CLIL approach values as the four crucial principles of the theory (Coyle, 2007; Coyle et al., 2010; Ikeda, 2011; Mehisto et al., 2008). Therefore, CLIL seems effective for Japanese primary EFL education; however, it is important to further comprehend the rationale for the use of CLIL approach in Japanese primary EFL education in terms of the 4Cs perspective.

Content

The term "Content" refers to the subject matter studied in class. In other words, it is the "progression in new knowledge, skills and understanding" (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 53), which can be constructed not only through one subject, such as science or social studies, but also several subjects depending on the theme of learning (Coyle et al., 2010; Ikeda, 2011; Mehisto et al., 2008). In addition, as mentioned above, the guidelines of Japanese primary school English education suggests that instructions in class should be in accordance with the students' interest by linking it with several other subjects (MEXT, 2009). This is in agreement with the description of one of the core features of CLIL methodology: "maximizing the accommodation of students' interests" (Mehisto et al., 2008, p. 29) by bringing authenticity to learning (Coyle et al., 2010; Marsh, 2000; Mehisto et al., 2008). Thus, it is expected that a CLIL class learning environment is an effective one (Coyle et al., 2010; Mehisto et al., 2008) since it may provide Japanese primary school pupils with meaningful and authentic educational context.

Communication

Under the term "Communication," CLIL recognizes the importance of three different types of languages: 1) the language of learning (language required to learn the primary concepts of the content); 2) the language for learning (language required to engage in classroom activities or related tasks); and 3) the language through learning (language that was not planned beforehand but emerges during the lesson (Coyle, 2007; Coyle et al., 2010). Particularly, "language through learning" never appears without active participation of the teachers and the students (Coyle et al., 2010), which is one of the main objectives of Japanese early EFL education. In regard to these three types of languages, this study acknowledges the importance of the "language through learning," while investigating whether the differences between a CLIL and a non-CLIL environment.

Cognition

The term “Cognition” refers to cognitive skills that students employ during the lesson (Coyle et al., 2010; Mehisto et al., 2008). The CLIL approach encourages students to utilize various types of cognitive skills from low cognitively demanding ones such as understanding or memorizing key vocabulary, to high cognitively demanding skills that include creative thinking while using the target language (Coyle et al., 2010; Ikeda, 2011; Mehisto et al., 2008). As a result, CLIL teachers should be concerned about a sufficient balance in terms of cognitively and linguistically demanding tasks when they establish a CLIL program. In a similar vein, it has been indicated that the consideration of classroom activities in Japanese primary EFL education was crucial in order to fill in the gap between pupils’ lower levels of foreign language competence and their relatively higher levels of cognitive skills (Bulter, 2005; Yoshida, 2011). In order to comprehensively illustrate and realize these complex procedures, Coyle et al. (2010) developed the CLIL Matrix adapted from Cummins’ 1984 model (see Figure 3).

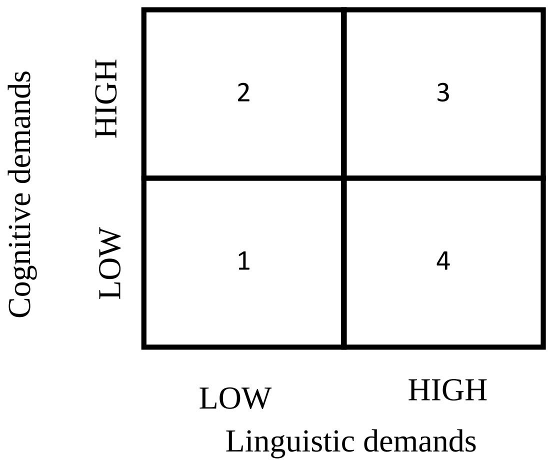

Figure 3: The CLIL Matrix (adapted from Cummins, 1984) (Coyle et al, 2010, p. 43)

According to this CLIL Matrix, Coyle et al. (2010) explained that the “tasks [should] follow the route from low linguistic and cognitive demands to high linguistic and cognitive demands” (p. 68). Quadrant 1 is the starting point and provides initial confidence to the learners by lightening their low linguistic and cognitive demands. Quadrant 2 ensures that language learning does not impede the progression of cognition. In Quadrant 2, it can be assumed that the learned language is recycled while the students are engaged in tasks that utilize their high-order thinking skills. Quadrant 3 represents the final situation wherein the students engage in tasks by incorporating new language and high cognitive skills. Quadrant

4 is used only when high linguistic demands necessitate linguistic practices or grammar explanations in order to assist the progress of learning (Coyle et al., 2010). This matrix is applied in this study in order to investigate how CLIL and non-CLIL students cognitively engage in classroom activities.

Culture/Community

Although, the terms “Culture and Community” are used interchangeably in CLIL theory (Ikeda, 2011, p. 8), Ikeda (2011) explained that the former refers to developing intercultural understanding and global citizenship, while Mehisto et al. (2008) defined the latter as the realization “that being members of the learning community is enriching” (p. 31). Thus, the CLIL approach aims to bring global issues into the class through the enrichment of learning communities, which is in line with one of the purposes of Japanese primary school English education (MEXT, 2009) as mentioned in 2-1-3.

Therefore, the goals and characteristics of Japanese primary school English education clearly coincide with the 4Cs of the CLIL approach, as seen in Figure 4 below.

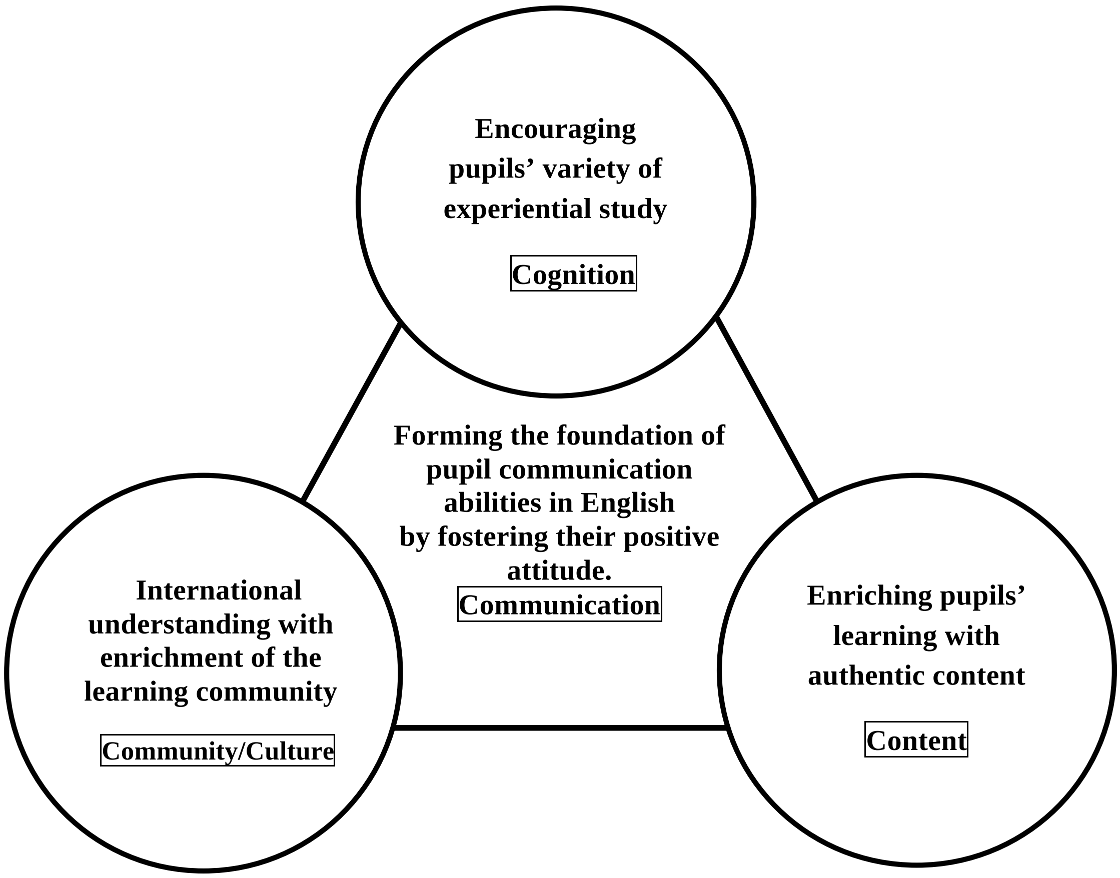

Figure 4: The aims and characteristics of Japanese primary school English education based on the 4Cs of the CLIL approach

Based on these ideas, it is worthwhile to explore the feasibility and potentiality of the CLIL approach in a Japanese primary school by comparing the differences between CLIL and non-CLIL (standard) instruction through the 4Cs perspective.

Methodology

Participants

This experiment was conducted on 71 fifth graders at a Japanese primary school. The pupils had just begun learning English six weeks prior to this project and were hence still beginners in English. They were divided into two classes at the beginning of the school year. One class (n = 36, 20 boys and 16 girls) was assigned to non-CLIL class, a regular English class, in which English is taught as a main subject. The other class was a CLIL class (n =35, 20 boys and 15 girls) in which English was used as a medium for content learning along with several other subjects.

This study involved four teachers: a native English-speaking teacher (NTE), a Japanese teacher of English (JTE, the researcher conducting this study), and two homeroom teachers who were in charge of their own classes. The English classes were carried out by the NTE and the JTE through a team-teaching approach while the role of the homeroom teachers was to support their pupils during the class.

Instruments

This study utilized three different types of data: 1) recording of the lessons; 2) pupils' responses to a questionnaire; and 3) teachers' interviews. First, three video cameras and eight integrated circuit (IC) recorders were used to record all of the classroom interactions as well as the pupils' reactions during the class. The collected data was then transcribed and utilized to identify the differences between the two classes. Second, a Likert-scale questionnaire and two open-ended questions were administrated to the pupils in both classes. The former was used to obtain the pupils' overall impressions toward their classes in terms of their understanding of the content and language, perceived difficulty of the class, and their level of satisfaction. The latter was used to examine individual and detailed reflections regarding the classes, which were answered voluntarily by the pupils. Finally, semi-structured interviews with the teachers were conducted in order to obtain their opinions regarding the classes. In particular, since the CLIL instruction differed from non-CLIL instruction, the teacher of the CLIL class homeroom was interviewed in order to determine whether the teacher perceived any potential problems in the lessons. Thus, all of the data was utilized to investigate the difference between the CLIL and non-CLIL instruction as well as explore the positive and negative aspects of CLIL application in a Japanese primary EFL context.

Procedures

Three research lessons for both CLIL and non-CLIL classes were conducted from June 2nd to 16th in 2011. The topic for this study was “animals,” which was chosen beforehand on the basis of a need-based analysis of the pupils and teachers. The lessons were aimed at familiarizing the pupils with the names of colors and animals, characteristics, and habitats of animals as well as using interrogative questions in English, such as “What animal do you like?” or “What animals live in the ocean?” and so forth.

In the non-CLIL class, English lessons were conducted in a conventional approach by solely focusing on language learning, which involved: Presentation/Input; Practice (e.g., explicit practice using questions and visual aids such as picture cards or videos); and Production/Output (e.g., playing fun games using the learned vocabulary). Furthermore, the teachers continued to focus on the overall objectives by providing the pupils with numerous fun learning activities to maintain their interest, familiarize them with the target vocabulary, and cultivate the pupils’ positive attitude towards communication.

On the other hand, the CLIL lessons were conducted by incorporating the 4Cs, which are described in more detail below.

In regard to “Content,” the instruction incorporated arts and crafts as well as science and social studies. In the first lesson, the pupils created their favorite animals with colored clay while using related vocabulary in English. In the beginning of the second lesson, which focused on science as well as arts and crafts, the pupils learned about the animals’ habitats by categorizing the animals they had made in the previous lesson and then assembling all of the animals into a zoo constructed of colored clay. The third lesson was a social study class in which the pupils studied various issues regarding endangered animals and attempted to devise solutions to save them.

In terms of “Communication,” the language of learning, the target vocabulary, was the same as in the non-CLIL lessons. The “language for learning,” the language for classroom operation entailed the use of phrases, was similar to those used in the non-CLIL class. The “language through learning,” the unplanned emergent language, was accomplished by the augmentation of interaction and active involvement of the pupils and teachers.

As for “Cognition,” keeping in mind that the pupils were still beginners in English, each lesson included activities that included “lower-order thinking skills” (LOTS) such as remembering, understanding, and applying (Ikeda, 2011, p. 8). By memorizing and understanding English words, they engaged in related tasks by using the target language and higher-order thinking skills (HOTS) such as “analyzing, evaluating, and creating” (Ikeda, 2011, p. 8). For instance, during the first lesson, since the colors of the clay were limited to five (red, blue, yellow, white, and black), it was assumed that the majority of the pupils would need a combination of the colors to make their favorite animals instead of just one. In other words, it required them to apply their existing knowledge about colors and use their newly learned English vocabulary in order to answer the teacher’s question, “What color do you want?” In the second lesson, the pupils utilized the same cognitive skills to create their zoo while the third lesson demanded the pupils apply HOTS in English to think about solutions for saving endangered animals. It is obvious that it was the most challenging lesson for the pupils, since it required “creation,” which is regarded as the most cognitively demanding process in the revised version of Bloom’s taxonomy (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001, p. 31).

Finally, regarding “Community,” the pupils’ learning was expanded from individual work to classroom discussion about animals during the sequence of lessons. Furthermore, the primary task in the second lesson required cooperative learning. As for “Culture,” the understanding of international matters and learning about endangered animals was interwoven in order to raise the students’ awareness regarding this particular global issue.

Results and Discussion

In this study, several differences were identified in relation to the 4Cs of CLIL, which will be described below.

Content: CLIL Class and its Diverse Emotions

A major difference between the CLIL and non-CLIL instructions was seen in the emotions experienced by the pupils during the classes. In fact, the CLIL class pupils perceived more diverse emotions compared to those in the non-CLIL class. This is hypothesized that one of the reasons for this distinction is due to the difference in the content.

In the case of the non-CLIL class, fun learning games and activities were utilized to foster the pupils’ interest in the target language. Consequently, majority of the non-CLIL pupils described their overall enjoyment from the games. In fact, English classes that involve playing games are very popular at Japanese primary schools, and the NTE of this study described it as a “regular” approach in his interview. This course of study follows the idea that teachers should provide pupils with the opportunity “to experience the joy of communication in the foreign language” (MEXT, 2009, p. 1).

On the other hand, CLIL pupils expressed not only enjoyment but a variety of other emotions such as sadness, sympathy, and satisfaction during the lessons. For example, during the first CLIL lesson, many pupils experienced pleasure and enjoyment when creating their favorite animals and working on their English skills. One CLIL pupil stated that it was the best class that she had ever taken over the last five years. In the third lesson, a number of CLIL pupils expressed deeper emotions such as grief and sympathy after becoming aware of the global issue regarding endangered animals; in fact, three CLIL pupils actually shed tears when they learned that endangered Sumatran elephants died from hunger due to deforestation. Furthermore, overall CLIL pupil satisfaction was apparent in their responses as a result of the sense of accomplishment felt by them regarding a discussion of the possible solutions to save the endangered animals.

One of the reasons why such diverse emotions appeared was due to the authenticity of the content. For instance, CLIL pupils studied actual situations that endangered animals faced on a daily basis. By realizing and thinking about the solutions enriched the students’ range of emotions while using English. This appears to underscore the importance of “maximizing the accommodation of students’ interests” (Mehisto et al., 2008, p. 29) by bringing authenticity to the class (Coyle et al., 2010; Marsh, 2000; Mehisto et al., 2008). In addition, it may be effective to realize one of the primary objectives of Japanese elementary school English education: deepening pupils’ experiential learning that is appropriate to their ages and interest by enriching the content of the lessons.

Communication: “Language through Learning” in the Lessons

The main vocabulary of the lessons and the phrases used for the class were planned beforehand and taught in both the non-CLIL and CLIL lessons. However, the emergence of “language through learning” (incidentally used or recycled language) could not be predicted (Coyle et al., 2010; Ikeda, 2011). Therefore, the advent of the language may influence active involvement in the class (Coyle, 2007; Coyle et al., 2010). Through the use of audio equipment, all of the classroom interactions and the “language through learning” were transcribed. The findings revealed that such language was rarely elicited from the non-CLIL pupils. Meanwhile, various examples of such language emerged in the

CLIL class during the lessons as reactions or questions. Table 1 below presents these differences:

Table 1. Language through Learning

	CLIL class	Non-CLIL class
1st lesson	Total: n = 72 (LTL from the pupils: n = 29) Gray, brown, turtle, polar bear, whale, giraffe, pig, rabbit, tail, eyes, nose, mouth, teeth, ears, big, small, long, short, break, broke, connect, again, new, thank you, please, yes, no (LTL from the teachers: n = 43) pretty, cute, wonderful, excellent, good, great, Be careful, Look at this, You're welcome, How much do you want?, This much or more? A lot or a little? Do you need more? Do you understand it? Yes or no? Good job! You did it!	Total: n = 25 (LTL from the pupils: n= 2) Yes, no, (LTL from the teachers: n = 23) Are you OK? Can you say the color in English? Do you understand the rule? Let's start. Ready go! Hang on! Good job!
2nd lesson	Total : n = 79 (LTL from the pupils: n = 26) Different, light green, dark green, light brown, dark brown, bird, sea, lake, fish, shark, treasure, pirates, grasses, desert, cold, deep, How do you say ~ in English? (LTL from the teachers: n = 53) sea lion, seals, salt water, fresh water, What color would you like? Do you have ~? Who made ~? Next is ~. Which do you want? In English, we say ~. We can say ~. Is this a ~? Both are OK, Over here, For example, Say sorry to your friend. Be nice to your friends. Great. It's interesting.	Total : n = 14 (LTL from the pupils: n = 0) Nil (LTL from the teachers: n = 14) Who won the game? Oh, that's great. Can you find the animals? Great. Wonderful.
3rd lesson	Total : n = 71 (LTL from the pupils: n = 44) Don't throw dirty things in the ocean. Help animals. Protect our nature. Think about animals. Let's cooperate! Be kind to animals. Please take dirty things. Don't cut trees and recycle! Protect animals. Let's recycle. Don't make many dams. Don't waste electricity. Don't kill animals, (LTL from the teachers: n = 27) How wonderful your message is! Do you need a help? You're doing very well. Well done! Everyone did a wonderful job today. Please show us your pictures.	Total: n = 18 (LTL from the pupils: n = 0) Nil (LTL from the teachers: n = 18) Do you understand? Can you say that again? Be quiet. Try it again. Be nice to your friends.
Total	n = 222 (LTL from pupils: n = 99, LTL from teachers: n = 123)	n = 57 (LTL from the pupils: n = 2, LTL from the teachers : n = 55)

Note. LTL = Language through Learning.

According to Table 1, there was a greater incidence of the emergence of "language through learning" in the CLIL class. It also reveals one apparent difference between the CLIL and the non-CLIL class: CLIL pupils actively engaged in the interaction with teachers more by inquiring about necessary expressions that could describe their individual needs or thoughts. As a result, the teachers responded with increased vocabulary compared to those in the non-CLIL class. However, in the non-CLIL class, the expressions that the pupils employed appeared to be fixed due to limited opportunities such as repeating the target vocabulary or using them in the games, both of which were introduced to reinforce the pupils' correct use of the target language. During the post-lesson interview, the NTE reported that he had more freedom to interact with the pupils in the CLIL class through the integration of content and language compared to those in the non-CLIL class.

In addition, it was discovered that Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS), the language necessary to communicate with people in everyday life situations (Cummins, 1981), appeared more frequently in the CLIL lessons than in the non-CLIL lessons. For instance, during the first lesson, all of the CLIL pupils had to engage with the teachers in order to receive their necessary colored clay, and several BICS expressions naturally emerged such as "Here you are," "Thank you" and "You are welcome." Furthermore, another example of BICS was identified in the second CLIL lesson when the school principal appeared and helped create the class zoo with the CLIL pupils. The English teacher asked the principal, "What color would you like?" instead of "What color do you want?" The expression seized CLIL pupils' interest and helped them realize the richness of the foreign language by learning a polite expression in English. Furthermore, the phrase was utilized as recycled "language through learning" in the teachers' skit during the next CLIL lesson. In the Japanese EFL public-school environment, it is rare for students to engage in natural interactions involving BICS in a language class. In this regard, CLIL may be effective to enhance the natural use of the target language, which is necessary for basic interpersonal communication. Thus, the results show that CLIL encouraged the use of "language through learning" during the lessons, which rarely appear in conventional EFL lessons. In other words, CLIL pupils more actively participated in language learning compared to those in the non-CLIL class. This difference may represent the potential of CLIL in deepening experiential learning by providing pupils with the opportunity to use the target language in a practical way as well as making them realize the need to express their individual thoughts.

Cognition

The overall results point to the positive effects of CLIL application. However, during the third lesson, three CLIL teachers had a disagreement in terms of imposing cognitive burdens on the pupils. They anticipated problems regarding the tasks, and believed that such activities were too difficult for CLIL pupils on the basis of two aspects: high cognitive and linguistic demands.

In regard to high cognitive demand, it was assumed that two cognitively demanding works would be imposed on the CLIL pupils: difficulty in both the content and task. In fact, the content of the third lesson, the problems facing endangered animals, was to be studied in the third term of the sixth grade according to the syllabi. This meant that pupils would be studying this particular subject more than one year ahead of time. In regard to the difficulty of the task, pupils were required to think about how to save endangered animals and write their ideas in both Japanese and English. Unlike the non-CLIL class in which the target vocabulary was acquired through fun learning games, the final CLIL class required higher cognitive engagement in order to comprehend the content and engage in the serious and relatively abstract task. As for high linguistic demand, vocabulary and expressions required to understand the aforementioned difficult content would be in English, and not in their L1, Japanese, despite the fact that they had just begun learning English. The CLIL class homeroom teacher deeply anticipated the challenge and was concerned that it might even discourage the students while undermining the positive responses from the previous two lessons. The NTE also made a similar plea to decrease the level of difficulty in the lessons.

All of these objections raised concerns about the feasibility of the lesson in this researcher’s mind. However, having observed the CLIL pupils’ attachment and involvement in the previous two lessons, I trusted the overall potential of the final lesson and attempted to convince the other teachers to continue with the original lesson. After several meetings with the CLIL teachers, it was finally agreed upon that strengthening the linguistic scaffolding during the lesson by a systematic use of both the target and the pupils’ first language as well as the use of realia would stimulate interest in the pupils regarding endangered animals.

In fact, the CLIL pupils’ participation and concentration during the final lesson was most significant. Their interest in learning about endangered animals was so keen that all of the CLIL pupils were eager to comprehend the content in English. As a result, they engaged in the final task by thinking of solutions to this particular global issue and expressing them in both English and Japanese.

As a result, the third lesson revealed a clear distinction between the two classes in terms of the levels of cognitive skills used in the lessons. The CLIL class pupils engaged in a wide range of tasks (from LOTS to HOTS) by learning both content and target vocabulary, whereas even after explicit practice, the target vocabulary acquired by the non-CLIL pupils was limited in range since they only employed low-level cognitive skills (understanding and memorizing the language) during the three lessons. The co-relationship between how the pupils expanded their cognitive levels and linguistic demands in each lesson is shown in Figures 5 and 6:

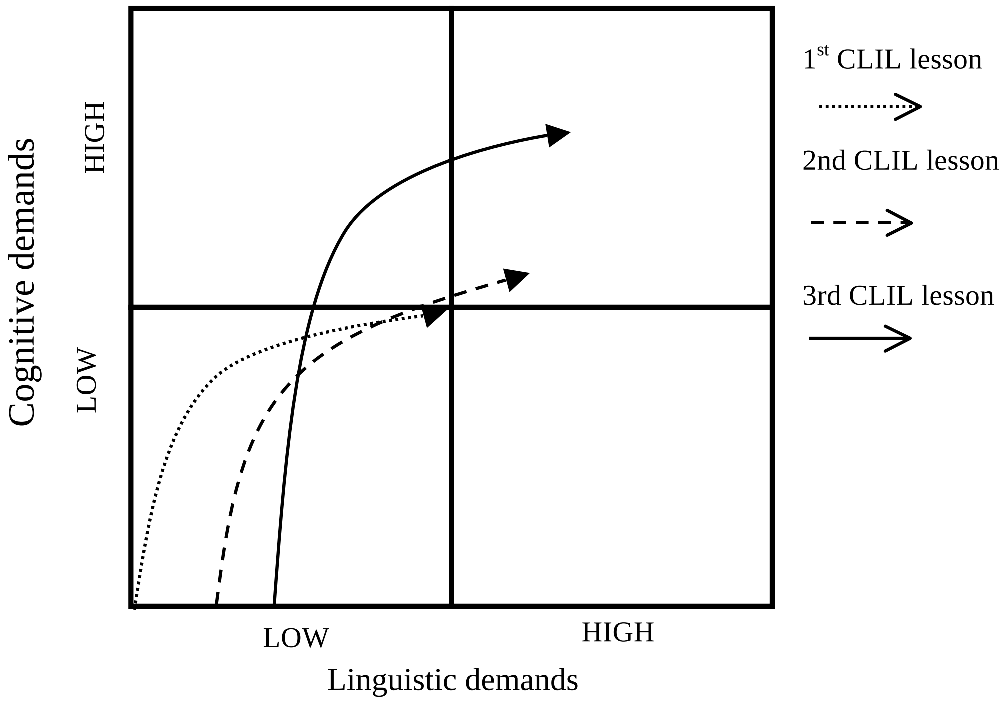

Figure 5: CLIL lessons in the CLIL matrix (adapted from Cummins, 1984) (Coyle et al, 2010, p. 43)

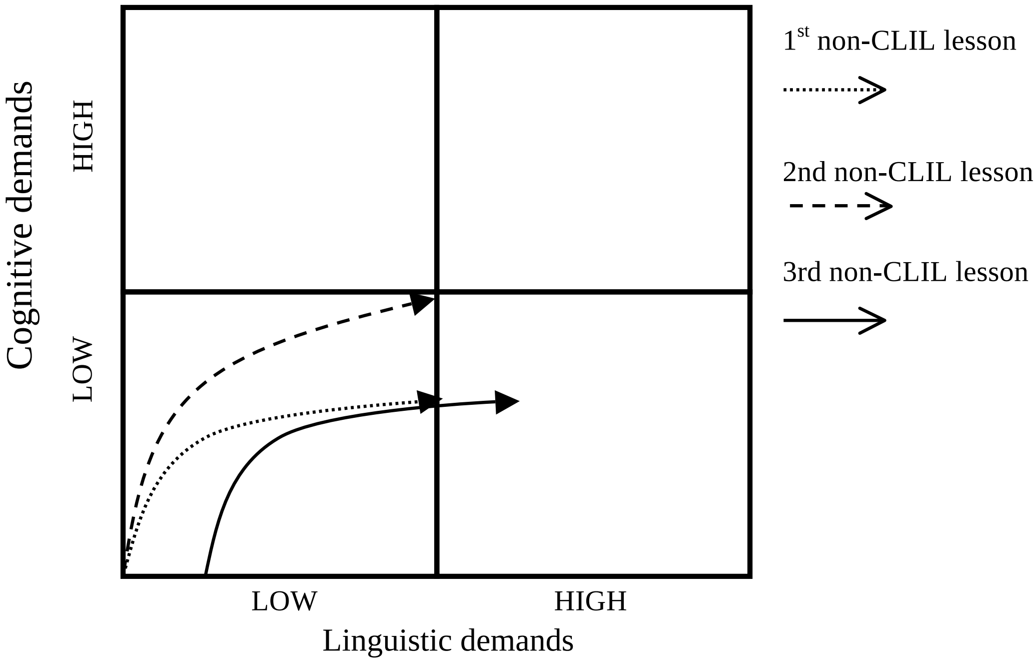

Figure 6: Non-CLIL lessons in the CLIL matrix (adapted from Cummins, 1984) (Coyle et al, 2010, p. 43)

Drawing upon these notions, it appears that CLIL lessons have the potential to help pupils utilize various levels of cognition by stimulating their interests with authentic content while also challenging them with high linguistic demands.

Community/Culture

Two differences were found between the CLIL and non-CLIL lessons under Community/Culture: 1) cooperative learning in the CLIL lessons versus playing learning games together in the non-CLIL lessons; and 2) active participation of CLIL students in the task related to certain global issues.

Cooperative learning in CLIL lessons versus playing games in non-CLIL lessons

In the CLIL class, cooperative learning was interwoven with one of the 4Cs, enrichment of learning community. Interestingly, despite the fact that several mishaps occurred during the second lesson in the form of disagreements, none of the CLIL pupils responded negatively to the question related to satisfaction. This ambivalent result appears to have derived from the product of cooperative learning. For instance, one CLIL pupil described her frustration about a conflict that had occurred during the cooperative learning lesson with the negative expression, “it was not fun today.” Nevertheless, she responded positively on her Likert-scale questionnaire with "I am satisfied with the lesson." The pupil subsequently explained the inconsistency of her responses on the questionnaire by stating that although she had a quarrel with one of the group members during the lesson, the product of the group work (i.e., the class zoo) had made a positive impression on her.

On the contrary, despite learning English through playing fun games, the non-CLIL pupils reported lower levels of satisfaction on the questionnaire. One non-CLIL pupil reported that she had been pinched by another person in her group since she was procrastinating during the game. As a result, she responded negatively on her Likert-scale questionnaire. It is apparent that, although playing games was favored by many primary pupils and assumed by teachers as being effective for encouraging pupils to actively participate in a foreign language class in Japan, it may include the danger of escalated competitiveness, which may ultimately demotivate the pupils.

Thus, these differences reinforce the importance of cooperative learning, as indicated by numerous scholars (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1994; Kagan, 1992; Slavin, 1994). In addition, such differences elucidate the overall effectiveness of the implementation of cooperative student-centered activities into CLIL lessons (Mehisto et al., 2008; Meyer, 2010).

CLIL Pupils' Comprehension of Global Issues

One of the obvious differences between CLIL and non-CLIL classes also appeared during the third lesson. That is, the global issue regarding endangered animals was comprehended by the CLIL pupils as one of the important topics for classroom discussion. However, it might not be appropriate to compare the CLIL and non-CLIL classes since the non-CLIL class did not engage in discussing the matters. One can assume that just by learning vocabulary related to global issues without a streamlined lesson, a pupil would find it difficult to recognize the seriousness of global issues and participate in the world community. On the other hand, it is CLIL application that brought the opportunity to the pupils to participate in the task related to one of the world problems. Thus, it is apparent that CLIL has the potential to help students develop their understanding of international matters, which also resonates with the overall purpose of Japanese primary EFL education.

Conclusion

The present study explored the usefulness of CLIL courses by examining them in comparison with non-CLIL regular mainstream classes in a Japanese primary school. The results of the in-depth analysis of classroom observations, students' questionnaires, and teacher interviews revealed that differences did exist between the two different types of instruction. For instance, in terms of Communication, the richness of "language through learning" appeared in the CLIL class, whereas unplanned language rarely appeared in the non-CLIL class. This finding shows that CLIL enhanced classroom communication by fostering a positive student attitude. As for Community, the enhancement of CLIL student cooperative learning was apparent, which enriched the learning environment compared to that of the non-CLIL class.

However, it was found that in several findings, the reality was much more complex. Although the present study began with the intention that the results would reveal the differential contribution of the 4Cs: Content, Communication, Cognition, and Culture/Community, interaction with one another enhanced the learning in the classroom in a positive manner. For example, with authentic content (i.e. Content), the CLIL students were emotionally enriched, which also encouraged them to actively engage in the linguistically and cognitively demanding tasks (i.e. Communication and Cognition) related to global issues (Culture). This can be seen as the contribution of the Content aspect of CLIL. Nevertheless, without the integration of the 4Cs, this positive synergy might not have worked in this study. Thus, it may not be possible to individually separate the four components, nor would it be effective. However, in order to help CLIL instructors understand the four principles of CLIL, it would be advisable to characterize the expected contributing factors in terms of the individual components. Such an attempt is shown in the diagram in Figure 7. The shaded portion illustrates the positive effects of the CLIL program conducted in this study.

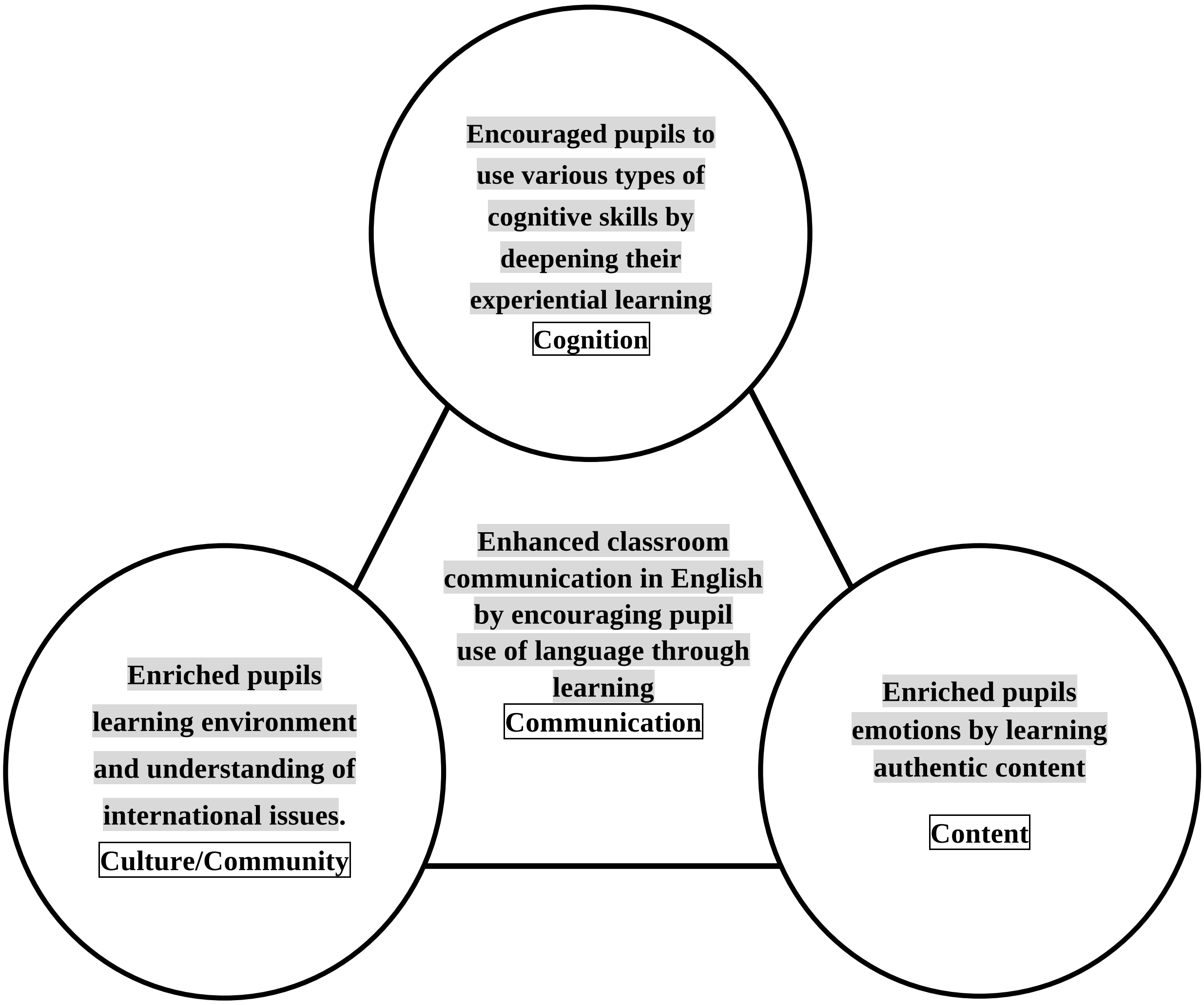

Figure 7: The potentials of CLIL application in Japanese primary EFL education found in this study

Thus, this research study concludes that utilizing the CLIL approach in a Japanese primary school has the potential to improve Japanese primary EFL education.

However, there were two limitations in this study: 1) this was only a single exploratory study regarding the application of a CLIL program; and 2) the numbers of the participants were restricted. Consequently, the results of this research may not be applicable to other school contexts. Therefore, additional research in more varied contexts is necessary in order to verify the overall feasibility and potential of CLIL application.

CLIL has emerged as a promising instrument for the development of education, not only in a European context but also in Asia. Since CLIL has improved in Europe by realizing a way to share and cope with the problems among the various countries, it is expected that the same phenomena will occur in an Asian context. Hopefully, this exploratory study will be utilized for future studies in order to increase the benefits of

CLIL application for both students and teachers who attempt to enhance their English education.

Ackowledgements

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Chinese-English Bilingual Education in China: Model, momentum, and driving forces

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Abstract:

English-medium academic publications concerning bilingual education (BE) in China, which involves using a foreign language (usually English) to teach part of the subject matter of non-language subject(s), are emerging. This paper aims to clarify some misleading information and to challenge a number of viewpoints arising from these publications. It proposes Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) as a more accurate label than immersion for the most widely used Chinese-English BE model, takes issue with the claim that there is no sign suggesting the strong popularity of BE will dissipate in the foreseeable future, and challenges the evidence used in a discussion of driving forces behind the BE "craze". It concludes with some suggestions for future research, such as identifying good practices of CLIL..

Keywords: English-medium instruction, foreign-medium instruction, bilingual education, content and language integrated learning, CLIL, immersion

Introduction

Fishman's (1976: 56) observation concerning majority-language students in Mainland China (hereafter "China") that "BE involving foreign languages is still rare" required no modification until the turn of this century. In the public education sector, from the late 1990s, Chinese-English BE at the pre-tertiary level has been promoted by local governments in Shanghai, Jiangxi Province, Liaoning Province and some cities including Shenzhen, Guilin and Wuxi (Cheng, 2012; Wei, 2011). In comparison, this type of BE at the tertiary level has gained consistent support from state departments (e.g. the Ministry of Education) since 2001. In other words, Chinese-English BE at the tertiary level enjoys overt support from the state, while at primary and secondary levels it is, at best, endorsed by local governments (see Wei, 2011 for a more detailed review).

There is no shortage of publications in Chinese addressing aspects of Chinese-English BE for majority-language students since its emergence (cf. He, 2011) whereas those published in English (e.g. Hu, 2007) are just beginning to appear. Some misleading information and misinterpretations in the Chinese publications have been found and addressed by researchers (e.g. Fang, 2002; Wei & Xiong, 2005; Hu, 2008). A certain misleading discourse can be detected in the emergent English publications and has yet to be addressed. The present article aims to address part of this problematic discourse, drawing upon official documents, research papers and interviews with six front-line teachers from four schools in Shanghai, viz. Schools A, B, C and D where the author collected part of the data for his doctoral study. It first challenges the claim that “partial immersion” is “the model widely used and promoted for schools” (Feng, 2005: 538), casts doubt on the observation that “there is no sign that the BE craze will dissipate or even abate in the foreseeable future” (Hu, 2007: 116), and finally questions the evidence used in Hu’s (2009) discussion of “driving forces behind the BE craze”.

Frequent references will be made to Shanghai, the host city for the 2010 World Expo as it spearheads the experimentation of Chinese-English BE. Three indicators suggest that Shanghai has arguably the greatest potential, amongst the many regions in Mainland China, to achieve success in providing Chinese-English BE. Firstly, Shanghai in 1999 became the first region to promote Chinese-English BE as a regional-government-organised endeavour, which was followed by other provinces and cities mentioned above. Secondly, Shanghai boasts the most concentrated base for research on BE concerning majority-language students; for instance, the first university-affiliated research centre specializing in Chinese-English BE was founded at East China Normal University in Shanghai, the first academic journal (viz. *English Teaching and Research Notes*) to devote a column to this type of BE is based in Shanghai, and the first three bi-annual national conferences on BE were held in Shanghai (the fourth one concluded in Changchun in June

2011). Thirdly, Shanghai has pioneered the most systematic procedures for implementing BE; for example, in October 2004, the Shanghai Education Commission (2004b), the government organ in charge of education affairs in Shanghai, advanced nine specific criteria for selecting exemplary BE schools; these criteria have been adopted, with only slight modifications, by other cities (e.g. Wuxi Municipal Bureau of Education, 2007).

The Most Widely Used Model

Many Chinese-English BE programmes in China exhibit some of the eight[1] core characteristics of a total or partial immersion programme identified by Swain & Johnson (1997). Judging from students' exposure to the target language, these programmes in China obviously cannot be characterised as "total immersion" programmes. Understandably, Feng (2005) claims that they follow the "partial immersion" model which, he believes is "widely used and promoted for schools". However, the use of the term "partial immersion" to refer to many if not most Chinese-English BE programmes is problematic. It fails to account for two fundamental programmatic differences between the Chinese programmes and their Canadian counterparts, for which the term was coined.

First, the label "partial immersion" often has the connotation of using a second language (L2) as an instruction medium for *at least* 50% of the total instruction time (Cummins, 1995; Baker, 2001: 205). But this is not the case even with the best BE programmes in Shanghai. The proportion of English-medium instruction was found to fall between 2.9% and 23.5%[2] of the total instruction time at some of the first-batch municipal-level exemplary BE schools. These schools, totaling 28 (Wei, 2011), provide arguably higher exposure to instruction through L2 (English) than the district-level exemplary BE schools and those where English-medium instruction has not received recognition from educational authorities. Considering such low English-medium instruction proportion even at some of the 28 top exemplary BE schools, one could hardly be optimistic about the proportion of English-medium instruction at other schools. Hence it makes little sense to categorise these BE programmes as partial immersion.

On the other hand, *Content and Language Integrated Learning* (CLIL), denoting "a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language" (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010: 1), allows a more flexible pattern of language use than in partial immersion. This term has been adopted widely since the 1990s (Marsh, 2002: 58). In CLIL programmes, the percentage of instruction time through L2 in the total instruction time is divided into three categories:

low (about 5-15%), medium (about 15-50%) and high (over 50%) (Marsh, 2002: 17). In terms of exposure to instruction through L2, many if not most BE programmes in China fit into the *low* exposure category of CLIL, rather than the rubric of partial immersion.

Second, many immersion programmes, when introduced in primary education, delay the teaching of the students' L1 until three or four years after the start of immersion (Baetens Beardsmore, 2009). This practice has been questioned by Cummins (1995) who looks to CLIL-type programmes in Europe in order to re-assess early French immersion programmes in Canada. Furthermore, immersion programmes where L2 is used as a teaching medium also tend to deliberately postpone the teaching of L2 *as a subject*, as in the well-documented St. Lambert Experiment (Lambert & Tucker, 1972). However, in China most, if not all, primary graders receiving Chinese-English BE learn Chinese (L1) and English (L2) as compulsory subjects right from Primary One. That is to say, in terms of the starting level of language subjects, Chinese-English BE programmes diverge significantly from Canadian immersion but converge towards CLIL. Consequently, compared with partial immersion, CLIL would represent a more accurate label for the mainstream Chinese-English BE programmes.

The BE "Craze"?

To assess the validity of Hu's (2007) prediction about the development of "the BE craze", it is instructive to examine the development of BE respectively at tertiary and at pre-tertiary levels. As mentioned earlier, BE involving a foreign teaching medium has gained support from the state. The Ministry of Education (2001) proposes "actively promoting teaching through foreign languages such as English" as one of its twelve guidelines for improving the teaching quality at undergraduate level nationwide. Under this general statement, more specific measures are proposed:

According to the requirement that "education should face modernisation, the world and the future" and to meet the challenges from economic globalisation and technological revolution, undergraduate education should create opportunities to use foreign languages such as English to teach public and major courses. Majors within the hi-tech area such as biological technology and information technology, and majors particularly necessary for China's adaptation needed to make for its accession to the World Trade Organisation (WTO) such as finance and law, should take the lead and try their best to teach 5%-10% of their courses through a foreign language for the next three years to come. Those institutions and majors that do not yet have the resources to teach through a foreign language verbally may use foreign-medium teaching materials in part of courses with the verbal teaching medium still being Chinese, and should implement foreign-medium instruction in a phased manner.

These measures do not impose uniformity on all majors and across all institutions. However, Hu's (2007: 99) statement that "a ministerial directive required that, within 3 years, 5-10% of undergraduate courses in institutions of higher learning must be taught in English (Ministry of Education, 2001)" creates an impression that *all* institutions are required to provide English-medium instruction, which is not the case according to the above policy excerpt. Similar lack of precision can be detected in Davison & Trent's (2007: 200, emphasis added) statement that "the Ministry of Education demands that 5-10% of courses at *each* higher education institution should be taught in a foreign language", and Gil & Adamson's (2011: 34, emphasis added) observation that "the Ministry of Education issued a circular instructing *all* universities and colleges to use English as *the* medium of instruction for certain subjects"; in both instances, there was no mention of the flexibility in policy implementation (i.e. "in a phased manner" without imposing uniformed requirements on all institutions), or Chinese as *another* paralleling medium of instruction. Such unfortunate lack of precision in recounting the policy measures has misrepresented the intentions of the Ministry of Education.

As from 2001, a series of consistent policy documents (e.g. Ministry of Education, 2004) have been issued at the state level to promote foreign-medium instruction in universities. A recent noteworthy initiative to show the state's support for BE involving a foreign teaching medium is that the Ministry of Education (2008) plans to divert funding to the development of 500 "BE Model Courses" between 2007 and 2010 in a phased manner. As of the end of 2008, 200 courses planned by different universities nationwide have been recognised as "Model Courses" and received funding from the state for their development (see Ministry of Education & Ministry of Finance, 2008).

Unlike its counterpart at the tertiary level, Chinese-English BE at pre-tertiary levels has yet to receive explicit endorsement from the state. While reliable statistics about the status of BE nationwide are not available, a close examination of specific regions may shed some light on the whole picture. Again, Shanghai, where official statistics and information about BE are relatively accessible, serves as a useful example.

The best available official statistics show that as of December 2006, Shanghai boasts about 300 primary and secondary schools, 2,900 teachers and 140,000 students participating in Chinese-English BE (Zhu, 2007). The Shanghai Education Commission has planned to expand its provision of BE to half a million students (viz. about one fourth of the current total student population) in 2010 (Wei & Su, 2011). Given this ambitious goal, Shanghai's Chinese-English BE provision is supposed to be in process of being expanded. Nevertheless, such provision seems to have been contracting in the past few years, as illustrated by four indicators.

First, the Shanghai Education Commission has failed to accomplish its pledge of certifying exemplary BE schools. Although the Shanghai authorities pledged, in a high-profile fashion, to certify 100 such schools by the end of 2007, the number of these schools has only reached 54 (Wei, 2011).

A second indicator is the significant difference between the awarding of the first batch of municipality-level exemplary BE schools and that of the second batch. On December 1 2004, a ceremony was held to award the title of "Shanghai Bilingual Education Experimental School" to the first batch of qualified schools. At the ceremony, a number of speeches were delivered by leaders from district and municipal levels, highlighting the importance of BE and commending the achievements of participating schools; then 29 schools were tentatively awarded with the honorary titles, each receiving a steel name plate carrying the title. Furthermore, the press was invited to cover this event. Right from the awarding day, information about these 29 schools was publicised on the Shanghai Education Commission website for public scrutiny. The public's criticisms and objections, if any, regarding the awarding were invited. In June 2005 the Shanghai Education Commission (2005) issued a document to confirm the certification of 28 schools, indicating that one school failed to pass the public scrutiny. The steel name plate with the name of "Shanghai Bilingual Education Experimental School" is now hanging outside the gate of each of these 28 schools, proudly displaying the recognition from the authorities.

In short, the high-profile certification of the first batch of exemplary schools involved a grand awarding ceremony, good press coverage, an online public scrutiny period, and confirmation in the form of an official document. But similar treatments were not enjoyed by the second batch. According to Zhu (2008: 178), an official-cum-researcher in charge of BE in Shanghai, the results concerning the second batch were expected to come out in July 2005. However, the list of the second-batch schools has not been available in the research literature or on the Shanghai Education Commission website, where the list of the first batch can be easily located. Schools A and B respectively fall within the first and second batches. According to two teacher informants at School B, only a small in-house meeting was held to announce the results of the second batch selection; furthermore, schools in the second batch were told *not* to hang their steel name plates outside the gates. In the 2007-2008 school years, during his field visits to School B, the author noticed that the steel name plate, which was supposed to be used for display at the gate, unfortunately lay in an indoor exhibition room of this second-batch exemplary BE school.

A third indicator is that the annual number of official documents germane to Chinese-English BE reached a peak between 2001 and 2005 but dropped to virtually zero beyond 2005. It is especially noteworthy that BE had enjoyed the luxury of being mentioned in the Shanghai Education Commission's (2001; 2002; 2003; 2004a; 2004c) annual *Outlines of Work* for five consecutive years. However, BE was never mentioned again in this series of documents after 2005. The absence of initiatives concerning BE in official documents is rather unfortunate for the provision of English-medium instruction in Shanghai especially in view of the first indicator. Should the goal of certifying 100 municipal-level exemplary schools still be one that the Shanghai government genuinely commits itself to, initiatives concerning BE should continue to be spelled out in more rather than fewer or even no policy documents such as the annual *Outlines of Work*.

Chinese-English BE's loss of favour in municipal policies was so drastic in the past few years that it was clearly felt by all of the author's teacher interviewees in 2008. For instance, Teacher A, a primary school maths teacher, remarked that "in the past two years, enthusiasm for BE at the municipal level seems to have cooled down". Teacher B, a senior secondary teacher of Computer Studies, comments that "I felt that at the municipal level BE had been pretty much emphasized…. But recently it seems that I have heard nothing about the (municipal) work on BE. In addition, I asked some colleagues and they told me that there so far has been no work about BE on the agenda".

A fourth indicator is that some schools, which had provided BE, may have trimmed down their English-medium lesson periods, or simply have quit. According to Teacher A at School A, in 2008 she "has left English-medium instruction in maths and assumed the duty of teaching English as a subject". This implies that English-medium lesson periods at School A had been significantly reduced, which was corroborated in the author's group interview with some School A students. Teacher A can be considered the best English-medium instruction teacher at this school because she is the only teacher with the title of "Model Bilingual Education Teacher" in 2004, an honour shared by only 33 teachers citywide. Assigning good English-medium instruction teachers like Teacher A to work only as an English subject teacher represents a waste of human resources and possibly an intention to diminish BE provision on the part of School A. Since such cases even happened with an outstanding teacher at an exemplary BE school, one may not be too optimistic about situations in other ordinary schools which had previously claimed to offer English-medium instruction.

These four indicators attest to an implicit slow-down in the provision of BE at the pre-tertiary level in Shanghai. This important development seems to have escaped the attention of Hu (2007; 2008; 2009) who believes there currently exists a “craze” for BE. If this development in Shanghai, which spearheads the national pre-tertiary BE, is deemed unsatisfactory, one may not be optimistic about its momentum nationwide. On the other hand, since tertiary BE involving a foreign medium enjoys explicit endorsement and consistent support at the state level, the general impression that the number of English-medium programmes in universities nationwide is increasing may be largely valid, despite a lack of statistical evidence. All in all, when it comes to the tertiary level, Hu’s prediction about “the BE craze” may well be true; as for the pre-tertiary level, Hu’s prediction may require modification once the recent development in Shanghai, among others, is taken into account.

Driving Forces Behind the Bilingual Education “Craze”: Teachers and Parents as Vested-interest Groups?

Utilising Bourdieu’s sociological notions of capital, field, and distinction, Hu (2009: 49) identifies “the vested interests of stakeholders and major players in the field of English language provision” as a group of driving forces behind the BE “craze” in China. For Hu (2009: 49-51), the stakeholders and major players with vested interests include teachers, parents, “many other individuals, organisations and businesses”, in addition to “local governments in Shanghai and Guangzhou”. While Bourdieu’s theory constitutes an interesting framework to examine the provision of BE, it is the linkage between Hu’s evidence and his theoretical constructs that is problematic.

First of all, Hu claims that many teachers welcome BE because it brings with it an opportunity for them “to procure more economic, cultural, and symbolic capital” (Hu, 2009: 50) such as an increase in salary. Indeed, many schools do offer various incentives (e.g. salary increases) to encourage teachers to teach bilingually, as Hu rightfully notes, but one important issue is not raised, namely whether the extra incentives are commensurate with the extra efforts expended on English-medium instruction by the teacher. The author’s interviews with front-line teachers showed the answer to be in the negative. Although the teachers could receive some rewards, they unanimously regarded the incentives as meagre. According to the interviewees, their efforts on an English-medium lesson ranged from twice to over twenty times those on one Chinese-medium lesson; however, normally they only received 10%-30% extra pay for implementing BE. The teachers all indicated that the incentives still had “much room for improvement”. Since teaching bilingually can be more demanding for teachers, it is natural that teachers expect sufficient incentives. This phenomenon is by no means unique to BE teachers in Shanghai or elsewhere in China. For example, in Bulgaria, where “CLIL type provision focuses exclusively on foreign languages” (Eurydice, 2006: 54) and therefore is quite comparable to the situation in China (Wei & Xiong, 2010), the education authorities have to deal with pressure from CLIL teachers who want a salary increase as a well as a reduction in their teaching time

Insufficient incentives may aggravate the problem of teacher shortage in BE provision. It has been widely reported that Shanghai is in great need of teachers capable of teaching through a foreign language (Wei & Xiong, 2005). Unfortunately, some teachers, such as Teacher A at School A, stopped teaching bilingually as a result of the disappointing “incentives”. It is unfair to accuse teachers of being preoccupied with money through highlighting the extra incentives they may have, especially when we know the additional hard work they must do for foreign-medium instruction. Shanghai and many regions providing some form of CLIL-type BE may learn from Canadian French immersion regarding how to alleviate the teacher shortage problem. A major measure to mitigate a “near-crisis” in the supply of French immersion teachers during the early 1990s was to offer sufficient incentives; as one ministry in Canada reports, “the province now has less difficulty because its school boards offer very high salaries and excellent benefits” (Obadia & Martin, 1995: 87).

Second, it is fallacious to consider “parents and older students” supporting BE as stakeholders with vested interests. Some people with low socio-economic status, as measured by their educational qualifications and/or occupations, may well support foreign-medium instruction. According to a large-scale language use survey with a representative sample of over 165,000 households in China, as of mid-2001, 2.30% and 6.24% of Chinese mainland residents would like to have a foreign teaching medium respectively at local primary and secondary schools (the Steering Group Office for the Survey of the Language Situation in China [(henceforth “SGO”], 2006: 91-95). Among those supporters, certain proportions of people with relatively low educational qualifications did voice their support for foreign-medium instruction at primary and secondary levels: 0.47% and 3.35% of people with below primary education respectively, 0.61% and 3.78% of those with primary education, 1.64% and 6.06% of those with junior secondary education, and 3.14% and 8.29% of those with senior secondary education (SGO, 2006: 154-6). People in less prestigious occupations also supported using a foreign teaching medium respectively at local primary and secondary schools: 0.51% and 3.90% among production personnel in agriculture and husbandry, 2.38% and 6.67% among the then unemployed, and 3.40% and 8.91% among students (SGO, 2006: 154-6). The figures reveal that even among lower socio-economic groups there is some support for BE. Given the large sample size and the "very good" representativeness of the sample (SGO, 2006: 325) in terms of generalising findings to the national population, it seems safe to suggest that many foreign-medium instruction supporters may well belong to socio-economically disadvantaged groups. These groups can hardly be subsumed into what Hu (2009: 49) refers to as stakeholders and major players "with vested interests".

Third, the attributions seem simplistic when Hu (2009: 50) suggests that "parents and older students support BE because English proficiency has become a most valorised form of cultural capital" and that "many other individuals, organisations, and businesses have self-interests in Chinese-English BE because it is a gold mine". BE is simply "another route to bilingualism", with teaching the second language as a subject being a common route (Baker, 2001: 106). The previously cited national survey found that nationwide the percentages of people with foreign language learning experience were 38.18%, 44.36%, 64.97%, 89.71% respectively in the 60-69, 45-59, 30-44, and 15-29 age groups (SGO, 2006: 171); in terms of numbers of learners, there were 415.95 million Chinese foreign-language learners in Mainland China as of mid-2001, of whom 390.16 million had learnt English (Wei & Su, 2012). Virtually all of these people must have undergone the route of learning English as a subject, because the organised provision of Chinese-English BE did not emerge in Mainland China until late 2001. Given their personal experience of the route to bilingualism, people may not necessarily support BE *simply* because English proficiency is perceived as a social desideratum, or what Hu (2009: 50) calls "a most valorised form of cultural capital". In addition to "English as a social desideratum", Wei (2011) utilises the parents' perceived ineptitude of teaching English only as a subject as well as their perceived positive relationship between English-medium instruction and English proficiency, to account for the high degree of parental support for BE in Shanghai in a questionnaire-based study: most of the respondents viewed English proficiency as socially desirable for their children, but they deemed the teaching of English only as a subject insufficient in terms of delivering the desired level of English proficiency; at the same time, they somehow formed a belief that English-medium instruction can enhance one's English proficiency; so they resorted to Chinese-English BE. Wei's discussion of these three factors, compared with the heavy reliance on one single factor (i.e. English as a social desideratum), may shed more light on the possible causes for stakeholders' support for BE, an intrinsically complex human behaviour.

In connection with his attributing of the provision of Chinese-English BE to the "self-interests" of many organisations and businesses, Hu (2009: 50) gives anecdotal examples such as English language tuition centres in some big cities. However, those courses at tuition centres seldom, if ever, involve teaching non-language subject content through English but tend to be crash courses for English examinations. Moreover, the high annual income taken by the New Oriental School in Beijing in 2001 mentioned in Hu (2009) had little to do with Chinese-English BE *per se*, the organised provision of which did not first emerge in Shanghai (not Beijing) until late 2001. In other words, Hu's evidence sits better with English language teaching in general than with BE in particular.

Conclusion

The most widely adopted English-medium programme models in China fall within CLIL-type BE, as opposed to immersion. Since tertiary foreign-medium instruction has enjoyed consistent support from the state, Chinese-English BE provision has taken root in many universities across the nation and is likely to steadily grow. Pre-tertiary foreign-medium instruction has yet to receive explicit endorsement from the state so any prediction about its future in China as a whole is likely to meet with difficulty given the size of this country. To what extent the "Chinese-English BE craze" prediction concerning the pre-tertiary level is valid in specific regions needs to be substantiated with sufficient evidence. However, this prediction does not seem applicable to Shanghai, which is spearheading pre-tertiary Chinese-English BE in China.

Furthermore, research into the driving forces behind the provision of BE, as well as many other aspects of BE, requires direct and pertinent empirical evidence. Based on available data, it seems unfair to label teachers and parents as stakeholders who support BE due to their "vested interests"; it is misleading to refer to some organisations and business, which support English teaching in general that may have little to do with English-medium instruction, as part of the driving forces behind BE provision. The research on the matter of driving forces is far from conclusive.

As evidence seems to indicate an implicit slow-down in pre-tertiary BE in Shanghai, research examining (potential) problem areas confronting English-medium instruction and possible countermeasures for this city represents a worthwhile direction for further study. The findings from such research may provide useful information for language-related policy makers elsewhere in China, especially those who are considering introducing or are implementing their own versions of foreign-medium instruction. A starting point for this research direction may be to learn from some European countries (cf. Baetens Beardsmore, 2009; Dalton-Puffer, 2011; Ruiz de Zarobe, 2013) where CLIL involving a foreign teaching medium is operating. Besides this direction, other directions concerning CLIL (e.g. the specific characteristics of efficient CLIL programmes in China and elsewhere) merit attention from researchers both in the field of BE and in the ELT community at large, as “CLIL may prove very effective in producing proficient foreign language speakers” (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010: 374).

Notes:

1. Swain & Johnson (1997) identify eight core features of a prototypical immersion programme: (1) the L2 is a medium of instruction, (2) the immersion curriculum parallels the local L1 curriculum, (3) overt support exists for the L1, (4) the programme aims for additive bilingualism, (5) exposure to L2 is largely confined to the classroom, (6) students enter with similar (and limited) levels of L2 proficiency, (7) teachers are bilingual in students’ L1 and L2, and (8) the classroom culture is that of the local L1 community. Each of these features is seen as a continuum which has to be present to some extent to qualify as an immersion programme.
2. These schools needed to publicised BE-related information for public scrutiny on the Internet when they were applying for exemplary BE school certification in 2005. Only five provided data on English-medium lesson-periods. The self-reported lesson-period frequency ranged from at least one per week (e.g. Shanghai Gezhi Secondary School) to at most 8 per week (viz. Shanghai Fenghua Secondary School). Assuming an English-medium lesson was conducted entirely in English, then English-medium instruction would account for 2.9% - 23.5% of the total instruction time (Wei & Xiong, 2011).
3. Educational authorities at a number of districts in Shanghai, such as Pudong and Changning, have certified some district-level exemplary BE schools.

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Identity and Self in Second Language Acquisition

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Bioprofile

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Abstract

Interest in the development of identity and self as aspects of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is increasing, being most deeply addressed in feminist, LGBTQ, and cultural minority fields of research. Examining how identity is addressed in these fields and looking at the pedagogical implications of moving to an identity and self-formation-based understanding of SLA could produce a necessary paradigm shift within the ESL/EFL classroom. This paradigm shift could go alongside the shift towards a more content and language integrated learning (CLIL) oriented classroom, a shift from the language learned as a language to a language learned for use in a variety of contexts by a variety of individuals.

Keywords: Identity, Self, CLIL, Contextual language learning, LGBT, Feminism, Minority issues.

Introduction

Identity and self are two aspects of language acquisition that, while it is true that there is a significant amount of research in this area, is often considered a peripheral issue; whereas in many ways it ought to be considered the primary issue in the development of students as individuals and as language learners. This paper's primary goal is to provide a basic understanding of identity research as it stands, and to address the further question as to how these concepts effect language learning in the content and language integrated learning (CLIL) classroom and how to improve acquisition by incorporating concepts of self-formation into the content chosen for integrated language learning.

Approaches to Identity in Second Language Acquisition

Identity is a broad topic, and, as such, is often broken down to subcategories. The approaches to identity research in language have thus been broken up into several categories. Feminism, lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer (LGBTQ), and cultural categories are each important in their own right, but in order to form a more generalizable picture, we need to look at identity in the broad context as well. On the other hand, maintaining these lines of research, and keeping in mind that they are where these studies began will help avoid identity and self research from falling into the trap of 'heteronormativity' (Dalley & Campbell, 2006; King, 2008). The pretext of what is 'normal' often acts against the move towards generalizability, and as such it is important to examine specific aspects of a phenomena in order to account for the 'normal' as well as the 'queer' (King, 2008).

Feminist Identity Research

The key concept of identity in feminist research is the concept of identity as a collective and emergent trait from narratives. According to Benhabib:

> The narrative view of identity regards individual as well as collective identities as woven out of tales and fragments belonging both to oneself and to others. While narrativity stresses otherness and the fluidity of the boundaries between the self and others, authoritarian and repressive movements respond to the search for certainty, for rigid definitions, for boundaries and markers. (1999, 351).

This conceptualization of identity is common throughout the literature, but often unstated. Benhabib (1999) noted the strength of this conceptual structure, but also the uneasiness associated with such a fluid sense of identity. The allure of the certitude accompanying authoritarian concepts of identity is as powerful as those rigid boundaries are dangerous.

Burck (2011) approached the issue of identity, specifically the aspect of identity formation in SLA as often being a form of mimicry. In some regards this is less a matter of what the student was saying, and more of a manner of how the student said it, through language and actions (Burck, 2011, Sims, 2004). Students would be defining their new identity through the possibilities offered by their teacher. On the other hand, there was also the issue of L1 identity interference. Linguistic skill is linked to movement from one identity to the other, and the choices offered, as well as the choices students are willing to take can limit student success.

Another common issue in feminist studies, and studies of identity and language use in particular is the issue of power relationships. This is a complex issue which can incorporate cultural power relationships, such as in a colonial relationship (Burck, 2011), socio-economic relationships, such as between management and staff, (Baxter, 2008), or even gender power relationship interpretations (Tannen, 1990). The complex interactions, perceptions of interactions, and predicted perceptions of interactions create a complex web that is defined by your use of language. Identity formation can also be an aspect of cultural transformation, as people in power roles shift and attempt to alter the perception of power, (Baxter, 2008). This empowering aspect of identity research in feminist literature is essential to understanding identity as something chosen rather than received

LGBTQ Identity Research

LGBTQ is a group that is far newer to the field of linguistic identity research, but does have a depth of literature in identity outside of language. Kulick (2000) even goes so far as to argue that because there have been so few significant findings, that this field of inquiry ought to be abandoned. Abandoning a field of inquiry while it is so young does not seem very scientific, and it may still yield meaningful results (Sims, 2004).

Research in the field of LGBTQ SLA brings about an interesting concept, that people with homosexual tendencies in restrictive, or what is perceived to be restrictive, cultures, may have an advantage when it comes to learning a language from a culture that is perceived to be more open (Harrison, 2011, King, 2008). The fundamental framework for this line of inquiry and argument is that of language as a way to open the door. Harrison (2011) specifically brought up the issue of ‘conceptualization,’ or the perception of the role of sexuality in different language communities. While it was not the major theme of his dissertation, it was very important, because the actual level of freedom is often less about the societal restrictions and more about self-imposed perceived restrictions. The importance of perceptions is addressed also in the concept of imagined communities (Anderson, 1991, Harrison, 2011, Kanno, 2003, King, 2008; Norton 2001). The idea that communities that one can be involved with are not simply those with which you have direct contact when you are learning, but those that you may have contact with in the future, demonstrates the importance of perception to the structure of identity formation in SLA.

One final issue within this field is the issue of activism, in particular, acting against 'heteronormativity' in academia (Dalley & Campbell, 2006, Harrison, 2011, King, 2008). Considering something normal gives it great power. And, as such, giving privilege to the position of the white heterosexual male as the normal, although Dalley and Campbell, Harrison, and King argue most specifically about the issue of heterosexuality as normal, reduces all others to an inferior status. Thus one aspect of research in this field is, like feminism, empowerment, and specifically normalization.

Cultural Identity Research

Cultural identity has, by far the greatest depth in the field. It is also not as unified as the other fields. Three interesting areas are specific regional groups, multilinguals in multicultural settings, and immigrant populations.

Examinations of regional groups engaged in SLA, most often EFL, tend to be highly specific to the culture they address. As such, identity is often seen as an aspect of culture, and L2 identity as an aspect of the L2 culture they wish to be associated with. Choi and Choi (2002), and Park, Choi and Cho (2006) exemplify the first aspect of this through a culturally dichotomized study of personality traits as a way to better understand identity via understanding culture. Macpherson (2005) follows this same trend, addressing identity formation in terms of 'rejection' of, 'assimilation' to, or 'marginality' from the L2 culture, with additional possibilities of bi- or inter- culturalism. There seems to be a need to use culture as a reference point, an anchor for identity, possibly overstating the role of culture as an aspect of identity.

Multilinguals in multilingual settings is a smaller subset of cultural identity research, wherein the aspect of multiple identities is often specifically studied. Lee and Simon-Maeda (2006) looked at aspects of race and research positionality. This research takes the pro-active tone of feminist and LGBTQ research in addressing race. It also addresses aspects of power relations. Kanno (2003), as well, takes a pro-active tone. Most interestingly, Kanno expands on the concept of language as a tool for identity indoctrination, focusing on the role of schools in creating in imagined community to be associated with one of the students' languages. Burck (2011) and Kim (2003) take a different approach, focusing on the experiences of students as multilinguals with multiple identities. They both found that students took on different personality characteristics when working in different languages or in different cultural contexts. Auer (2005) takes a similar approach focusing specifically on code-switching. This approach gets closer to the concept of how language and identity interact, interactions that are informative in constructing a theory of language acquisition as a form of identity creation.

Studies of language use in immigrant populations tend to be similar in many respects to those of multilinguals, however they tend to also have an additional emphasis on power-relations (McKay, & Wong, 1996, & Menard-Warwick, 2005). This portion of cultural identity research forms a powerful bridge with feminist identity research and addresses aspects of identity formation in a similar manner.

Differentiating Between Language and Self

Identity as an Aspect of Social Group Dynamics

In the context of this paper, I intend to define identity as an aspect of social group dynamics. Identity, on the one hand, occurs in the individual as a perception of a group and their place within that group. On the other hand, the group itself can influence those perceptions, and as such identity, in general, requires understanding as a social phenomenon. The one exception being imagined communities (Anderson, 1991, Harrison, 2011, Kanno, 2003, King, 2008, Norton 2001), which, by their nature, cannot change the individual's identity. To clarify, an individual may change to reflect their perception of what an imagined community is, however this change is reflective, the individual projects an idea and sets out to conform to the idea they have created for themselves. The community, in this situation, is not changing the individual directly because the community is not real. The individual is creating their own reality. Outside of this singular complex group, all other identities examined in this paper are constructs of interactions of individuals within groups, or individuals as members of a group interacting with supra-groups or other groups.

Self as a Neurological Construct

Self is not the same as identity, although they are linked. Self, as it is used in this paper, refers specifically to the neurological construct. This is in line with research done by Schore (1994) into the neurobiological origins of self. As such, self is a physical entity, but one that is best understood in how it alters thought and perception. It is an object with a physical presence, or physical presences. It is a system of neural links from which the perception of self arises, which then paints the perception of the world around it. Research of self, therefore needs to address different issues of the individual, personality traits associated with individual selves, and neurological maps of the orientations of selves with each other. This is the realm of neurolinguistics, however it also places an additional emphasis on the need to perceive language learning as self-formation, as the self is something that is physical, which takes time and effort to develop.

The Importance of a Non-Monolithic Approach

The concept of an individual having a single identity or a single self is no longer sustainable (Scheibe, 1995). To understand what is happening in our students' experience, we have to avoid the precepts of people as individuals in many ways. People, our students, have multiple identities related to their social interactions with various communities. They have selves associated with those communities. Students are a sociological and neurological composite of identities and selves that require understanding as such.

Pedagogical Implications: Language as Formation of a Self and an Identity

Throughout this discussion the focus has been on theory, however, the purpose of theory is to inform practice. Thus the standing question is how we can use these constructs within the classroom. The concept of language learning and acquisition as a function of the generation of a new self brings us into a new paradigm in terms of pedagogy. The old concepts of motivation (Dörnyei, 2003) are far less helpful in this new paradigm. While the concept of student autonomy does relate, in part, to the focus on empowerment prominent in feminist and LGBTQ research, the new focus must be on the promotion of associations within the target language group for the development of identities. As such, the participation in 'imagined communities' (Kanno, 2003, King, 2003, Lave & Wagner 1991), particularly in 'queer' imagined communities (King, 2003), is a fundamental aspect of language acquisition. W.F. Marcus and myself addressed this very issue in case studies of 'underdogs' (Gay and Marcus, 2007) that attempted to take Psathas' (1995) method of "unmotivated observation" to find the underlying aspects of successful language use. And through our own research and meta-analysis of other case studies, engagement in imagined communities, emerged as a recurring theme ([case studies] Childs, 1997, Gay & Marcus, 2007, Naiman et al, 1996, Stevick, 1989, [imagined communities] Anderson, 1991, Harrison, 2011, Kanno, 2003, King, 2003, Norton 2001). In other words, culture, as an aspect of language acquisition, needs to be increased.

The complicated aspect of this scenario is that it requires students to work outside their own culture in order to associate with a new, imagined culture. This requires the incorporation of ‘cultural trancendentalism’ (Gay & Marcus, 2007), in which students work from a place outside of culture, or some form of ‘transculturation’ (Pratt, 1991, Zamel, 1997), where students create a form of interculture akin to interlanguage, in order to place this increased focus on culture within the classroom. The notion of culture, however, needs to be expanded beyond mainstream culture to include academic cultures as well as feminist, LGBTQ, and minority cultures ([academic] Jazvac-Martek, 2009, Lee, & Simon-Maeda, 2006, Morita, 2004 [feminist] Baxter, 2008, Benhabib, 1999, Burck, 2011, MacPherson, 2005, Sims, 2004, Tannen, 1990, [LGBTQ] Harrison, 2011, King, 2008, Sims, 2004, [cultural] Auer, 2005, Burck, 2011, Choi & Choi, 2002, Kanno, 2003, Kim, 2003, Lee, & Simon-Maeda, 2006, MacPherson, 2005, McKay, & Wong, 1996, Menard-Warwick, 2005). Burck (2011) in particular, addresses issues of the need for the expansion of permitted identities, as students can only take a choice which they are given, therefore limiting the scope of identity choices limits the students’ ability to be comfortable in a new linguistic identity.

As a function of self-formation, language acquisition requires moving towards increased emphasis on role playing and language play. Language play, in particular, allows students to develop personal aspects related to the formation of a new cognitive region to encompass the new self. Cekaite and Aronsson (2005) argued that language play played an essential role in the acquisition of an L2 for children. Sullivan (2000) observed this same importance in adult language learners. The importance of play in SLA is significant because it follows the same lines of play in adolescence. This ‘privileged zone of expression’ (Howe, 2008, 569) is a place of self-formation. The purpose of play, in Howe’s estimation, is to experiment with identity roles and definitions. Play is the tool by which we develop self.

This paradigmatic shift favors CLIL. The reason for this is the importance of cognitive content engagement (CCE) (Kong & Hoare, 2011). This theory, based on their research and the foundation set by McLaughlin et al. (2005), posits that engagement with content is a necessary factor in language acquisition. This focus on engagement dovetails with the theory of linguistic association with a new self proposed in this paper. In order for students to engage in topic matter, the content must be both at a level of sufficient difficulty that it is interesting without being so difficult that it is off-putting (Csikszentmihalyi, 1988). An important aspect of CCE is the need for it to be somewhat novel. The introduction of novel content within an foreign or second language context allows students to associate that knowledge with the newly forming self. It is yet another aspect of how CLIL falls within the framework of language as self-formation.

The importance of this perspective not only reinforces the value of CLIL, but can also be used as a guiding principle. It is necessary that the content be novel, to some degree, therefore, having coursework mirroring coursework in a native language context will likely lead to weaker results. Furthermore, the need to address cultural knowledge, through literature, sociology, psychology, or media studies coursework, in a manner that is not heteronormative is paramount in student development. Understanding language as a self-formation process, utilizing these two principles in materials development, and pushing for more content-oriented rather than language-oriented language development teaching will go a long way towards the improvement of the language classroom.

Closing remarks

I do not expect the classroom to change overnight. I do not presume that I can shift the paradigm with a single article. Kuhn (1970) noted how much inertia paradigms have, and the current foundations of pedagogy have been around long enough to have gained exceptional inertia. What I see is important is movement toward a fundamentally better understanding of what occurs in language learning, and how such learning is related to the development of a new self.

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Towards a Critically and Dialogically Mediated EAP

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Abstract
This article addresses issues surrounding an interesting development in Japan – the introduction of academic content courses in English at a growing number of Japanese universities – where Japanese has incumbently and traditionally been the medium of instruction. This late development has resulted in a greater demand for the teaching of English for Academic Purposes (EAP). The article begins with a discussion of relevant literature concerning the socio-historic nature of knowledge and meaning making and how it relates to the teaching of EAP before a critical examination of matters arising from the author's lived experience of two separate teaching situations involving EAP. The article concludes by noting that matters to do with language, meaning making as well as teacher and student subjectivities need to be considered in EAP course conceptualization and planning.
Keywords: Academic Literacies, Critical Praxis, Critical Pedagogy

Introduction

In the last five or so years, there have been interesting developments in higher education in Japan as universities seek to renew, reinvent or otherwise reinvigorate their curricula. One notable observation that can be made about these recent developments is that a significant number of universities have been seeking to have more faculty content courses taught in English where Japanese has all along been the medium of instruction. The choice of English suggests higher education in Japan to be buying into ideological discourses that both naturalize and legitimate the primacy of English as an international language (Oda, 2007; Phillipson, 2008).

Alongside the increase in number of content courses in English has come an increased demand for EAP, with the ostensible aim of equipping students with the necessary academic literacies to be able to participate meaningfully in content courses conducted in English. In practical terms, however, teaching EAP may not be a simple or straightforward move involving hiring more teachers, ordering textbooks and self-access material and adjusting the existing syllabus to give it an academic bent. It would be even less about quickly modifying the ubiquitous 4-skills general English programs to have them labeled as courses in academic English.

Needless to say, with these new developments will come different challenges in course planning as well as concerns about the nature and purpose of EAP in relation to how these developments are perceived by the various stakeholders – administrators, academic faculty, incumbent teachers of general English not leaving out the students. This is bound to happen as new spaces become open for enlivened discussions over the role of English language teaching vis-à-vis the running of academic courses in English and while new sites of contestation emerge as people of different professional persuasions vie for voice and influence. Such contestations and their outcomes will without doubt influence EFL teacher and learner subjectivities and warrant deeper scrutiny in terms of both epistemological influences and ideological implications.

Framing the Issues

Meaning is Dynamic and Socio-historically Situated

In the following discussion, I will examine how a pedagogy that encourages critique and dialogic thinking can be incorporated into the teaching of EAP and content courses in English, with the aim of helping students engage meaningfully and imaginatively with content areas. To do this, I will follow socio-constructivist understandings of knowledge and meaning making as opposed to static and normative understandings (Block, 2007) and discuss how they can be incorporated into EAP programs and content courses delivered in English in an EFL situation like Japan. The discussion sets out to follow a dynamic view of meaning where meaning is socially constructed, contextually bound, multi-layered and relates, epistemologically speaking, to the socio-historic conditions of its construction (Williams, 2010).

In taking on such a view of knowledge and meaning, I seek to move beyond (a) overriding concerns with fixed, positivistic, normative and decontextualized constructions of knowledge and meaning (b) a preoccupation with language as form, structure and denotation which is often linked to a constriction of meanings (c) a preoccupation with a 4-skills and/or skills-based construction of the EFL syllabus which has been argued to be responsible for circumscribed conceptualizations of language teaching and classroom practice (Lea & Street, 2000; Holliday, 2005). I will also argue for wider understandings of how fresh approaches to meaning making can be achieved through opening up new spaces and creating increased opportunities for dialogue and negotiation of meanings. Across all these matters of concern are fairly contentious issues about the aims and nature of EAP instruction alongside obvious implications for the work and positioning of EAP teachers within the institutional hierarchy.

Williams (2010) makes an important observation that has a bearing on EAP curriculum and pedagogy. He notes that while it is a common belief concerning the knowledge economy that ‘information is limited in the sense that it is fixed and given’, the reality is that ‘neither skills nor knowledge are limited, largely because of how new knowledge constantly emerges from “learning by doing”’ (p. 141). Connecting this to the nature of meaning, he notes its ‘dynamic quality’ and how innovation invariably ‘involves denying the discreetness of meaning such that new meaning becomes possible’ (p. 141).

Taking what Williams (2010) has to say seriously, the challenge would be for teachers and students to be comfortable with a greater degree of flexibility – a creative and energizing flexibility in the way meaning and knowledge creation are viewed and appropriated in and through language. Given this, one would imagine an EAP that engenders teacher and student agency in the critique and appropriation of (narrow) formations of meaning that persist through powerful discourses protecting dominant communities of practice. Such discourses exercise strong hegemonic influences over prevailing modes of operation, reasons for such modes of operation, pronouncements made over such modes of operation as well as individual and group identities and subjectivities (Block, 2007).

Fairness, Sense-Making and Teachers’ Ground Experience

In view of the above, one would appreciate the need for an approach to EAP that recognizes and facilitates both teacher and student agency in the negotiation and emergence of meanings that will promote greater fairness, equality and academic integrity. For teachers, this would require a greater recognition (among teachers themselves in the first instance) of the value of their ground experience. Qualifying the importance of teacher initiative, such ground experience would include teachers’ ‘self-conceptualization and self-construction of pedagogic knowledge', 'sense-making', 'context-sensitive pedagogic knowledge' and their first hand insights into contextually-bound specificities 'formed and re-formed by the pedagogic factors governing the microcosm of the classroom as well as by the larger sociopolitical forces emanating from the outside' (Kumaravadivelu, 2009, p. 173-174). For learners, this would mean opening up of new spaces for deeper participation in determining learning objectives, classroom content and different ways of monitoring success through encouraging 'learner investment and learner interest' and opportunities for a 'meaningful role in pedagogic decision making' (Kumaravadivelu, 2009, p. 176). For learners too, this would mean being given a degree of autonomy to enable them to become the critical thinkers who would be able to 'recognize socio-political impediments that prevent them from realizing their full human potential' (Kumaravadivelu, 2009, p. 177).

Hence, EAP will move beyond conceptualizing English classes as being 'shadows' of content lectures, where reading passages for example, will come with vocabulary (and vocabulary lists) that closely coattail the syllabus of a content area and be accompanied with pre-reading and post-reading exercises that go little beyond reinforcing facts and configurations of knowledge in that area.

Narrow Conceptualizations of Language Teaching

At this point, a word about the positioning of teachers would be appropriate. As has been noted in the literature, teachers have at various times and situations been positioned as remediators or repairers of language problems (Swales, 1990; Rose, 1998). If students 'cannot write', the practice has been to have them sent to the 'language clinic' where there will be English teachers and teaching assistants on hand to remedy the maladies. Proceeding from this assumption, the belief is that if students persist with their language problems, then it is the English teachers who are not doing a 'good job', whether it is to correct grammar mistakes or to drill students in specialized vocabulary crucial for academic success.

In all these, a deficit skills model of teaching is implicated, a model which assumes that students are deficient in the language needed for them to master a fixed and pre-existent area of knowledge, a deficit which thereafter needs to be remedied through language instruction by the language teacher (Lea & Street, 2000). Lea and Street consider such an approach to language teaching to be crude and contrived. They note that a skills-based deficit model of language teaching based on atomized skills, an emphasis on form based surface features including grammar and spelling, or 'prescriptions about the use of impersonal passive forms as opposed for first person and active forms (Lea & Street, 2000, p. 33) is not responsive (or rather insensitive) to the literacy practices of academia.

In the same vein, conceptualizations of language teaching for academia which revolve around the narrow ambit of remediation of language deficiencies, modeling of 'ideal' paragraphs, sentence types and text types, are also equally limiting. Such conceptualizations may in turn proceed from what Johns (1997, p. 92) calls 'naïve literacy theories', bearing in mind that academic literacy ultimately cannot be looked upon reductively as being about technical or atomized skills, but must rather be about understanding socially and culturally constructed academic practices (Barton & Hamilton, 2000).

Alongside such concerns about what the teaching of EAP involves are concerns over the subject positioning of English teachers as well as their sense of job worth and job satisfaction. If indeed language teaching is restricted to being about skills and drills, even if the students are eventually expected to be actively contributing members of various communities of practice, then what Benesch (2001) has to say about language teachers being positioned as conduits may hold a degree of truth. Here, one is reminded about Barton & Hamilton's (2000) contention that literacy activities (in the present case, academic literacy) are imbued with social meanings. Hence, the practice of having students read, for example, psychology texts in EAP class and having English teachers teach the vocabulary from psychology textbooks suggests an 'academic' structure which places English teachers as less important than academics lecturing psychology. This is besides the (not so) subtle message that EAP classes may well be regarded as surrogate tutorials ancillary to psychology lectures.

Closer scrutiny of the social and ideological messages that lie behind pedagogical practices as well as assumptions made about the positioning of EAP within institutional portals may prove revealing. This is while bearing in mind that dominant beliefs and discourse formations play a part in defining and/or confining the work of language teachers in ways that may restrict deeper participation in meaning making practices among students (Barton & Hamilton, 2000).

Understandings of English in Japan

In recent years, some quarters of Japanese higher education have seen increased interest in conducting content courses in English, where Japanese has incumbently been the language of instruction. The reasons for this change relate to falling birth rates and enrolments, institutional survival and the belief that courses in English will be a draw for increased international matriculations to make up for shortfalls in local enrolments. This is amidst and in spite of a climate of ambivalence and even resistance against an increased presence of English in Japanese society, principally because of how it may cause an erosion of Japanese culture (Oda, 2007; Hashimoto, 2007). This is also bearing in mind that matters relating to language, identity, culture and nationalism are viewed monolithically in strongly essentialized encapsulations of how Japanese language and Japanese culture are intricately bound in with Japanese uniqueness, spiritedly celebrated in the ethnocentric writings of the *nihonjinron* genre (Befu, 1984 & 2001).

As an almost simplistic outcome of *nihonjinron* ideology claiming the uniqueness of the Japanese people and their culture, the English language is similarly harnessed to perpetuate the stereotype that English speaking peoples are White and normatively American or perhaps British. Speakers of Australian or Black American English actually do not come within such a normative conceptualization of English speaking peoples (Kubota, 2002). Describing the 'social pressure that dictates: "Do not speak English until you can speak it like an American"', Honna (2008, p. 146) notes how English is seen in Japan as an American language, almost to the point of it being *Othered* as something foreign or extraneous to Japanese society. This is also seen in the stereotyping of things English as described in Seargeant (2009) and how English becomes an artifact of a foreign and alien culture, epitomized for example in the Shakespeare Country Park which is used to insularly capture an 'English' culture (Seargeant, 2009), in hackneyed renditions of 'John Bull' as the typical Englishman or 'Uncle Sam' in top hat and dark morning coat and tails as a personification of the USA (Takahashi, 1996).

The overwhelming concern here is whether such narrow conceptualizations of English will render it cosmetic or untenable as an academic language, given the need in academia for a diversity of ideas and meanings to be created and embraced, and where variety and difference are springboards towards deeper inquiry. If conceptualizations of English are thus trivialized or reduced to being about accent (Honna, 2008), ethnicity, nationality, skin color (Kubota, 2002) or about historically removed cultural artifacts like a replica of Mary Arden's cottage in the Shakespeare Country Park, there will be serious doubts about how it can be mobilized in the Japanese context as a language of academic inquiry and critical thought.

Learners and Classroom Atmosphere

Finally, before the next section, a word about what the literature has to say about Japanese learners would also be useful to further help frame the issues at hand. Low and Woodburn (1999) make the observation that Japanese learners approach knowledge and learning through paying serious attention to what is right or wrong, along with a concern for accuracy and exactness. As a result of this, there is generally a low tolerance for nuance, variation, difference or diversity or anything that may be uncertain, subjective or polemic. Such a concern for correctness may well be a reason why more objectivized approaches to teaching such as one that is based on a skills-based deficit model may, on the surface, appear more acceptable than one that emphasizes more nuanced and situated approaches to knowledge and meaning making. Japanese learners who are not used to issues that have no definite answers tend not to be ready with responses to discussions that require them to offer critical opinions. Instead, trust and security are to be found in information and answers provided by the teacher, whose authority is described as such:

Without their physical presence, teachers enjoy invisible authority – referring to the authority, respect, and control teachers secure. The explicit hierarchical organization of schools and classrooms bestow teachers with structural authority. (Sato, 2004, p. 189)

A possible outcome would be that students will not be familiar with approaches that emphasize a constructed, dynamic and situated – rather than a static and pre-existent – view of the nature of knowledge. Thus, they will have to be further primed and prepared to expect a different type of classroom atmosphere rather than one where 'day-to-day classroom life is colorless, and students' perspectives largely remain off the canvas altogether' (Sato, 2004, p. 14). Indeed, Sato (1999) offers some hope of the opposite taking place when she notes that classroom conformity may actually be only superficial and that 'the cultural veneer of homogeneity' that is 'fabricated by standardized practices…conceals…actual diversity and individuality' (1999, p. 120). Hence, she argues for the need to look beyond the homogeneity that reflects the Japanese concern for surface harmony, 'uniform procedures and forms of behavior' that sustain 'outward appearance' but 'not necessarily homogeneity or uniformity…within students' hearts and minds' (Sato, 2004, p. 202).

Teaching Context: An Examination of Two Teaching Situations

To examine more deeply how the reflexivity of knowledge and meaning in academia can be recognized and harnessed in an Japanese EAP situation, I will draw on my own lived-experience as an educator with specific attention to two instances where I have found myself having to seriously reflect on the circumstances, exigencies and ideologies coming to bear on my teaching practice. The first instance was in a liberal arts faculty in a Japanese university where I taught EAP reading. The second is in the humanities faculty of another Japanese university where I am now teaching. In doing so, I hope to tap on the inherently reflexive nature of real life teaching and learning situations and draw lessons that can be applied to the teaching of EAP in a variety of situations where similar challenges present themselves. The issues discussed will hold implications for matters relating to the nature and practices of EAP and also CLIL. As part of carrying out this analysis, I follow the work of thinkers and practitioners who have been able to draw on lived experiences to analyze matters of a reflexive nature, be this for a deeper understanding of: (a) issues relating to culture, identity and education (Lee, 2002; Murphey, 2004; Spack, 1998); (b) the dynamics of teaching and learning in unique contextual and phenomenological situations (Hayes, 2010; Tsui, 2007; Rivers, forthcoming); or (c) teacher agency and action and how they can address or ameliorate the pressure of institutional forces that bear on teaching practice (Alderson, 2009; Tsui, 2007; Rivers, forthcoming).

Situation One

Within the first week of my taking on the duties of EAP Reading teacher at this liberal arts faculty, a faculty professor teaching psychology requested to speak to me about how reading classes should go about supporting students enrolled on a core course in introductory psychology, taught entirely in English to first and second year students. He showed me the course website and guided me through the different topics to be covered over the 15-week semester. In addition, I was shown the mid-semester and end-of-semester 600 to 800-word essay questions that students would have to work on. For good measure, the professor also showed me samples of essays done by students from a previous semester, while telling me that I would have to work hard on the students' grammar and help them edit their drafts for 'grammar mistakes', vividly reminiscent of how teachers can all too easily be positioned as remediators or repairers of language problems (Swales, 1990; Rose, 1998).

The themes covered in the course included topics in general psychology like human cognition, decision making, association of words and ideas, human responses to stimuli, rational and irrational reactions and the perennial question of the influence of nature or nurture. My work was to plan my twice-a-week 90-minute lessons so that they 'wrapped round' the psychology topics the professor was going to teach. As part of doing this, the professor suggested that I pay specific attention to teaching the specialized vocabulary to be found in glossary on the course website and to pace my lessons according to his lecture schedule so that students would be sufficiently primed in the necessary vocabulary before the start of each lecture.

To do this, I could help students with course readings placed on the website, design short quizzes to check understanding of these passages or set various cloze exercises to help students with vocabulary. I was moreover advised that I could also use information from three other sections of the website designed to help students navigate the course, the 'Overview Keys', 'Advanced Organizer' and 'Summary-Recite' sections. Fortuitously, the timetable was designed to allow for this, in that EAP lessons would be scheduled in an earlier part of the week before the lectures. Moreover, it was recommended that I attended lectures whenever possible so that I would get a feel of the level and type of English expected of the students and to gain an understanding of how the topical content would be lectured.

By way of grouping, the students were divided into 4 levels (labeled A, B, C and D) according to their scores in the TOEIC test taken before the start of semester. The TOEIC scores ranged from 250 to 700 indicating a considerably wide range of proficiency levels from pre-intermediate to advanced levels, which to a large extent, made it all the more challenging for both EAP teacher and content professor alike when it came to pitching lessons and lectures. The reasons for such a disparity in language abilities are numerous and will warrant a separate paper. Suffice to say here that the admission of a larger quantum of students would well be related to institutional finances in a time when universities have to compete for a limited pool of applicants, given low birth rates.

Nevertheless, the EAP Reading program was conceived with the good intention of being the sought-for answer to the need to 'equalize' this disparity in language ability. Good EAP teaching would enable the weaker students to be up to the mark for them to do well in a core course taught in English – which was why EAP Reading was brought in alongside content courses in English in the first place.

Situation Two

I now work in the Faculty of Humanities of a large private university in Tokyo. My present work situation allows me to take charge of a content elective on Multicultural Education delivered in English and taught to second and third year students doing their undergraduate studies in humanities. This being the case, I am now placed in the position of a content lecturer, as it were, into the shoes of someone who has to deliver academic content in English to students whose first language is Japanese and who have, hitherto, hardly experienced a content course in English. Unlike in the previous situation, students were not tested for their TOEIC levels, as those opting to enroll on the course would have known from the synopsis that the course would be taught in English.

Having been given a free hand by the Dean to plan the course, my first instinct was, ironically, to compose a 'syllabus', in other words, to write down a list of topics I thought should be covered. However, it was in the process of doing this that notions discussed earlier like the constructedness of knowledge, negotiability of meaning, and very importantly, the part that 'learner investment and learner interest' (Kumaravadivelu, 2009, p. 176) would play in creating and adding meaning to a course like this, began to come to mind. Eventually, this became an opportunity to put to practice the belief that a content course need not be founded on a deficit model of delivery, a one-way street of spoon-feeding from a person in authority (Sato, 2004). The nature of the challenge was, therefore, how a content course in English might be able to collaborate to make this possible. It became, for all intents and purposes, an opportunity to facilitate real experiences for students to learn in English where they are positioned as active co-constructors – rather than as passive imbibers or absorbers – of meaning as was the case in the first situation. In other words, my concern was to let students experience a content course in English without their having to be subsumed under positionings where they became cast as deficit or passive learners. Moreover, recalling Kumaravadivelu (2009), my own 'sense making' and 'self-conceptualization and self-construction of pedagogic knowledge' (p. 173) reminded me that I should not tie students down to monolithic pre-cast meanings as far as language, culture or ethnicity were concerned. This was, after all, going to be a course on multicultural education.

While I still kept in mind topics to be covered (since the course website required them to be listed) my intention was that in class, students would not be hamstrung by fixed views on the topics. The year before I took over, the previous lecturer angled the course towards comparing religions, beliefs and cultures including Judaism, Christianity and western cultures, different Christian denominations and aspects of Buddhism and other religions.

I took a different angle, and given my background in ELT and critical applied linguistics, my hope was to come up with a program with diversity, hybridity and difference as guiding motifs. My hope was to represent English as a medium of plural identities and canons (Kachru, 1995) and in so doing, bring up for discussion instances where stock understandings on race, identity and culture would not be possible. My hope was also to allow students to expand on ideas introduced in the course and draw parallels of similar hybridities.

To carry this out, I sought to prime students to expect a different classroom atmosphere. Lessons were going to be occasions when they would be allowed (indeed required) to think, speak, wonder, imagine, opine, respond and question. In terms of concrete examples, using newspaper articles, movies, video clips and abundant resources on the internet, I sought to highlight interesting instances of diversity, difference and synergy through themes like emigration, immigration, language varieties and variation. I introduced thought-provoking examples of the lives of Japanese Americans, Amerasians, Brazilian Japanese returnees to Japan, Eurasians in Singapore and Malaysia, Anglo-Indians and Japanese War Orphans left in Manchuria. Also, within Japanese hinterland, I sought to draw attention to people of Korean and Chinese ancestry as well as migrant workers like Filipino people residing in Japan.

The breakdown of the course by weeks is shown in Table 1:

Weeks	Topics	Opportunities for Exploration
1 & 2	- Course introduction - Etymology – Words in Japanese 'borrowed' from other languages	- The origins of Japanese words 'borrowed' from other languages - Reasons why different words are borrowed from different languages - Future trends – students' opinions and arguments on what is likely to happen with word borrowing and why
3 & 4	Etymology – Words in English 'borrowed' from other languages	- Reasons for the spread of English in the past and present - What the spread of English means for Japan - Reason for regional and historical variations in English
5 & 6	- World Englishes - English as a Medium of Plural Canons and Identities	- What creative writing in English will be like when written by a Japanese - Attempt at writing a Japanese short story in English

7 & 8	Japanese Americans – descendants of Japanese immigrants	- Watching, discussing and commenting on two episodes of the Japanese drama 'Ninety-nine Years of Love' – on Japanese American soldiers fighting on the European front in 1944 - Identity of Japanese American people
9 & 10	Amerasians- children of American servicemen in Okinawa and Vietnam	- The lives of grownup Amerasian children today - Amerasian children and their quest for identity - Political decisions concerning the fate of Amerasian children
11 & 12	- Japanese returnees – children of Japanese parents who have worked on overseas postings - Brazilian Japanese working in Japan – descendants of Japanese who emigrated to South America now residing in Japan	- Dilemmas faced by returnees – problems of acceptance by the majority and issues to do with bullying and discrimination - Special schools and universities for returnees - The option to remain overseas instead of returning to Japan
13 & 14	- Japanese war orphans left in China and Manchuria and those who have returned to Japan - Children of Japanese parentage left behind in China, Thailand, the Philippines and various islands in the Pacific -Intercultural marriages between Japanese and people from overseas	- Emotional, relationship and identity dilemmas facing Japanese war orphans who have been raised by Chinese parents, including rejection by their Japanese families - Language and culture problems faced by war orphans who have returned to Japan - Lives and emotional dilemmas of children fathered by Japanese workers in East and Southeast Asia and the Pacific and the question of whether Japan has a responsibility for these children - Reasons for intercultural marriages and matters to do with birth registration and naming of offspring
15	Descendants of Koreans and Chinese and other immigrants living in Japan	- Tracing the history of Koreans, Chinese and other immigrants living in Japan – the question of whether they are 'immigrants' or whether they are Japanese - Politically correct terminology for referring to descendants of immigrants

		- The question of immigrants adopting Japanese names, foreigners registration practices in Japan

Table 1. Weekly Course Topics

Each lesson lasted 100-minutes and was taught in a room where each student had access to a computer. There were 40 students in the class and during class time, students were given ample opportunity to log on to relevant websites. Dramas like '*Daichi no Ko (Child of the Continent)*' (on the theme of war orphans left in China) and '99-Years of Love' (about Japanese Americans) were viewed from monitors attached to students' work-stations. From amongst the topics listed above, whether it be the descendants of Japanese emigrants to America or those of Chinese and Korean immigrants into Japan, like in Williams (2010), I sought to avoid pat or discreet meanings and let students construct, deconstruct and reconstruct these peoples' stories and in so doing, explore and critique stock, staid or stereotyped renditions of their identities, the lives they live and the challenges they face in carving out niches for themselves. And rather than only lecturing to them, I set out to make the lessons more interactive and dialogic (Street, 2003), apportioning time for discussions, either with me or more often, among their peers.

Comparison, Commentary and Practical Implications

Having described the above teaching situations, I hope now to compare the two obviously very different sorts of encounters as well as make observations on what they can mean for lesson planning and delivery.

Comparing the Two Situations

Comparing the two situations, one could say that they have afforded me two contrasting experiences, allowing me to look at content courses in English from the standpoint of an EAP teacher and also from that of a content lecturer. Concerning the first situation which strongly resonates a deficit skills model (Lea and Street, 2000), my practice as an educator was defined for me in ways that were rather constricting. If it has to be put in so many words, Lea and Street's (2000) observation of the insensitivity of a structure-based deficit model of language teaching would be the sort of observation that illustrates how student and teacher agency in the understanding and creation of knowledge can be that quickly stifled. Recalling earlier discussion, any understanding that knowledge and meaning are socially constructed, contextually bound, multi-layered and socio-historic (Williams, 2010) can be all but missed amidst the obligation put on me to attend closely to skills of a technical or atomized nature (Barton and Hamilton, 2000). This is perhaps what Stewart (2001) means when he writes about problems arising from team-teaching situations between content lecturers and English teachers in a Japanese college where content courses are taught in English. Noting how EAP teachers possess professional insights into difficulties students face when studying in another language medium, Stewart (2001) observes that 'language teachers should become more outspoken advocates for their students and expand their role as mediators' between students and content lecturers (p. 54).

Ultimately, comparing the two experiences has afforded me deeper critical reflection of my own practice as an educator and I am now convinced; (a) that content courses in English and EAP need not be approached through clinically separating what belongs to 'content' as if 'content' were some pre-existing sacrosanct encapsulations of truth, and 'language' as if it were a quantifiable conduit divisible into atomized components such as grammar, syntax, vocabulary and denotative meaning, (b) that the synaptic spaces between 'content' and 'language' can and should be explored by both content lecturers as well as their language teaching counterparts as interesting spaces where students' creative and imaginative energies can be directed to good effect – something I was able to do in the second situation, (c) that the 'soft' skills are just as useful – 'soft' skills in the second situation like encouraging students to form opinions and to look at knowledge as something that can be constructed, reconstructed or viewed from their own perspectives in ways different from the 'hard' knowledge as it comes across from material lectured at them, (d) that such 'soft' skills are as much part of the 'syllabus' as the 'hard' topics, 'hard' facts and technical vocabulary which were very much part of my first experience and it is these 'soft' skills that set in place the dialectics of teaching and learning, constructing and deconstructing, being and becoming. Language educators, content lecturers and students each have a meaningful role to play in this sort of creative arrangement.

Students No Longer Silent or Silenced

One is reminded of Benesch's (1996) observation that opportunities should be provided for students to participate in ways that increase their understanding. Students 'should not [have to] remain silent in order to reassure their teachers that their lectures are adequate'

(Benesch, 1996, p. 727). Instead, ‘ways to modify current conditions’ should be found, rather than have students ‘fit…into the status quo by teaching them to make their behavior and language appropriate’ (Benesch, 1996, p. 727).

One further word on this matter. Concerning empowering practices, Benesch (1996) tells of a Professor Richter, a colleague of hers who chaired the Psychology Department and taught a psychology survey course consisting of two biweekly lectures to a class of 450 students – a less than ideal situation resulting from defunding of higher education – coupled with a method of testing that comprised ‘multiple-choice testing that called for memorization of definitions rather than complex understanding of the material’ (Benesch, 1996, p. 732). She then relates how as an English teacher operating within an existing administrative structure, she carried out activities like getting students to ‘compare and review their lecture notes, asking students to write their own multiple-choice test questions and to take each other’s tests’ (p. 733). However, feeling the importance of ‘challenging the traditional position of student as passive listener’ (p. 733), Benesch also allowed students to write down student-generated questions for Professor Richter to answer at the start of his lectures. This worked well because the questions ‘shifted some control over the lecture content’ from professor to students (p. 733) culminating with Richter himself finally coming to visit the ESL classes which facilitated a ‘comfortable exchange of ideas’ (p. 734):

> Richter was relaxed and informal. Knowing that some of the students were Russian Jews, he told about his Russian Jewish parents’ immigration and his upbringing and education. He then asked the students to introduce themselves. Finally, he answered some of their questions in great detail, allowing time for students to discuss the answers and raise new questions. The students’ written comments about Richter’s visit highlighted the humanizing effect of the small discussion class format’. (Benesch, 1996, p. 734).

In comparison with Richter, my experience in Situation One was more of the opposite. As the EAP teacher, I was to attend psychology lectures whenever possible to gauge the type and level of language required of the students. To recall the literature discussed earlier, it became part of the monologic and unidirectional nature of what in fact could have been a more dialogic, reciprocal and mutually reinforcing arrangement between the EAP teacher, content professor and the students. This would have been to gather and garner (not stifle) the benefits from a realization of ‘the nature of language as a continually negotiated process of meaning making as well as taking’ (Street, 2003, p 82). The interaction that took place as part of Richter’s visits made it apparently possible for both

Richter himself and the students to explore and extend existing ‘boundaries and meanings’ and to ‘take possession of language again rather than being passive victims of its entailments’ (Street, 2003, p. 82).

Student Responses

When given the encouragement and right opportunities, I have found that students do respond positively to the challenge of coming up with their thoughts and opinions. Stark and moving photographs of impoverished Amerasian children in Vietnam provide students with an alternative take on people of mixed ethnicity beyond the attractive faces and features of professional models and/or television anchors. Movies like ’99-Years of Love’ and ‘*Daichi no Ko (Child of the Continent)*’ jolt students out of stock and stereotyped understandings of race, culture and nationality. In both oral and written reflections, students have shown a depth of perception that has indicated the importance of opening up spaces for them to speak, wonder, imagine, opine, respond and question, thereby adding the color and perspective that Sato (2004) says is vital to their education.

Conclusion

My practice as an educator has been enriched by the two experiences. It would be fair to say that the lessons I was able to draw from the first situation helped me in the second. If it had not been for the way I was able to compare and juxtapose different understandings of language and language teaching especially after going through the first and while planning for the second, I would very likely have approached the latter quite differently and less imaginatively. What ultimately can be borne in mind concerning EAP is that it cannot be as simple as drilling vocabulary or grammar in the shadows or under the coattails of ‘content’ material. Apart from restricting language teaching practice, it also stifles students who may want to be challenged with more imaginative conversations about language and its potential for exploring or even creating fresh meanings in content areas, as and when these areas start to become more and more meaningful for them. As part of enabling students to do this, I have sought to discuss how a more open approach to course planning can help create opportunities for teachers and students to avoid the divisiveness of ‘content’ versus ‘language’ conceptualizations. Students, teachers and academia as a whole can only benefit through such an arrangement.

Finally, in terms of concrete actions that can be taken, what can be said is that the English teaching fraternity could do with more sustained candid discussions in the nature of narrative inquiries into the lived experiences of teachers in the face of conflicting discourses over the scope and nature of their work. My own feeling is that teachers like me will need to continue with frank and enlivened discussions about matters that affect their work practices and subject positioning within broader institutional settings, even if it may involve open discussions about power relations or institutional politics.

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Digital Storytelling: Integrating Language and Content in the Training of Pre-service Teachers

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Abstract

This article discusses a Digital Storytelling course that is used as a means to promote pre-service teachers 'own language proficiency and at the same time develop their awareness of teaching techniques they can later adopt in their own classrooms. It looks at how three teacher educators at the National Institute of Education, Singapore interpreted the course and at how content, in this case teaching ideas and approaches, was integrated with activities promoting language development. The three teacher educators describe the conceptualization of the course, which takes a project- and task-based approach and blends in class and online modes, how links between the language focused activities the participants experienced and methodologies were made more explicit, and how a process writing approach was actualized. They also consider the wider applicability of this interpretation of CLIL in the training of language teachers.

Keywords: CLIL, Digital Storytelling, process writing approach, proficiency, methodology.

Introduction

This article explores a Digital Storytelling course that is used as a way of promoting student teachers' own language proficiency in parallel with the development of teaching techniques the same student teachers can later adopt in their classroom contexts. The impetus for the course was the desire to integrate a focus on developing participants' spoken and written communication and grammar in use through a short intensive program that they would attend over a period of two weeks. The topic of Digital Storytelling was chosen as a way to achieve this using content relevant to the course participants who are student teachers on pre-service courses. This paper looks at how content, in this case teaching ideas and methods, was integrated with activities promoting language development, and at how this approach could usefully be transferred to other teacher training contexts where fostering student teachers' language proficiency in parallel with developing their teaching skills is considered crucial.

Since the mid-nineties *content and language integrated learning* (CLIL) has been gaining ground as an approach to learning, and is generally seen as an approach to bilingual content based education. This paper takes a somewhat different approach and considers how CLIL can enhance the training of language teachers. The broad approach taken is in line with Kolb's (1984) cycle of experiential learning, which integrates concrete experience with reflection on this experience leading into abstract conceptualization and active experimentation with what has been learned. What CLIL does in our interpretation is combine an experience and discussion of teaching approaches with a focus on the development of the teachers' own language proficiency.

Background

The National Institute of Education (NIE) is the sole provider of pre-service training for teachers entering the Singapore school system. It is also a provider of in-service and professional development courses for qualified teachers.

The course explored in this article is one of a suite of language and content enhancement courses taken by all pre-service teachers on diploma and degree courses who are preparing to teach in primary schools in Singapore and who will be required to offer English as a subject. It is the first part of a longer program and the two-week intensive phase discussed here is followed by a second phase during which these student teachers complete a series of tasks related to the three target language components (oral and written communication, and grammar in use) to further develop their language skills. In the NIE context, the student teachers (pre-service teachers on Diploma and Degree courses) are generally proficient users of English, but the approaches employed on the program are seen as applicable in contexts where such teachers may not themselves have a very strong command of the language they will later teach, thus providing an enhanced learning experience (Hanington, 2010).

The authors of this paper are the original course developer, Kwah Poh Foong, and two other teacher educators, Linda Hanington and Anitha Devi Pillai, who recently taught the program and bring their perspectives to bear on it. The three perspectives enrich the concept of CLIL as an approach in the training of language teachers and show how experienced teacher educators adapt materials to meet perceived needs.

Digital storytelling

Definitions of digital storytelling integrate the notion of telling short stories with digital multi-media, such as images, audio, and video. The stories focus on a chosen theme and often contain a particular point of view. Robin (2006) points out that “one of the most popular reasons for producing digital stories, is to create a personal narrative” (p.710), while Rule talks about them deriving “their power by weaving images, music, narrative and voice together, thereby giving deep dimension and vivid colour to characters, situations, experiences, and insights” (as cited in Barrett, 2004, p.1). Certainly many of our student teachers choose to develop such personal narratives and have high emotional engagement with them. However, as Ohler (2008) illustrates, digital stories are applicable across content areas and genres in education and can encompass a wide range of topics such as “maths, science and language arts concepts, as well as stories of cultural and personal significance” (p.42).

Ohler (ibid.) also reminds us that storytelling is a traditional technique that is “highly regarded as a powerful tool for helping students develop literacy skills” (p.54). What digital storytelling does is merge traditional and emerging literacies in the storytelling process. Drawing on Gardner (1983), Ohler describes digital storytelling as integrating digital, art, oral and written literacies and considers how it also fits well in a world of multiple intelligences.

Given digital storytelling is potentially such a powerful modern educational tool (Robin, 2008), allowing our student teachers to experience developing digital stories for themselves and through this to appreciate their value, was seen as a way of combining an introduction of teaching approaches with the development of the student teachers' own language skills.

Poh Foong - Developing the DST course

In developing the Digital Storytelling course, I adopted a project-and task-based model and a process approach to teach student teachers how to write and produce a digital story. As they create their digital multi-media project, student teachers experience the process of writing a script, narrating their stories, and crafting the digital story. At each stage opportunities are given for them to draft, peer-review, and revise their work before creating the final version. Student teachers learn the necessary written, oral, and IT skills in a logical progression: writing a good script, storytelling skills, adapting a written script using a story board, and using appropriate software and a wiki to create and publish their work. The way this is done acts as a model for them to apply, in part or as a whole, to their own teaching. In addition reflective e-journals are integrated to help develop their meta-cognitive awareness of their own learning process.

Blended Learning Approach: I chose a blended learning approach to enable the student teachers to experience and learn how face-to-face classroom and technology based learning can be integrated in the process of producing different learning outcomes. Increasingly teachers in Singapore are expected to integrate technology into their teaching and this approach shows them how the two modes can complement each other. In face-to-face tutorials, instructional scaffolding is provided to support the student teachers as they learn about the features of a good story and how to write an audience-focused manner. They also learn story reading techniques and in doing so develop a better understanding of features of pronunciation that enhance intelligibility and meaning. On the technical side they learn how to use software to produce their digital stories and are given guidelines on crediting images and music from the Internet. The online independent component of the course allows them to experience the flexibility of working on their projects at their own pace within certain guidelines.

Process-writing Approach: Above all, in developing this course, I wanted the student teachers to experience a comprehensive process approach to their story writing and to appreciate how co-operative learning and peer and tutor feedback can enrich the learning process (Gaies, 1985; White & Ardnt, 1991; Ferris, 2007). Co-operative learning approaches are used and modeled throughout the program. This starts from a discussion of the elements of a good story and also from the support the student teachers give each other as they learn about new technology. It continues through group activities such as peer-reviewing and proofreading each other's work. They are also shown how to give constructive feedback; something they will need to do once they start teaching in schools. They then practice giving feedback both in class and online. The course tutors similarly provide feedback, both face-to-face and online, during the program.

Improving Language Proficiency: At the same time a main objective of the course was to help the student teachers improve their own proficiency. Their written language is the focus when they learn how to structure narratives in ways that will appeal to their audience and how to use appropriate language. For example, they need to select suitable vocabulary items to express their ideas, emotions and attitudes and to construct sentences using correct tense sequences and cohesive devices. Peer reviews and feedback from the tutor help them identify strengths and weaknesses in their use of language which then guides their choice of further practice topics during the subsequent self-access phase of the program. Similarly, learning to read aloud increases awareness of sub-skills of phonology, such as how to discriminate between and produce long and short vowel sounds, how words link together and the role and use of sentence stress and weak forms. It also helps increase the student teachers' use of appropriate intonation patterns and pausing: language skills they will need especially when reading aloud to their own classes.

Assessment: The assessment adopted for this course was also task-and process-based and continuous during the learning process of producing a digital story. Student teachers were assessed on the final versions of their written script, a recorded narration, and a digital story. Descriptors for each task were given to student teachers to provide them with guidelines on whether the quality of work exceeded expectations, met expectations or did not meet expectations. These descriptors are important to ensure that student teachers fulfill the requirements of this course while continuous assessment helps them keep on task. In addition, formative assessment is given through verbal and written feedback from peers and the tutor, followed by student teachers revising and producing a final version for each individual task.

Reflections: The course has been running for four years and is a popular choice on the intensive program. Some observations I have made over this period are that the motivation level for wanting to produce a good digital story was high and student teachers were willing to spend time on their stories. Engaging them in meaningful learning processes raised their awareness of the importance of implementing this approach to learning when they become teachers as one student commented in her reflections:

> *"Through this course, I have learned another way of making the teaching of English language more interesting. I believe students will be engaged and motivated to come out with a good product and thus will learn the language better through the processes."*

Another observation is that student teachers have become more creative in the use of visuals in their digital stories - from using downloaded photographs to creating their own videos and drawings.

> *"We were allowed to explore our creativity in the course and be allowed to come up with anything we wanted to. There were fewer restrictions on the students and I think that lead to a better quality of student's work."*

In the process of writing the story to recording their narration, the student teachers' recognized their increased awareness of their language use and improvement.

> *"Writing a script helped me to assess and evaluate my own writing and thereafter learn the areas that I could improve in."*

> *"The Language Experience allows me to identify my areas of weaknesses in my spoken English. I learned that I need to improve on my pronunciation in certain words as well as in my voice characterization in my story."*

Feedback has been positive and encouraging since we started conducting this course. In addition, tutors have found teaching the course enjoyable and enriching despite the hours they spent online giving written feedback on students' work.

Linda's classroom- Enhancing the methodology link

The discussion in this section is based on experiences of teaching the Digital Storytelling course in May 2011 and 2012. The first year I taught the course I really appreciated the whole process approach behind the program but rather assumed that my student teachers would recognize the immediate application of many of the ideas and approaches to their school context in addition to the course benefiting their own language skills. While feedback on the course survey suggested that some could make the link, I was not satisfied with the level of response and in 2012 decided to integrate more ideas that they could apply in school and also make the link between methodologies and materials used on the course and their application in school more explicit.

There are essentially four input sessions during the program and in three of these sessions, I integrated the activities described in the following sections.

Writing Stories: In the first session the student teachers discussed and established factors that make a good story. As part of this session they were then asked to write a narrative in groups from prompts thus showing they could apply what they had discussed. Pictures for this activity were provided by the course chair, but I decided to use picture stories as the basis for this activity instead because they are often used in primary school as a stimulus for narrative essays. I chose three picture stories and had different groups develop narratives from them in different ways. There were three groups for each set of pictures – one group had the full set, and two had single but different pictures from the story. Once they had created their stories, they read them to the other groups who had to guess which picture(s) they had. We then discussed which of their stories were more effective and why with reference to the criteria we had established at an earlier stage. We also discussed which approaches allowed for more creativity and which provided a more structured framework and related this to how each could be used in the school context.

I had started the day with a warm up activity that required the student teachers to describe the kinds of things that they wrote on a day-to-day basis. Apart from the academic writing required for their courses, we quickly established that they actually wrote very little and certainly not the kinds of texts that they would be encouraging their students to write. This activity therefore has an additional benefit of encouraging the student teachers to experience for themselves the writing process. For example, at the end of the session, we talked about how they approached writing a narrative, what issues they faced and also how they felt about writing in groups. This discussion raised issues about choice of language, use of tenses and a debate about whether the group element should be reserved for preparation stages and reviews rather than the actual writing component.

The language focus was integrated into the lesson as the student teachers worked on their stories together. The final versions were also used as a basis for grammar review activities in a later session described below. After this session they drafted the texts that formed the basis of their individual digital stories.

Reading Aloud: After the student teachers wrote their stories, the next phase was making the audio track; essentially reading their stories aloud. The second input session focused on features of pronunciation with the aim of raising student teachers' awareness of this area, helping them to recognize problems they and their students may face and introducing some tools that they could use, particularly at the word level, such as dictionaries and the phonemic chart. As all the teachers on this program eventually teach in primary schools, the ability to read aloud accurately and in an engaging manner is very important.

We first considered various features of pronunciation and the use of self-help tools such as the phonemic chart and online dictionaries, after which we discussed what makes someone a good story teller. A colleague had contributed two short documents (Peha, N.D.a and N.D.b) which we used to confirm and consolidate the ideas that had been suggested. To help the student teachers relate this work to their school context, I then set out a range of children's books. These were not only examples of narratives but included poems and non-fiction. They selected a book in pairs and together prepared sections to read aloud. This meant they needed to use dictionaries to check words when they were not sure of the pronunciation or word stress and practice applying the principles of reading aloud we had discussed. One of the things that emerged when we reflected on this activity was that reading aloud is a complex skill that requires a good understanding of the meaning of the text so that the reader can highlight, pause and use expression effectively.

At the end of this session the student teachers applied the insights they gained to their own individual stories and read them to their partners who gave them some initial feedback. After this, outside class, they practiced further and made their sound track recordings. They were able to re-record as many times as they wanted before loading their recording on the wiki site and getting feedback from their peers and tutor.

Focus on Grammar: Giving students feedback on their language and guiding students to become more accurate and effective users of language, are important teaching skills we model on this course. In the stories the student teachers wrote there were a number of mistakes that reflect the kinds of errors their students also make. In this grammar session, student teachers create games they can later use in school to help students review their mistakes and encourage them to edit their own work.

To model how they could approach this I used the narratives they had written during the first session described above. The two games I introduced, Grammar Auction and Snakes and Ladders, are both adapted from Grammar Games (Rinvolucri, 1984) and are ones I have used with students of all ages and levels with success over my many years of teaching. I also showed them how they could create crosswords or criss-cross puzzles using examples generated from their writing or later from their students writing using programs on web sites such as Discovery Education (2012).

After playing the games I showed the student teachers how I might then focus with the class on an aspect of grammar that was causing problems for a number of students. In this case I used time lines and examples to clarify how the past perfect was used in relation to the simple past as many of the student teachers did not fully understand how the two relate to each other. It was important for me to show the student teachers that both the games and the explanations are a stage in the writing process so after this, and before they created their own games, they had to review their original stories and identify and correct mistakes that reflected those we had seen in the games and in the discussion.

They then moved to creating their own games in groups using the stories they had written individually. It was interesting to see that the student teachers took the idea of games and applied it to other games creating version of Monopoly and UNO: games they were familiar with and their students would also recognize. From the course feedback it is clear that they enjoyed these activities and a number of them said that they would have liked more work on grammar.

*Being Explicit***:** While these ideas should help the pre-service teachers on our course to make links to their future teaching context, I felt it was important to be explicit about this and about the transferability of the methodology used on the course. At the end of each session I therefore included a slide to review this aspect of the course. The example below (Figure 1.) is from the session on pronunciation.

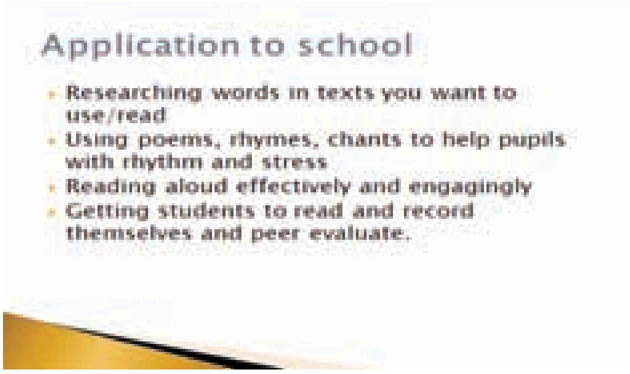

Figure 1: Application to school

I feel adapting the course in this way had a positive impact. Of course, each group is different, but I felt this year's group bought into the course more consistently than last year's where I felt some were doing the work just because it was required. Overall, the feedback on the course was positive and the impact of these changes was demonstrated in the end of course survey as well as in comments student teachers made during the individual feedback sessions on the last day of the course.

Anitha's classroom – Taking a process writing approach to teaching digital storytelling

In this section, I describe and analyze my first experience of teaching the DST course to a group of student teachers who were going to teach English in primary schools. When I took on the course in 2012, the course chair explained the objectives of the course, and provided me with a detailed outline. She also shared the materials that she had developed for the course with the team. She had included pictures that we could use to generate discussion on narratives, resources to teach pronunciation; *Penguin Odyssey* (Low & Alsagoff, 2010), *Well Said* (Centre for e-Learning, 2012) and a book entitled *Grammar Games* (Rinvolucri, 1984). In addition to that, student teachers were scheduled for lessons on Audacity software that can be used to develop digital stories.

The course built on what student teachers had already learnt in their content subjects such as *Teaching of Reading and Writing.* This module guides student teachers with teaching reading and writing to young learners. The skills that they learn in such modules compliment the DST module. In addition, the DST module places heavy emphasis on the collaborative process writing approach, as writers were required to plan-review-write and revise their stories in groups.

One of the key guiding principles in my teaching philosophy is to ensure that I am able to prepare student teachers for their work demands. The DST course allowed me to do so in two ways. First, the task of writing stories for the final project models the process writing framework that the teachers will apply in their classrooms. Second, by learning how to develop digital stories, student teachers are empowered with an additional resource that they could use in their own classroom. The product that they developed can be used to enhance their own classroom teaching practices. Hence, I conceptualized the course to comprise six stages:

a. pre-writing,
b. collaborative writing,
c. peer review of texts,
d. development of grammar and pronunciation instructional materials,
e. narration of stories,
f. independent writing and narration of original story.

The process writing approach stresses scaffolding the writing process which moves learners from the generation of ideas to the finished product (Tribble, 1996). Writing and producing a text is not done in isolation but with the support of peers and the writing instructor. Writers began this collaborative process by brainstorming ideas together with their instructor who plays the role of a facilitator. Writers then plan and draft their text based on what they have discussed. These drafts are shared with the class and students learn from giving and receiving feedback. The feedback then is incorporated into the final product.

An essential unique characteristic of the process writing classroom is to draw out "learner's potential" (Badger & White, 2000, p.154) by starting with what writers are familiar with and are consciously thinking about. This gives students the confidence to complete their task. Hence, instead of using the pictures to generate discussion and then discussing the elements of a good story, I decided to focus on children's narratives from the beginning.

Pre-writing stage: I started the class by asking them what their favorite stories were when they were children. Almost all of them, and particularly all the female student teachers, named a fairy-tale. The male student teachers preferred stories about sports, vehicles and adventures. We talked about what made these stories appealing to young readers and about the possibility of tweaking a story to cater to both genders.

After this brief tuning-in activity, I read *Cinderboy* (Anholt and Robins, 2002b) out aloud to the class. The story focused on a boy who needed help from his fairy godmother to win a soccer match. Student teachers were able to identify it as a humorous parody of *Cinderella*. (Refer to Figure 2.)

This led to a discussion of how the writer drew on various aspects of a well-loved children's story to create a new one. I then introduced the concept of *narrative structure* (Set-up – Catalyst- Turning point- Climax – Resolution) using both *Cinderella* and *Cinderboy* to illustrate my story. We also discussed the language that was used in children's stories and how they differed from teen fiction.

Figure 2: Tuning-in storybook used in my class.

Analyzing Children's Stories: Next the student teachers were invited to choose a story from a set of nine other books from the same authors of *Cinderboy*. They worked in groups of four and chose *The Emperor's Underwear* Anhold & Robins (2002a), *The Fried Piper of Hamstring* Anhold & Robins (2002c),and *Eco-wolf and the Three Pigs* Anhold & Robins (2002d), (see Figure 3).

Figure 3: Cover pages of the three books that we read in class.

In their groups, they were asked to discuss how the writer had crafted the story to make it appealing. They pointed out that the children are likely to relate to the characters and the plots as they were familiar with them. All the stories also had happy endings and a moral. The most interesting factor that they found in the texts was the importance of the setup (introduction) and catalyst (a problem/conflict) which was set in the modern context.

Creating a Children's Story: The student teachers were then asked to select a local or Asian story with which they were familiar and rewrite it. They were encouraged to do so by incorporating local elements in the story. They retained the main gist to retain its familiarity for its audience.

Peer-review & Rewriting: The groups then shared their stories with the class as Powerpoint presentations. They were encouraged to give feedback on the narrative structure, the effectiveness of the story, creative use of language and appeal factor. Based on the feedback from their peers, the student teachers then rewrote their stories in groups and narrated them to the rest of the class.

Grammar games: The next segment of the course revolved around making the student teachers aware of accurate use of language. This component of the course provides them with a platform to become conscious of the accurate use of English.

The course chair had provided the groups with several ideas on the different types of grammar games that we could play as a class. These then led to a discussion of some of the grammar rules they were not familiar with. Interestingly, the student teachers took the initiative to search for grammar and pronunciation advice online whenever they were unsure of the rules.

As a follow-up activity, all the groups designed two grammar activities for young learners. These activities were based on the story that they had written as a group and were meant to show the student teachers how they could adapt some of the ideas for grammar games that we had discussed in class for their own classrooms.

Reading Aloud: Once they had written their individual stories, the next stage was for them to narrate the story. By reading their stories aloud students "are brought to a more conscious level of rethinking and reassessing what they have written" (Seow, 2002, p. 318). This is a particularly useful component for student teachers as they are required to read to their students in their classrooms.

We started this section by reviewing the phonetic alphabet (IPA) symbols together using a mobile application *Well Said* (Centre for e-Learning, 2012) which was developed at NIE. The application features a Singaporean speech specialist who uses the standard variety of Singapore English. All the student teachers in the course had also been given a copy of *Penguin Odyssey* (Low & Alsagoff, 2010) which was also developed at NIE. *Penguin Odyssey* is an interactive digital game meant for young learners. The game comprises "five simple yet engaging games that are staged according to different levels of difficulty" (Low, 2010, p.1). The student teachers reviewed the games in their groups and were able to revise the sound-symbol relationship by selecting the links on vowel sounds or consonant sounds. At the end of the session, each group then shared with the rest of the class a short activity that they had designed for their future students based on the stories that they had written. All the activities drew on either or both of the applications/games that we had discussed in the 'pronunciation' segment of the course. They were able to apply what they had learnt in this lesson when narrating their own digital stories for the final component of the course.

Individual writing: The final component of the course required the student teachers to develop and record their individual stories using Audacity software. They could also include pictures or drawings to support their narration and include music and special effects to enhance their story. Once the student teachers had written their stories, they were encouraged to share them with their groups. By reviewing each other's stories, they were able to make the transition from writing primarily for themselves to writing for an audience. Their peers' feedback helped to strengthen their writing. It also made them conscious of the gaps in their writing. By reviewing their peers writing, the reviewers themselves benefited from an exposure to different writing styles and ideas.

In retrospect, the peer review session was the most useful component in the individual writing stage for the student teachers as it resulted in them producing better quality work. Feedback from peers was sought again when they completed the product. The completed product comprised the narration of the story, audio and visual effects. Feedback was provided on the storyline, language use and narration. The activity also provided the student teachers with an opportunity to formulate and provide constructive feedback on their peers' writing.

Reflections: The student teachers on this course will be engaged in story telling with young learners. They have been exposed to children's stories and will have a good understanding of the genre of children's stories and how to narrate these stories to young learners.

Content - Providing a theme: I decided to provide a theme for my class that would draw on what my student teachers knew and what they would be able to apply in their future careers as primary school teachers. I also wanted to provide sufficient scaffolding in the narrative structure of the genre that they were going to write. A lack of awareness of generic structures will result in a text that may not be effective in conveying the message and hence have no audience appeal. At the same time, it was not possible to teach all the different types of generic structures in the short course. I therefore focused on a familiar genre and taught them the narrative structure explicitly. The purpose was for student teachers to reproduce the same type of text as a final product.

The general response from the class was that they found this activity useful. Several of them later commented that they had shared their final product in their schools and with their students. Their students had found the digital stories to be thoroughly engaging and meaningful.

Content - Experiencing and Acquiring a Teaching Methodology: The process writing approach taken in this course enables student teachers to experience the process writing approach from the "expressivist orientation" (Hyland, 2007, p.7). By emphasizing the process of writing the digital story, the student teachers in my class were able to experience the benefits of learning to write collaboratively. This is essential as it would then make them conscious of ‘allowing’ learning to take place naturally when they became writing teachers.

Language Learning: Process writing approaches have often been criticized for not explicitly teaching and raising linguistic proficiencies of students from the beginning (Murray, 1985). Students are encouraged to “compose free of the need to achieve correctness and completeness as they write” (Hyland, 2009, p.80). Writing and gaining linguistic proficiency is seen as an unconscious process that students acquire as a result of developing the product. While I did provide feedback on their language use and about language use when playing the games, I did not explicitly plan my lessons around a predetermined set of grammar rules or specific aspects of pronunciation that needed ‘correction’. My role in the classroom was that of a facilitator. I gave the student teachers direct instruction when they needed me to do so. I encouraged them to look up conventions that they were unsure of and provided them with online resources that they could go to in the future as teachers when they needed input on accurate use of written or spoken English.

Conclusion

The three perspectives described in this chapter are applicable to training teachers of English or other languages whose own proficiency may vary significantly. These perspectives illustrate how learning about methodology can be combined effectively with language development reflecting another way in which CLIL enhances learning. Each of the three teacher educators, the authors of this chapter, took a slightly different approach to teaching the course depending on her background and perspectives. In developing this paper, the three of us have come to a greater shared understanding of this program and how different approaches can enrich the course. We further feel that sharing the approaches we took to balancing content and language support may be useful to teacher educators working with student teachers in a variety of contexts.

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Anthropology in a Second Language: the Case for Dialogic Teaching and Scaffolding

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Introduction

How is anthropology taught in the Anglophone world? Undergraduate anthropology courses in the U.K. are typically taught through lectures, tutorials, and seminars (Mascarenhas-Keyes & Wright, 1995). In the case of the U.S., courses there are offered as three-hour weekly lectures accompanied by teaching assistant-led discussions (Michaels & Fagan, 1997). Courses in both countries will often give out reading lists for students whose contents will be covered in the lectures and discussed in the seminars. Textbooks are not normally used in introductory courses in the U.K., whereas in the U.S., they constitute an essential resource in introductory or survey courses for non-majors (Hickerson, 1997).

How effective are lectures, seminars and reading lists at promoting students learning? Lectures enable the efficient and quick transmission of content but are a passive form of learning. Moreover, they are very inefficient when seen through the perspective of the student. "We only retain roughly 10 percent of what we read, and only 20 percent of what we hear" (Dracklé, 2004, p. 170). Lectures are "necessary to educate masses of students" (Podolevsky, 1997, p. 54-55), and universities use them as the default platform not because they are pedagogically sound, but because they are cheap and efficient, administratively speaking. Seminars and tutorials entail significantly more active participation on the part of the student, but they can often be dominated by teaching assistants, especially when students come without having done the required readings (Michaels & Fagan, 1997). Reading lists tend to reflect the research interests of the instructor and the department where he teaches and they are very often highly theoretical. Students can find these readings uninteresting because, being novices, they lack the 'cognitive framework' necessary to make sense of them. Many of these readings focus on theoretical debates and disagreements on certain issues between scholars within the discipline for which first and second-year students lack the background to fully appreciate (Haviland, 1997).

The lecture-centered approach to teaching at universities rests on what the philosopher and educator Paolo Freire calls the "banking model" of learning where "the expert (the teacher) deposits information and skills into the memory bank of the novice (the learner)" (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010, p. 28). This approach clearly leads to suboptimal learning outcomes for students who are native speakers of the language in which the courses are taught. Lectures are a passive learning experience for learners while the success of seminars and discussions hinges on them coming to lessons having done the prior readings. In addition, these reading lists confront them with too much unfamiliar ‘expert’ knowledge.

What about undergraduate anthropology courses taught in a student’s second language or in an immersion setting? How should they best be taught? Anthropologists, at least those working in Europe, “have avoided asking questions about whether or not anthropology should be taught similarly to other disciplines” (Kürti 2004, p. *ix*). I would add that anthropologists everywhere have also avoided asking questions about whether the subject should be taught to EFL/ESL students in the exact same way it is currently being taught to native speakers. If passive lectures are inappropriate and produce suboptimal outcomes for students studying in their native language, it follows that they are even more inappropriate for students studying in a foreign language. In addition, seminars, and theoretical, decontextualised reading lists are highly unsuited for ESL/EFL students of anthropology if only because successful participation in the former rests on an adequate comprehension of the latter, something improbable.

One issue that will arise when EFL/ESL students attend anthropology lectures in the target language is that they will struggle with language as well as content. This kind of course will assume a very high level of English proficiency as well as very competent academic skills on the part of the students. The course will focus exclusively on content, to the exclusion of language. This is because such academic programs view preparation in academic English as something that happens *before* they embark on the course. Once EFL/ESL students enroll, it is assumed that they will have, or should have, an excellent command of the language. Although some EFL/ESL students will have an adequate linguistic and academic foundation for the course, many will experience considerable difficulties coping with the demands that lectures will place on their language abilities. Students studying in a second language need support because we cannot go on assuming that everyone enrolled in a course will have English and academic skills that meet or even exceed the required minimum standard.

Another issue with lecture-based courses taught in the target language is that they force EFL/ESL students as well as native speakers to become passive consumers of knowledge. This characteristic of the lecture ignores a fundamental issue at the heart of foreign language teaching- specifically, the need for EFL/ESL students to practice language which stretches their actual levels of competence. “Optimal L2 learning must include opportunities for language use that is slightly beyond what the learner currently can handle in speaking or writing" (Ortega, 2009, p. 63).

EFL/ESL students' experience with a content course will be mediated by the nature of the course, its level of difficulty, their familiarity with subject content as well as their level of competence in English. The cognitive demands of tertiary programmes are often high and we cannot assume that students studying in an EFL setting will not "require an integrated approach where both content and language objectives are included" (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 24). I will argue that the effective delivery of a content course taught in a student's second language must take both components into account.

Students learn successfully when cognitively demanding tasks are heavily contextualized (Cummins, 1984), and integrating language and content fulfills these two conditions (Navés, 2009). Also "content must be manipulated pedagogically if its potential for language learning is to be realized" (Klapper, 1996, p. 70). Moreover, the successful acquisition of a second language tends to occur when 'the focus of instruction is on meaning rather than form, when the language input is at or just above the proficiency of the learner and when there is sufficient opportunity to engage in meaningful use of that language in a relatively anxiety-free environment (Navés, 2009).

Content and Language Integrated Learning

What is the optimal way of teaching undergraduate anthropology in an EFL/ESL setting? There is more than one way to do this and this paper will explore the contribution that Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), can make in helping students taking an undergraduate anthropology course in a second language learn content as well as improve their language abilities. CLIL is not merely about teaching content in the target language. Were it like that, it would be indistinguishable from the traditional lecture-based course. Marsh, Enner and Sygmund (1999, p. 17) believe:

> Teachers have found that content and language integrated learning is about far more than simply teaching non-language subject matter in an additional language in the same way as the mother tongue…not a matter of simply changing the language of instruction.

CLIL can be defined as a 'dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language' and its strategy involves using a language that is "not a student's native language as a medium of instruction and learning for primary, secondary and/or vocational-level subjects such as maths, science, art or business" (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, 2008, p. 9-11).

A CLIL program offers many benefits: it "(1) creates conditions for naturalistic language learning; (2) provides a purpose for language use in the classroom, (3) has a positive effect on language learning by putting the emphasis on meaning rather than form; and (4) drastically increases the amount of exposure to the target language" (Navés, 2009, p. 25).

How can CLIL improve learners' mastery of content? For Dale and Tanner (2012, p. 11): Cognitive learning theories suggest that people remember things more effectively if their brains have to work harder to complete a task. For example, it is likely that bilinguals form more connections in the brain, making new connections and expand their memory because they are learning in another language. Learning a subject through another language may broaden and deepen CLIL learners' understanding of subject concepts, their thinking skills and their creativity: their brains have to work harder when they learn through another language. CLIL learners may, therefore, be more likely to remember what they have learned- both the language and the content.

How can CLIL improve learners' second language competence? In contrast to passive lectures, CLIL actively involves and engages EFL/ESL students in meaning-making and in contextualizing new information. This approach also has the added benefit of helping improve their skills and competence in the target language. Dale & Tanner (2012, p. 12) argue:

> Several second language learning theories suggest that CLIL helps learners to learn another language more efficiently than separate language lessons. These theories imply that CLIL learners will learn the language quickly and achieve a high level of proficiency: they will become fluent and accurate. In order to learn a language, you need to hear and read it, understand it, use it to speak and write in meaningful interactions and notice how the language is used in practice: this all happens in CLIL lessons. Learners who spend time focusing on *how* language is used (form), as well as *what* is being said (meaning) also progress faster in learning a language and have less chance of *fossilization* (a term referring to a state of learning where progress ceases despite continuing exposure to the language) than learners who simply use language without paying attention to form.

Putting CLIL into Practice

There is "no single CLIL pedagogy. Accepted effective-practice pedagogies associated with individual subjects should offer the best approaches also for CLIL context" (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010, p. 86). There are a variety of approaches to CLIL and I will explore a subject-led approach which "may well exclude language teachers and explicit language teaching" as opposed to a language-led one, which "imports parts of subjects and highlights language development" (Clegg, 2003, p. 89). Likewise, there are a variety of principles and methods in CLIL and different teachers will selectively apply any combination of them across a range of subjects and will probably use different methods in order to achieve their language and content objectives. I have chosen to highlight two principles in particular- dialogic teaching and scaffolding, and have attempted to develop lessons based on these principles, which are meant to increase subject mastery of anthropology as well as develop EFL/ESL students' language proficiency.

The first principle is classroom dialogue. Dialogue and interaction in the classroom- between teacher and learners and between learners is at the core of learning. Dialogic forms of teaching are "potent tools for securing learner engagement, learning and understanding" (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 35). For Freire, "without dialogue there is no communication and without communication there can be no true education" (1972, p. 81). This is one principal reason why lecture-dominated lessons are pedagogically unsound. The case for using dialogic teaching with EFL/ESL students attending content courses is even more persuasive. Coyle et al. (2010, p. 88) assert:

> …it is certain that engaging with and learning appropriately cognitively challenging content through another language requires a depth of processing which cannot be attained when the teacher is simply in transmission mode. Therefore, successful CLIL modules have often included a great amount of paired work, group work and cooperative learning techniques such as jigsaw tasks.

Llinares, Morton & Whittaker (2012, p. 71) assert that "dialogic teaching must form an essential part of all CLIL teachers' repertoires" and I will argue that this form of teaching is indispensable for the teaching of anthropology in an EFL context. Mortimer and Scott (2003: p. 34-40) identify four different kinds of teacher-student communicative approach according to two dimensions: interactive / non-interactive and dialogic / authoritative. These four types are shown in Table 1.

Table1.Four types of communicative approach

	INTERACTIVE	NON-INTERACTIVE
DIALOGIC	A. Interactive / Dialogic	B. Non-interactive / Dialogic
AUTHORITATIVE	C. Interactive / Authoritative	D. Non-interactive / Authoritative

Llinares et al. (2012, p. 53) elaborate on the differences between these communicative approaches in the classroom:

> When talk is interactive, a number of people contribute, and when it is non-interactive only one person intervenes. The dialogic / authoritative dimension refers to whose ideas get talked about it class. If the talk is dialogic, students are encouraged to contribute their own ideas and point of view on a topic. In authoritative talk, only the teacher's or the 'official' point of view is recognized.

Traditional lecture-based approaches in teaching anthropology are passive and they deliver suboptimal learning outcomes precisely because they belong to the fourth type of classroom communicative approach: Non-interactive / Authoritative. These learning outcomes are suboptimal from the perspective of both content and second language learning. These authors assert (p. 55):

> This concept of communicative approach is crucial for CLIL classrooms, for if students are to gain communicative competence in their L2 through studying academic content, they will need opportunities to participate in all four types of communication system. A CLIL classroom in which the vast majority of interaction is of the authoritative / non-interactive type would obviously present an impoverished context for language development, especially if we see language production as essential to this process. In contrast, in a CLIL classroom in which there is wide use of the interactive / dialogic communicative approach, students will have opportunities to express their own ideas or points of view on a topic, and there will be a toing and froing of interaction between the students and teacher or between the students themselves.

Dialogic teaching "can be an extremely effective instrument for encouraging cognitive and language development in the CLIL classroom" (p. 63). It offers students studying content in another language the following benefits (Haneda & Wells, 2008):

- students receive comprehensible input and produce comprehensible output
- they learn appropriate social and communicative strategies
- they are exposed to alternative perspectives on different topics

Dialogic teaching by definition necessitates some form of classroom interaction. However, not all interactions that occur in a lesson are optimal. "In many classrooms, the main pedagogical purpose is to exchange already known information and check students' knowledge" (Llinares et al., 2012, p. 77). These tend to consist of the IRF pattern, or 'the teacher's Initiation, the students' Response and the teacher's Follow-up or Feedback' (p. 78). The following classroom interaction is an example of an IRF dialogue:

T: Are rituals present in the wedding ceremony?

S: Yes.

T: Good.

Optimal dialogic teaching is best understood as a combination of classroom interactions in a CLIL class that allows for exchanges “in which the students provide the teacher with known information as well as others that enable more genuine communication” (p. 77). Moreover, some forms of interaction should consist of a series of exchanges between teacher and students where the cognitive demands on students are challenging but achievable. These verbal exchanges often take the form of teacher-initiated questions. Dalton-Puffer (2007, p. 98) identifies five categories of questions that appear in a CLIL class:

- questions for facts (asking for objective happenings)
- questions for explanation (asking for how something happened)
- questions for reasons (why something happened)
- questions for opinion
- metacognitive questions (which engage the learner in extended dialogues)

Factual questions are the least challenging and only involve recall and retrieval of knowledge. ‘How’, ‘why’, ‘opinion’ and metacognitive questions impose the greatest cognitive demands on students and the ideal form of classroom interaction in CLIL should aim to have the greatest possible number of these questions. Unfortunately a lot of teacher-initiated questions tend to be of the factual type as exemplified by the above dialogue on rituals. This kind of dialogue is least demanding cognitively.

Likewise, optimal teacher feedback should not be limited to praising but rather should consist of follow-up questions that can expand on students’ responses, or should elicit the desired response in case students give an inadequate or inappropriate answer. Optimal interaction should include several cognitively challenging questions such as:

T: How is the wedding ritual performed?

T: Why is the wedding ritual performed?

T: Do you think the ritual can mean different meaning things to different people, and why?

T: How effective is Van Gennep’s concept of ‘rite of passage’ in analyzing the wedding ritual?

T: Compare and contrast Van Gennep’s and Turner’s theories as they apply to the wedding ritual.

The second principle is scaffolding. This principle attempts to relate and contextualize new language and content to things and ideas they already know. For Coyle et al. (2010, p.

96) teachers should make every effort “to scaffold new content through familiar language, or to scaffold new language through the use of familiar content.’ Teachers need to scaffold input in order to ‘restrict any extremes in the level of familiarity of both content and language” (ibid.). The failure to do this is another reason why lectures and reading lists let students down. Llinares et al. (2012, p. 77) declare that “in CLIL contexts, teachers’ scaffolding is even more necessary as students need to process and express complex ideas in a foreign language.” I will argue that this is crucial in teaching anthropology in an EFL context.

Coyle et al. (2010, p. 147) assert that “scaffolding has such an important role within CLIL courses, especially in contexts where the language is not intensively developed beforehand.” Mehisto et al. (2008, p. 141) view it as a core feature of CLIL methodology and they argue that it “helps students to access previously acquired learning, to analyze it, to process new information, to create new relational links and to take their understanding several steps further.” Scaffolding can occur at the level of materials design. Scaffolding strategies can include:

- shortening sentences
- breaking material into chunks
- using graphic organizers such as Venn diagrams, tables and charts
- using pictures and realia (p. 140)

Scaffolding assistance can also occur in the form of classroom interaction. Gibbons (2002, p. 10) defines it as “the temporary assistance by which a teacher helps a learner to know how to do something, so that the learner will later be able to complete a similar task alone.” CLIL teachers provide interactional assistance because it helps fulfill their main objective; “the teaching of the concepts which are being introduced, explored or refined” (Coyle et al., p. 96). This assistance can occur in a number of classroom stages in which learning and teaching activities take place. Llinares et al. (2012, p. 92) identify some of these stages as:

- review and orientation
- setting up of a new task
- carrying out a task
- reflection on task

The first stage is necessarily based on learners’ previous experience. The teacher will attempt to establish connections between their “prior experience with the topic in previous classes” and “the learning aims of the next task” (p. 92). In the next stage the teacher facilitates the “understanding of the task” (p. 95). The third stage has the students working in groups while the teacher “has an important mediating role” (p. 97). The final stage invites students to reflect on what they have just learnt. It “is one of the stages that require more mediation by the teacher” and it involves “a great cognitive effort by the students, regarding both content and language” (p. 98).

Anthropology at AIU

AIU is a small English-medium liberal arts college located in Akita, Northeastern Japan. It has around 800 degree-seeking students, the great majority of whom come from different regions of Japan. The four-year degree at AIU consists of four programs; English for Academic Purposes (EAP), Basic Education (BE), Global Business (GB) and Global Studies (GS). The college offers two fields of specialization, GB and GS, and students are expected to choose a major sometime during their second year. Students generally take EAP courses in their first year, study BE courses in their second year, go for a year abroad in their third year at one of AIU’s 130 partner institutions in North America (47), South America (1), Europe (44), Oceania (8), Asia (27) and finally Africa (3). They come back to major in GS or GB in their final year. Students normally enter the BE Program in their sophomore year. BE courses range from the social sciences, to the humanities, mathematics, natural sciences and Japan studies. BE builds on the academic and linguistic skills students acquire in EAP. Its courses, along with those of GS and GB, are exclusively content-focused.

Cultural Anthropology is offered as an elective within the BE Program. The ethnic composition of students taking the anthropology course tends to be mainly Japanese degree-seeking students fresh out of EAP complemented by a sprinkling of foreign nationals who are mostly international students taking the course to be credited at the Partner Institutions (PI) where they are studying for a degree, or are AIU degree-seeking students (DS). In the Fall Term of 2012, there were fifteen students registered for the course; eleven Japanese (10 DS, 1 PI) and one American (PI), one Swiss (DS), one mainland Chinese (DS), and one bi-national Filipino-Japanese (DS).

The course is an introduction to the discipline of anthropology and it aims to get students to start ‘thinking like an anthropologist’. The course syllabus is divided into two main sections; methods and concepts. The section on anthropological methods introduces students to three common techniques of data collection- observation, interview and participant observation. The one on anthropological themes and concepts initiates students in some basic themes and concepts like systems of classification, taboos, gifts and exchange, family and kinship, rituals, symbols, marriage, religion and magic, witchcraft, and finally order and social control. The course is assessed through a 2,000 word project in which students are expected to undertake a piece of anthropological research in which they choose a topic, formulate one or two research questions, collect data, analyze it, and finally write the report.

Anthropology seeks to compare beliefs, practices and institutions across different cultures with a view to explore, challenge, and ultimately, arrive at a deeper understanding of cultural phenomena. My course seeks to get both Japanese and foreign students of any nationality to compare their cultures with each other and with that of more ‘exotic’ cultures from faraway places. Most learners believe that their ways of being and living are ‘natural’ and ‘normal’ and so the thematic worksheets usually start by inviting learners to look at their own practices critically. The worksheets scaffold the learning of other cultures’ unfamiliar values and practices through a prior exploration of a familiar one- it makes them examine their own culture, problematize it, and see the strange in the familiar and the familiar in the strange. Afterwards, the worksheets focus on a very different culture with sometimes radically different assumptions and values. The idea is for learners to somehow distance themselves from their cultural beliefs and identities and ‘see a certain cultural logic’ to why different groups behave as they do.

Llinares et al. (2012, p. 101) argue that CLIL teachers should “identify stages in units and lessons and think of different types of scaffolding strategies appropriate for these different stages.” I shall now proceed to describe how I apply these strategies in my anthropology lessons. I employ scaffolding techniques in two areas; materials design and oral interaction.

I have designed scaffolded materials in the form of worksheets for most of my anthropology lessons. These use simplified text, deliver information in small chunks, and employ shortened sentences accompanied by pictures, diagrams, charts and tables. The idea is that students’ initial exposure to unfamiliar content should be made as simple as possible. It is deliberately kept to a bare minimum as "it is commonly believed that the average person can hold no more than seven pieces of information in his or her short-term working memory. So there is little point in presenting large amounts of information quickly” (Mehisto et al. 2008, p. 146). I keep new information limited to the bare essentials necessary for comprehension, leaving out all other details for later. These worksheets only constitute an initial phase of exposure to the new concepts and themes. Once students have finished the worksheet they then go on to read the relevant chapter from the required textbook where they explore the concept in greater depth.

Following Llinares et al. (2012, p. 92) learning and teaching stages, I teach according to a four-step sequence of interactional scaffolding. These stages are incorporated in the design of the worksheets and they have the following sequence:

- activate any relevant prior knowledge or background, establish connections between previous classes and the present one (review and orientation).
- prepare students for the task (setting up of the new task)
- class learns about new input by reading a text or watching a video, apply it by doing the discussion tasks as a group, while teacher goes around, monitoring, giving clues, clarifying concepts, etc. (carrying out a task)
- initiate a whole-class discussion wherein teacher gives feedback and invites students to reflect on the new input (reflection on task).

The following section will consist of extracts of oral interactions from past lessons based on the 'Family, Kinship and Marriage' worksheet (Appendix A), which will illustrate the role of interactional scaffolding. 'Family, Kinship and Marriage' presents basic anthropological notions and concepts regarding what it means to be related to someone, and then proceeds to explore case studies taken from a Western context. These are followed by tasks that force students to make explicit certain implicit or assumed ideas regarding 'family'. These western case studies are then put alongside more 'exotic' practices such as 'ghost marriage' among the Nuer of Sudan, and 'partible parenthood' among certain lowland South American tribes. The last set of tasks invite them to appreciate how these 'primitive' tribes can help illuminate our contemporary understandings of family and relatedness.

Review and orientation

T: OK, What is a relative?

S1: it is like a cousin, brother, or sister, or father.

S2: in Japanese it is called *enja.*

T: What makes a person a 'relative'?

S3: You have the same genes or blood or family name.

T: Is it possible to be relatives with someone although you do not have shared blood' or genes with them?

S4: Yes, my sister's husband is also a relative.

T: Can you remember any lesson or story in any past lesson where relatives appeared?

S5: In the lesson on rites of passage, at the start of a western wedding the father of the bride 'gives her away' to the groom. And the two families will now become 'related'.

Setting up of a new task

T: You need to do two things. First is to read the information about kinship called Kinship Around the World. It will give you a very brief introduction to some concepts and theories of kinship. Then you need to read Case Study A: The Diane Blood Story. You need to do this part individually. Then you need to discuss the questions in your groups. Afterwards, you can proceed to Case Study B.

Carrying out a task

T: (talking to a group) 'Posthumous' means after someone has died. Diane Blood wanted to have a baby using her dead husband's sperm. That's why the word 'posthumous' was used. Should she be allowed to do that?

S1: I think it is ok.

S2: It is not a problem. He was her husband. Why not?

T: But it was seen to be a problem in the UK. Why did the British court object? What was their idea of the family?

Reflection on task

This last stage is potentially the most important one for ensuring students have a deep understanding of the concepts involved. In this stage the teacher should endeavor to ask a variety of questions, not just factual ones. Teachers should ask several questions like: 'what', 'how', 'why', 'compare and contrast', 'evaluate', 'what would happen if', etc. because these impose the greatest cognitive demands on students. This method of dialogic teaching is perhaps the most demanding kind of oral scaffolding.

T: When does fatherhood happen, during conception or gestation?

S1: During conception?

T: Is this idea of fatherhood universal, or is it limited to certain cultures?

S2: I think it is limited to certain countries like the U.S, Europe and Japan.

T: How did these countries come to believe in fatherhood through conception?

S2: It may be due to the fact these countries place a high regard on science and scientific knowledge. And that western biology believes that conception happens when a sperm fertilizes and egg. And eggs can be fertilized by only one sperm.

T: Can you give me evidence to substantiate your statement?

S2: Well, case study B probably happened in a western country. It is about a disagreement over who the father of the child is, the mother's present partner or her previous one.

T: Which cultures hold the belief that a man can be an unborn child's father, even if she was conceived by someone else's sperm?

S3: Lowland South America and in indigenous societies in New Guinea, Polynesia, and India

T: Why do you think they hold that belief?

S4: They probably are traditional societies which are not very aware of scientific or biological theories of birth or relatedness.

T: What would happen if the West shared this idea of parenthood and relatedness?

S1: I think much of their present laws regarding family life and paternity would be very different.

T: Can you give a specific example?

S1: Well, if a child's parents divorced and the mother remarried, the child would probably have two legal fathers.

The 'Law, Order and Social Control' worksheet (Appendix B) starts with a very brief explanation of the notion of formal and informal forms social control and invites learners to explore how these things function in their own cultures. It is also divided into the same interactional stages as the previous worksheet.

- teacher brainstorms how a group makes its members behave in appropriate ways
- teacher prepares students to read about forms of social control from 'exotic' places such as the 'kpelle moot' of Liberia and the 'ordeal' of the Ifugao
- teacher monitors the different groups as they do the tasks, clarifying certain points, giving clues, etc
- teacher holds a whole-class discussion asking them to consider what their own cultures can learn from other cultures' ways of exercising informal social control.

Finally, the 'Witchcraft and Sorcery Beliefs' worksheet (Appendix C) presents a very brief description of the anthropological function of witchcraft and sorcery beliefs. It follows the same sequence as the previous worksheets:

- teacher asks students whether they ever had an accident or serious illness and how they felt about it
- teacher explains the task and prepares them for the different theories of witchcraft by giving some background information
- teacher walks around and monitors while they work out the different functions of witchcraft among various peoples, the Azande of Sudan, the Amba of Uganda, etc
- teacher holds a whole-class discussion with the aim of pointing out that the notion that witchcraft and sorcery fulfill a psychological need that people everywhere have for a satisfying explanation for the causes of misfortune

Conclusion

Anthropology courses featuring lectures and reading lists are highly inappropriate for students studying in a second language because they are decontextualized, contain a lot of unfamiliar material and finally, assume a high proficiency in the target language as well as excellent academic skills. EFL/ESL Students learn successfully when cognitively demanding tasks are heavily contextualized and integrating language and content fulfills these two conditions. CLIL is a very effective way of teaching undergraduate anthropology in an EFL/ESL setting because it helps improve both the students' grasp of content and their linguistic competence. There are a variety of principles and methods in CLIL and I have chosen to highlight two principles in particular- dialogic teaching and scaffolding.

Dialogue and interaction in the classroom- between teacher and learners and between learners is at the core of learning. Unfortunately a lot of teacher-student interactions tend to consist of factual questions and this kind of dialogue is least demanding cognitively. 'How', 'why', 'opinion' and metacognitive questions impose the greatest cognitive demands on students and the ideal form of classroom interaction in CLIL should aim to have the greatest possible number of them.

Scaffolding attempts to relate and contextualize new language and content to things and ideas they already know. It helps students to access previously acquired learning, to analyse it, to process new information, to create new relational links and to take their understanding several steps further.

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Appendix A
Family, Kinship and Marriage

Objective: You will show an anthropological understanding of family, kinship and marriage by exploring these notions in traditional societies and working out how they can illuminate contemporary controversies regarding parenthood in the West.

Warm up

1. What is a ‘relative’?
2. Is it possible to be relatives with someone although you do not have shared ‘blood’ or genes with them?

Kinship around the world

Western societies have a view of kinship that is substantially different from that of other societies. They assume that biology and genetics are the determining factor in deciding who is a relative and how closely-related people are. ‘Blood is thicker than water’ is a popular saying among many Westerners. However, new reproductive technologies like In-Vitro Fertilization or the freezing of women’s eggs and men’s sperm are challenging traditional ideas Westerners have regarding concepts like ‘family’, ‘father’, ‘mother’, etc.

Some cultures have beliefs that are completely at odds with biological ideas of relatedness. In different societies, people can have different ideas about who is a relative and how to calculate the degree of relatedness. They aren’t exclusively concerned with ‘blood ties’:

1. Some attach importance to the idea of nurturing and feeding
2. Others have kinship relationships through a common bond with the land
3. Others have kinship relationships through living in the same household

Case Study A: The Diane Blood Story

Diane blood’s late husband, Stephen, 30, died in 1995. The couple had been trying for a family for some time and while he was in coma she persuaded doctors to extract some of his sperm. After Stephen died, Mrs. Blood, now 42, asked for permission to use Stephen’s sperm in order to inseminate herself and have a baby. But the Human Fertilisation and Embryology Authority (HFEA) refused to allow the widow to conceive with her late husband's sperm. The HFEA argued that she needed written consent from her husband for the posthumous use of sperm. She then sued and a lengthy court case ensued. The law at the time stated that a man's sperm cannot be used after his death without his prior written consent.

Task 1

1. Should she have been allowed to use her dead husband’s sperm in order to have his child?
2. What is the dominant idea about the ‘family’ here, and how does the Diane Blood case violate it?

She lost the court case but she appealed. She won her appeal in 1997 then began IVF treatment in Belgium. She gave birth to Liam, now four, and then Joel, now one, at a Brussels clinic. But when she tried to fill in the birth certificate for Liam and tried to write down Stephen’s name as the father, she was not allowed to. This was because of The Human Fertilisation and Embryology Act 1990. The law banned her from registering her dead husband as the children's father. Her sons' births had to be recorded with a blank space on the certificate where their father's name should have been. It rules that a man is not considered a child's legal father if the child is conceived from frozen sperm or a frozen embryo after the man's death. Diane Blood then decided to fight another long legal battle to have him recognised as the father of his two posthumous sons.

Task 2

1. Should a dead man be recognized as a child's legal father if he was inseminated from frozen sperm after his death?
2. What is the dominant idea of a 'child' here, and how does the Diane Blood case violate it?

Case Study B: The Paul and Ann Story

Leo and Ann were a live-in couple. They broke up soon after and Ann discovers she is pregnant. A few weeks after the breakup she meets Paul and they fall in love. A child called Zoe is born. Leo finds out that Ann was pregnant when they broke up and so he insists the child is his and files for paternity rights. Paul says the child is his because he was Ann's partner when she was born. They are now fighting it out in court.

Task 3

1. When does fatherhood happen, during conception or gestation?
2. Who is Zoe's father?

Case Study C: Mixed race twins

Joan and Mark were a white middle-class British couple who have been married for several years. They were childless and were desperately trying for a baby. One day Joan became pregnant. The couple were ecstatic when they found out they were going to have twins. On the day Joan gave birth, Mark was waiting in the hall of the hospital when the nurse told him his wife had given birth to 2 healthy baby boys. He immediately rushed into the delivery room. He took one look at his wife, and then turned his attention to the twins. He was extremely shocked to see that one twin was white and the other was black!

Task 4

1. How do you think this strange phenomenon happened?
2. Who is the father of the twins?

Cultural Cross-Comparison

Ghost marriages

In Sudan, a ghost marriage is a marriage where a deceased groom is replaced by his brother or a close male kin. This is known as the *levirate*. The brother serves as a stand in to the bride, and any resulting children are considered children of the deceased spouse. Nuer women do not only marry deceased men to continue the bloodline. In accordance to Nuer tradition, any wealth owned by the woman becomes property of the man after the marriage. Thus, a wealthy woman may marry a deceased man to retain her wealth, instead of giving it up after marrying. Among the Nuer, a ghost marriage is nearly as common as a marriage to a live man.

Task 5

1 Which of the previous case studies can *ghost marriage* be applied/compared to and how can it illuminate that controversy?

‘Partible’ Fatherhood

There is the belief in Western societies that a child can have only one biological father. Researchers have conducted fieldwork on some of the more than a dozen societies in South America whose members believe that biological fatherhood can be "partible," or shared. "Throughout lowland South America, there is a belief in the partibility of paternity," said Mr. Beckerman. "The belief, in essence, is that all of the men who have sex with a woman around the beginning of her pregnancy and all through her pregnancy share the biological paternity of her child. In this view, the fetus is considered to grow by repeated contributions of semen."

Examples of a belief in partible paternity are being discovered outside South America, in indigenous societies in New Guinea, Polynesia, and India. Mr. Beckerman said his team's studies on the Bari of Venezuela and work by others on the Ache of eastern Paraguay showed that, in both societies, children with multiple fathers were more than twice as likely to survive to their adolescent years as children born to a single father.

Task 6

1 Which of the previous case studies can ‘partible’ paternity be applied/compared to and how can it illuminate that controversy?

Appendix B

Law, Order and Social Control

Objective: You can understand the concepts of social control, dispute resolution and channeling of conflict by examining various phenomena and ascertaining their roles and functions within the wider cultural context.

Warm up

1. How does a group make its members behave in appropriate ways?

Social Control and Law

All societies have clearly defined rules that govern the relationships between members. Not all individuals in any society will conform to these rules. There will alwaysbe some who behave in a socially unacceptable manner. Thus, among all peoples, there exist formal and informal ways to correct the behavior of individuals. We call these mechanisms social control.

Formal systems of social control

Most modern societies have formal legal systems. A formal legal system is one which has institutions like law courts, lawyers, a civil and criminal code, penal system, police, etc. In this system, disputes or conflicts between individuals and groups are settled and individuals who violate a law are tried and punished.

Task 1: Formal control in our lives

Can you think of a specific example or personal story involving the formal legal system?

Informal systems of social control

Informal systems exist both in societies where there is no effective central government, and in societies with strong, effective governments. Here are some informal mechanisms of social control:

1. **Child socialization**- educating, scolding, spanking children
2. **Community pressure**- gossip, ridicule, humiliation and avoidance among neighbors and relatives
3. **Peer pressure**- pressure from friendship groups on an individual
4. **Supernatural sanctions**- belief in punishment by gods, spirits, ancestors, witches and sorcerers
5. **Religious sanctions**- belief in punishment and reward in the Christian and Buddhist faiths.

Task 2: Informal control in our lives

Can you think of a specific example or personal story for each type?

Dispute resolution

It is inevitable that disputes and conflicts will arise in any society. All societies have forms of resolving disputes. The law courts represent formal systems of conflict resolution. However, there are also informal ways of settling differences.

Task 3:The Kpelle Moot

Read the description below. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the Kpelle Moot versus the law courts?

Among the West African Kpelle of Liberia, there exist both a formal and informal systems of dispute resolution. However, the formal system of courts has major disadvantages for settling disputes among kin, affines, and neighbors whose social relations must be maintained after the particular legal issue has been resolved. The formal courts tend to leave the participants polarized and bitter. A more effective means of settling disputes among people who need to preserve the fabric of social relations is the 'house palaver' or *moot*. Among the Kpelle, it is usually domestic problems- marital conflicts, unpaid debts between kin, quarrels over inheritance- that are settled in this way. The group is an ad hoc cluster of interested and concerned parties, mainly kin and neighbors. The gathering is held at the home of the complainant, who calls the *moot*. A kinsman, often a respected elder acts as a mediator.

Task 4: Ordeals among the Ifugao

Read the description below. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the Ifugao ordeal versus the law courts?

Among the Ifugao, a tribal group in the Northern Philippines, criminal cases and property disputes are often settled by ordeals. A person accused of an offense may submit to an ordeal as a challenge, or the accuser may challenge the individual to prove his or her innocence. An accused person who refuses is considered guilty. There are several forms of ordeals. In the hot water ordeal, a person must reach into a pot of boiling water, pull out a pebble, and then replace it. It is believed that if a person is truly guilty his hand will be badly burned. If he is innocent, he will not be badly burned and the accuser must pay compensation. The ordeal is supervised by a *monkalun*, or arbiter. He is a neutral party.

Channeling of conflict

The presence of so many rules, laws, sanctions, taboos, etc. in any society can often lead to a lot of stress and pressure in daily life. It is thus important to find ways of letting off pressure.

Task 5: Letting off steam in your life

How do you let off pressure?

Letting off steam in society

One way of letting off steam is to ritualize the expression of conflict. 2 effective ways of doing that are:

1. sexual license in a limited situation (Trobriand Islands)
2. overt expression of hostility (The Inuit tribe of Alaska)

Task 6: Sexual license and avoidance in the Trobriand Islands

Read the description below. Why does a Trobriand man have radically different relationships with his sister and his aunt?

Brothers and sisters in the Trobriand Islands are a great source of many taboos. It is marked by formality, distance and avoidance from childhood onward. When a man's sister begins dating, her brother must refrain from discussing, interfering, or even showing that he knows about it. When she marries, anything concerning her love life or sexual life is forbidden to him. But a man has a very different relationship with his father's sister. She is a kind of prototypical sexual object for him- usually considered older and hence seldom an actual sexual partner- but if it happens it is acceptable. Their relationship is often characterized by frequent joking of a sexual nature.

Joking relationships: involve joking and often sexual license between certain classes of relatives, friends, colleagues, etc.

Avoidance relationships: involve strict rules of decorum or even complete avoidance between certain classes of relatives, friends, colleagues, etc.

Task 7: Joking and avoidance in Japan and other places

With whom and under what circumstances do people in Japan and other places have joking/avoidance relationships?

Task 8: Overt hostility among the Minj-Wahgi and the Inuit

Read the descriptions below. What are the advantages and disadvantages of these controlled forms of fighting versus other forms of settling disputes?

In New Guinea, among the Minj-wahgi people, men from 2 opposing sides line up, clasping their hands behind their backs, and kick at each other's shins until one side withdraws.

In Alaska, several Inuit groups will sit opposite one another and engage in head-butting, or stand up and deliver straight-arm blows to each other's heads. In either case, the battle continues until one side falls over.

Task 9: Overt hostility in Japan and other places

With whom and under what circumstances would people in Japan and other places have controlled expressions of hostility?

Appendix C
Witchcraft and Sorcery Beliefs

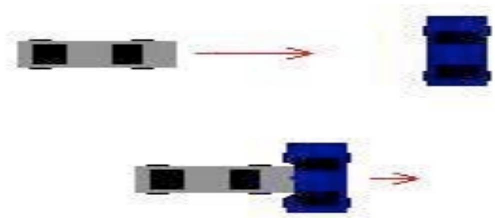
Objective: You can show an awareness of the complex concepts of witchcraft and sorcery by examining various ‘sorcery’ phenomena and working out the function or role each one plays in its cultural context

Warm up

1. Have you or anyone you know ever experienced a serious illness or accident?
2. Describe the accident and talk about your feelings immediately after it.
3. What questions did you want answered regarding it?

Task 1: The psychology of witchcraft

Imagine you were recently involved in a car accident and you want an explanation as to what caused it. Read the 2 explanations of the accident below. What kind of explanations are they? Which one is more psychologically satisfying?



1. Your 1000 kg car crashed headlong into a truck that weighs 10,000 kg. The car was going 10 miles per hour, the truck was at rest. A collision is an event where momentum or kinetic energy is transferred from one object to another. Momentum (p) is the product of

mass and velocity (p = mv). Your car was wrecked and you got seriously hurt because the collision transferred a lot of kinetic energy from the massive truck to your little car.

2. You had the accident because you were at the wrong place at the wrong time. But after it you now remember that you were previously involved in an argument with your neighbor over his noisy dog. He shouted at you and said ‘you’ll be sorry’. As a result you were very irritable and could not concentrate on your driving which made you crash into a truck.

Witchcraft as a causative explanation

All cultures have theories or explanations of causation. That means they have cosmologies or worldviews which try to explain why things, particularly bad things, happen to people. Sometimes scientific and rational explanations are given for misfortune. At other times people resort to personal, social and magical reasons. Witchcraft and sorcery are a type of worldview that tries to give satisfactory explanations for misfortune.

Suppose you lived in a culture that explained illness or accident by sorcery. If you or a relative became ill or suffered misfortune, you would not suspect just anyone of harming you. You would ask: Who has a motive to perform evil magic against me? Who envies me? Who would profit from my sickness or death? With who have I recently quarreled? These people are your prime suspects.

Witchcraft and **sorcery** have the following elements:

Witchcraft	Sorcery
A psychic power	Use of medicines for evil ends
Often hereditary	Anyone can learn it
May be unconscious	Conscious

Task 3: Witchcraft and **sorcery** are complex phenomena. They have various functions in different societies. Read the case studies below and work out what function witchcraft has in each. Refer to pp. 153-157 of the textbook for theories of witchcraft.

1. The following incident happened to the Azande, a tribe in Southern Sudan. A granary collapsed on a group of people eating their lunch. They know that the granary supports had been eaten by termites, and they knew that the people sitting under the granary were doing it to take advantage of the shade it offered. The Azande want to know however, why the granary fell at that exact time. So they use witchcraft techniques to find out *who* caused the granary to fall.
2. The Navajo, an American Indian tribe, emphasize cooperation and good relationships between people. When bad feelings do develop, they encourage people to suppress them. However, suppressing anger and frustration result in feelings of pent-up hostilities. Although you are not allowed to show anger or disagreements within the extended household, there is an exception, you are allowed to hate and gossip about people from distant social groups. The Navajo believe that most people accused of being witches come from distant groups.
3. In many societies, people who are always mad at somebody, who carry grudges for a long time, who always seem envious and resentful of the success of others, who have

become rich but refuse to share their wealth with others- all these are *antisocial* people and these tend to be accused of being witches.

4. In societies that believe in witchcraft, people try their best to be very friendly and charitable to each other. They stop and chat for a long time with someone who they bump into in the street. They enquire about the other person's health and that of his family. When others are ill they go and visit them. When they have extra food they give it to their neighbors, etc.
5. Among the Azande, if a wife is unresponsive to her husband it is witchcraft, if a prince is cold and distant with his subject it is witchcraft, if a magical rite fails to achieve its purpose it is witchcraft, if the harvest is bad it is witchcraft, in fact any failure or misfortune that falls upon anyone at anytime it may be due to witchcraft.
6. For the Azande, when a case of suspected witchcraft occurs, they turn to oracles. The chicken oracle is an example of this. Questions are asked of the chicken. The chicken is then fed poison. The answer depends on whether it lives or dies.
7. Among the Amba or Uganda witches are believed to walk upside down, go around naked, eat human flesh, drink salt when they are thirsty, and when they have a victim, they share it with witches from other villages (and not with another witch from the same village).

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Teaching a Medical English CLIL Course with Vocabulary Learning Strategies Instruction in Japan

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Abstract

This article describes teaching a medical English content and language integrated learning (CLIL) course with vocabulary learning strategies instruction for first-year students at a medical university in Tokyo over a period of three years. Whilst students faced a demanding course of study, student feedback highlights the benefits of relevant, interesting, and motivating content that will serve them in the future as doctors, in addition to the development of communicative skills and vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) to help tackle the challenges of learning medical English.

Despite the limitations of small-scale classroom-based research, it is hoped that this study may shed light on the medical English CLIL course design and implementation, including the potential benefits of integrating VLS instruction. In addition to employing level-appropriate materials and teaching approaches to support learners' language development and understanding of medical content, there is also a need for teachers to continually develop their professional knowledge and skills. Collaboration between language teachers and healthcare professionals helps to ensure course aims and objectives reflect the needs of healthcare workers (HCW) while greater coordination within institutions might help to integrate CLIL courses into the wider curriculum. However, the assessment of medical English CLIL courses remain in their infancy and, together with curriculum development, they may benefit from large-scale innovation and research at a

national level, although there are important lessons to be learned from both the CLIL and content-based learning (CBI) literature.

Keywords: Content and language integrated learning (CLIL), content-based instruction (CBI), curriculum design, Japanese university, medical English, vocabulary learning strategies

Introduction

From a societal perspective, there are a number of issues to consider regarding English education for medical students in Japan. First, with a rapidly ageing and declining population, Japan is facing an unprecedented crisis to which one solution may be to welcome a wave of immigrants (Morgan, 2001; Hoffman, 2012). Meanwhile, the government estimates a shortage of 300,000-700,000 healthcare workers (HCWs) by 2025, even though current efforts to increase the number of foreign HCWs represent a mere drop in the ocean and Japanese language requirements remaining a significant barrier (*The Japan Times*, April 3, 2012). Thus, future HCWs seem likely to be faced with an increasing need to communicate with foreign patients and colleagues. Furthermore, if Japan wishes to capitalise on the global growth in medical tourism, as well as current initiatives to increase the number of medical interpreters (Aoki, 2012), improving Japanese HCWs' English skills seems logical if not crucial. In addition to improving Japanese researchers' English language abilities, this might also foster greater access to and dissemination of medical research in international journals and conferences.

Having recognised these needs, a number of institutions and educators have been taking steps to address them (e.g. Rodis, Kariya, Nishimura, Matsumura, & Tamamura, 2011; Sasajima, Godfrey, & Matsumoto, 2011). One approach, particularly in tertiary education, is through content language and integrated learning (CLIL), which offers a dual-focus to address the challenges associated with learning new subject matter and language while developing communicative skills (Marsh, 2002). Together with an emphasis on teaching inherently interesting, relevant, and motivating content – typically through communicative language teaching and task-based learning, CLIL has been considered particularly valuable for vocational settings (Commission of the European Communities, 2003).

Although CLIL is often used interchangeably with content-based instruction (CBI), many teachers may not be aware of the subtle distinction (Banegas, 2012). In short, CLIL describes the use of a foreign/second language to teach and learn subject matter whereas

CBI uses motivating content to promote foreign/second language learning, particularly in students with limited English proficiency (Casal, 2008). Therefore, they might more easily be viewed as existing on a CBI-CLIL continuum (Banegas, 2012).

Both CLIL and CBI are also often associated with English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English for Academic Purposes, and there has been an increasing number of ESP textbooks being published, including those for healthcare. Whilst CBI has gained popularity in Asian secondary and tertiary education (Dickey, 2001) and CLIL has grown significantly in Europe over the past two decades (Banegas, 2012), CLIL has only more recently been gaining attention in Asia and is relatively new to EFL contexts such as Japan (e.g. Watanabe, Ikeda, & Izumi, 2011, 2012). However, its potential impact and value in higher education cannot be overlooked, particularly with regards to the teaching of medical students who can benefit from developing both medical knowledge and language skills through studying relevant, interesting, and motivating content (Godfrey, this volume; Sasajima, et al., 2011; Wood, 2011). This article thus aims at highlighting some of the key benefits and challenges of a CLIL healthcare English course for first-year medical students.

***Health Care English:* A Practical Healthcare Communication Program**

Following a brief description of the context, students, and classes, as well as course objectives, assessment, and materials, this section describes the implementation and instruction of the *Health Care English* course over the three-year period I taught from 2008-2011.

Context, Students, and Classes

Context

The Jikei University School of Medicine has a long history and, as one of the three major private medical universities in Tokyo, it is well-respected and competitive to enter. From the outset of the course, almost all if not all of the students expressed a desire to become a doctor in the future and many are very studious.

Students

Due to the demands of the *Health Care English* (HCE) course, it is only offered to the top four first-year classes in the highest two tiers as determined by an in-house, TOEIC-style placement test focusing on listening, reading and grammar. However, this is not meant to imply that CLIL is only for learners with greater language ability. As Graddol (2006) points out, "…the learner is not necessarily expected to have the English proficiency required to cope with the subject before beginning study” (p. 86). In reality, although the placement test indicated that most of the HCE students’ English abilities initially ranged from intermediate to advanced level, some only had high-beginner or low-intermediate communicative skills while others were highly proficient and had lived overseas.

Classes

Classes are small with only 13-15 students that meet for 90 minutes once a week for 15 weeks each semester. My senior colleague and I each taught the same content to two classes for one semester and then swapped students for the second semester. In addition to the HCE course, a native-Japanese teacher of English taught the students on a different day with a focus on reading and writing. Extensive reading was also included (see further http://erfoundation.org/wordpress/).

Course Objectives, Assessment, and Materials

Course objectives

The course primarily aims to develop students’ ability to interact comfortably with future patients in English. In addition to relevant medical English terminology, it introduces doctor-patient questioning techniques to obtain health and lifestyle information, and language to conduct and explain simple medical examinations and procedures as well as give prescriptions and directions in a hospital. It is worth noting that first-year students study a range of foundation subjects in Japanese but the medical content knowledge presented in HCE is new to them and they have yet to study medicine in Japanese – a point that we shall return to later. In addition, the course aims to help students improve their communicative ability by maximising opportunities to use English in class.

Course assessment

Students are assessed on (a) active participation in class, (b) completion of out-of-class assignments, (c) 10-15 minute medical English tests given every 1-2 weeks, and (d) 10-minute oral exams at the end of semester based on doctor-patient role-plays.

Course materials

The HCE course materials were developed by my colleague based on extensive experience teaching medical English and in consultation with practicing medical doctors in Japan. Each year minor revisions are also made in response to feedback from students, teachers, and university hospital doctors. Arguably, this kind of collaborative approach is crucial to the development of authentic materials suitable for local contexts (Banegas, 2012). The course is essentially designed around role-playing common scenarios between doctors and patients, medical interns, and/or healthcare workers. Table 1 presents and overview of the course content for the first semester, *Health Care English @110*.

Table 1. *Health Care English @110*: First semester course outline

Hospital scenario	Key aims and language
Introduction and general explanation on admission	Doctor-patient introductions Showing a patient their hospital room, giving basic information and instructions, and putting them at ease
Outpatient reception desk	Meeting new patients, obtaining basic personal information, and confirming details Understanding common symptoms Medical departments
Internal medicine reception desk (1)	Greeting patients who have an appointment Asking patients about their chief complaint and basic symptoms Expressing empathy
Internal medicine reception desk (2)	Asking patients about symptoms in more detail Obtaining basic health and lifestyle information Giving patients simple instructions
"*You'd better go to orthopedics*"	Asking for and giving directions in a hospital Understanding chief complaints, symptoms, and medical departments
Outpatient clinic	Explaining simple medical procedures Reassuring a patient Arranging an appointment
Admission interview	Asking about family and patient's health history Drawing a family tree with medical history Diseases and disorders
Assessing and treating a common cold	Asking about symptoms Explaining basic medical procedures Prescribing medication and explaining common side effects

Building on the first semester, the second semester course, *Health Care English @210*, involves more detailed doctor-patient interactions and requires a higher level of language knowledge and skill. The course content is outlined in Table 2.

Table 2. *Health Care English @210*: Second semester course outline

Hospital scenario	**Key aims and language**
Effective communication during medical evaluation	Medical interviews and questioning techniques: Type and sequence of questions Introduction to the review of systems
Taking a history of present illness	Asking patients about their chief complaint and symptoms Characterising pain Asking for and recording a patient's medical history Diseases and disorders
Taking a history of present illness: Review of systems	Asking patients about their chief complaint and symptoms Characterising pain Asking for and recording a patient's medical history Diseases and disorders Simple diagnoses Prescribing medicine
Examining a patient	Asking patients about their chief complaint and symptoms Explaining simple medical procedures Reassuring a patient Prescribing medication and explaining common side-effects
Diagnostic investigations	Giving information on physical examination Reassuring a patient Obtaining signed consent Diagnostic tests

As evident from Tables 1 and 2, the course aims to be practical in nature whilst emphasising treatment of the whole patient and bedside manner, for example, by highlighting the importance of putting patients at ease, explaining clearly, showing sympathy, and being understanding and reassuring – somewhat in contrast to how doctors in Japan are often perceived (Wheeler, 2011). This further supports the Jikei University's founding spirit of patient-centered medical care:

> A patient is not merely a bundle of cells and organs but a human being suffering from illness. The physician must have the "healer's heart" to sense and share that suffering. (The Jikei University website, March 2002)

Implementation and Instruction

The course comprises of the following key components that together aim to support learners' development of medical content knowledge and communicative ability as well as learning strategies and autonomy:

- The *Health Care English* textbook materials, including doctor-patient scenarios with audio recordings, communicative tasks and role-plays;
- Medical-related articles and short assignments on medical topics;
- Medical English vocabulary tests; and
- A vocabulary learning strategies program.

The Health Care English textbook materials

The course textbooks present model dialogues with recordings, listening tasks, substitution exercises and matching tasks, bilingual wordlists, mini-dialogues, information gap activities, and extended role-plays. These aim to support the development of both language skills and content knowledge.

In my classes, I primarily employed a task-based language teaching approach which, with an emphasis on authentic language goals, has been strongly associated with CBI (Richards & Rogers, 2001) and is equally relevant to CLIL (Cendoya & Di Bin, 2010). Moreover, tasks and cooperative learning (i.e. students working together in pairs or groups) in CLIL particularly seem to benefit the development of communication and productive skills (i.e. speaking and writing) in addition to listening and reading (Casal, 2008). However, I also used a more traditional presentation, practice, and production (PPP) methodology to introduce many of the new doctor-patient role-play scenarios where much of the language is fixed and therefore relatively predictable. Indeed, "CLIL is an approach in which various methodologies are used to achieve a dual-focused form of instruction in language and content" (Banegas, 2012, p. 117), and Sasajima, et al. (2011) similarly found both teachers and learners appreciated the need for a variety of teaching techniques. Likewise, based on over ten years experience teaching in a variety of contexts in Japan, I have often found it easier to begin with approaches and methods such as PPP that are more familiar to students, especially with less confident and/or lower levels, whilst gradually introducing more learner- and learning-centred approaches, including communicative tasks and learning strategies to foster greater autonomy.

Incidentally, CBI also includes autonomous learning and the adoption of different learner roles (e.g. explorer, source of content, and joint participant in content and activity selection) as two of its major goals (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Because learning strategies and reflection are closely associated with autonomy, the inclusion of vocabulary learning strategies instruction (see below) would also serve students beyond the end of the course: To play on Confucius, “Teach a student new words, and help them in class. Teach a student vocabulary learning strategies, and help them learn for a lifetime.” Last but not least, learner autonomy is also strongly associated with motivation (Murray, Gao, & Lamb, 2011), and these are highly important for medical students who need to prepare for a demanding professional life of self-regulation and self-education (White, 2007).

Medical-related articles and short assignments.

Although HCE materials formed the basis of the course, my colleague also included medical-related news articles (e.g. Doctors learn bedside manner, *Yomiuri Shimbun/Daily Yomiuri*, February 24, 2006), which I also utilised in the second semester. In the second semester, we also gave students short assignments, such as researching and explaining common medical procedures.

Medical English vocabulary tests

Initially, medical English vocabulary tests focused on form and meaning, requiring students to write the equivalent English terms next to the Japanese (for example, see Appendix A). These were administered in class and took students about 10-15 minutes to complete. In addition, I introduced English-only written vocabulary tests to promote understanding of contextualised usage in doctor-patient conversations, and recycle previously studied vocabulary in order to promote learning and retention (for example, see Appendix B). These tests were also given in class and took about 15-minutes for students to complete.

In the second semester, medical English vocabulary tests were not limited to discrete item testing but included writing the appropriate questions that doctors need to ask in order to obtain relevant and specific information from patients regarding their medical history, present illness and symptoms (for example, see Appendix C).

Vocabulary learning strategies program

In the first semester, I designed and integrated a vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) program into the medical English course to help students address the challenge of learning over 130 medical English terms and also promote more reflective, strategic, autonomous language learning to serve them in the future. This is detailed in Brown (2009, 2012) and summarised below.

VLS instruction took about 15-20 minutes of class time each week and involved four main stages common to strategies-based instruction (Rubin, Chamot, Harris, & Anderson, 2007): (1) raising awareness of learners' existing strategy use and setting goals; (2) presenting and modeling new strategies (e.g. learning medical English word parts to guess meaning and remember words, using word cards with spaced repetition, and peer-to-peer testing); (3) providing repeat opportunities for strategies practice and development; and (4) self-evaluation of strategies' effectiveness and consideration of their transfer to other tasks (Brown, 2009, 2012).

Having outlined the HCE course and its implementation, Figure 1 illustrates how these components were integrated into lessons, whilst sample materials from *Health Care English* are shown in Appendices D and E.

Sample lesson 1	**Sample lesson 2**
Ice-breaker e.g. *Make a circle in order of your names, from A to Z*	***Ice-breaker*** e.g. *Make a circle in order of your birthdays, January to December*
Warm-up e.g. *Chat with the people next to you for 3 minutes*	***Warm-up*** e.g. *Chat with the people next to you for 3 minutes*
Doctor-patient scenario e.g. Outpatient reception desk (Appendix D) •Prediction task •Listening gap-filler task •Language focus •Language practice •Role-play •Language review, including error correction & feedback	***VLS instruction*** e.g. Medical English word parts •Introduction and examples •Matching task •Problem-solving task
	Doctor-patient scenario e.g. Assessing and treating a common cold (Appendix E) [Linked tasks are used to achieve learning objectives, following either PPP methodology or a TBLT cycle]
VLS instruction e.g. Reflection, evaluation, and goal-setting •Reflection and evaluation of previous and current VLS •Goal-setting e.g. *How will you learn these 20 medical English department names for next week's test?*	***Medical English vocabulary test (Japanese to English)***
	VLS reflection, evaluation, and goals *e.g. How did you actually study for the test*

	(i.e. what did you do, where, when, how often, who with, etc)? In what ways were you successful? What didn't work so well? What will you do the same or differently next time?

Figure 1: Sample lesson stages illustrating the integrating of VLS instruction into the medical English course.

Next we will examine how the course was perceived by the students based on course evaluation surveys.

Course Evaluations

In addition to my own observations and reflections, students completed course evaluation surveys in the last class at the end of each semester for the three academic years I taught, 2008-9 (n = 26), 2009-10 (n = 27), and 2010-11 (n = 25). Despite changes due to program innovations each year, often based on student feedback, some notable observations can be made. This section will first consider first semester feedback before moving onto the second semester.

First Semester Student Feedback

Table 3 shows how students rated key course components for the first semester in terms of usefulness, based on a five-point Likert scale (1 = It was NOT useful, 2 = It was not very useful, 3 = It was somewhat useful, 4 = It was very useful, 5 = It was extremely useful).

Table 3. First semester *Health Care English* course evaluations (2008-2011)

Key course components	**2008-9**	**2009-10**	**2010-11**
Textbook: *Health Care English @110*	N/A	4.41	4.22
Role-playing doctor-patient scenarios	3.87	4.19	4.00
Medical English vocabulary tests (Japanese to English translation)	4.13	4.59	4.39
English-only medical English vocabulary tests	4.04	4.52	3.93
Weekly 5-minute self-evaluation	3.13		3.21
Grading explanation and final self-evaluation	N/A	3.81	
Grading sheet explanation			3.80

Final self-evaluation	3.67

Notes: (1) Shaded cells indicate course components that were not included in a given year. (2) N/A indicates data not collected. (3) Course components are detailed in Brown (2009, 2012).

The results in Table 3 indicate that the students found most aspects of the first semester course very useful, particularly as they related to medical English content knowledge and doctor-patient communication, e.g. the textbook, role-plays, and medical English vocabulary tests. However, despite being explicit about the purpose and value of self-evaluation and goal-setting, some students found the weekly five-minute written self-evaluation (completed in class or for homework) troublesome or meaningless, even though others found it very useful. As with other classes I've taught, albeit in different contexts, many students say that they find reflection, self-evaluation, and goal-setting beneficial and motivating. On the other hand, some feel that it is a waste of time and prefer the teacher to tell them what to learn, typically in order to do well on tests, and think the teacher should be solely responsible for evaluation and grading. In general, self-evaluation, reflection, and goal-setting is new to most of my students and it is not a common educational practice in Japan. In contrast, however, the final self-evaluation and explanation of grading criteria (conducted in class) were generally well-received. Self-evaluation was included in the course primarily to promote reflection and autonomy, and additionally inform the grading process. As a teacher, I found students self-evaluations insightful although I'm not certain as to how much they genuinely facilitated greater learner autonomy.

Meanwhile, the results of student feedback in Table 4 indicate that they found most aspects of the VLS program between somewhat useful and very useful:

> 2010-11 student: *In this class, you tell us many strategies of studying English* [i.e. learning strategies], *and it is useful to study. Thank you very much.*

In addition, the VLS program was found to raise students' awareness of how they learned words, and possibly increase their depth of medical English vocabulary knowledge and the ability to use words productively (Brown, 2012).

Table 4. First semester VLS program evaluations (2008-2011)

VLS program components	2008-9	2009-10	2010-11
Reflection and goal-setting	N/A	3.37	3.21
Vocabulary knowledge scale (VKS) to evaluate one's depth of medical English vocabulary			3.21
Peer-to-peer testing using VKS			3.57
Vocabulary learning sheets (cf. vocabulary notebooks) with spaced repetition for review	3.13	3.85	
Word cards with spaced repetition for review			3.61
Medical English word parts		4.00	3.82
Guessing meaning (of diseases and disorders) from context using gestures and explanations		3.96	N/A
Combining strategies, including using five senses, to learn and remember words	3.68	3.81	3.62
Medical procedures (personalisation task)	3.64		
Medical procedures (basic research assignment)		4.00	3.78

Notes: (1) Shaded cells indicate course components that were not included in a given year. (2) N/A indicates data not collected. (3) VLS program components are detailed in Brown (2009, 2012).

VLS explicitly connected to medical content appeared to be most valued, e.g. medical English word parts, guessing meaning (of diseases and disorders) from context using gestures and explanations, and medical procedures research assignment. Other vocabulary learning strategies (vocabulary learning sheets, word cards, peer-to-peer testing, combining strategies, and the personalisation task) were also generally considered useful. However, reflection and goal-setting was only perceived as somewhat useful on average, with students opinions quite divided:

2008-9 student: *I did this for the first time*.

2008-9 student: *I can't understand why I have to do it, sorry*.

2008-9 student: *We can recognize how we learn English.*

2008-9 student: *It made me think about doing the best.*

As noted above, self-evaluation, reflection and goal-setting were new to most students. Thus unfamiliarity and the lack understanding regarding their purpose may have explained why several students thought they were not very useful, despite my explanation of some of the benefits of setting clear goals, reflecting, and evaluating.

Student feedback from open-ended questions

Students' written answers to open-ended questions (added to the survey in 2009-10), also revealed that 'the best things about the course' were the doctor-patient role-plays, learning medical English, and having vocabulary tests (although the latter was also cited as being the worst thing). In 2010-2011, results were very similar but students emphasised communicating in English as well as doctor-patient role-plays, learning medical English vocabulary, and vocabulary tests. On the other hand, with regards to 'the worst thing about the course', four students expressed having difficulty speaking English in class, two found listening hard, two mentioned medical vocabulary, and one said the course was demanding. However, 14 out of 25 students said the worst thing was 'nothing', perhaps reflecting the high degree of overall satisfaction with the first semester course.

Second Semester Student Feedback

The second semester course did not have any explicit focus on vocabulary learning strategies (except for goal-setting in 2009-10) because it was felt that the first semester gave students the time and opportunity to explore the strategies that worked best for them, and the demands of the course itself meant there was relatively little extra room in the syllabus. However, in response to student feedback in the first semester of 2010 expressing a desire to maintain and improve everyday English, five-minutes of free conversation was added as a warm-up at the start of most classes. Table 5 shows that, except for weekly self-evaluations in 2008-9 and 2009-10, the overall course and almost all key components were highly evaluated in terms of usefulness.

Table 5. Second semester *Health Care English* course evaluations (2008-2011)

Key course components	2008-9	2009-10	2010-11
Textbook: *Health Care English @210*	4.39	4.27	4.40
Listening tasks for doctor-patient interviews	N/A	N/A	4.12
Role-playing doctor-patient scenarios	4.21	4.19	4.44
Medical English vocabulary tests (Japanese to English translation)	4.50	4.45	4.52
English-only medical English vocabulary tests	4.00	4.12	4.40
Free conversation			4.40
Goal-setting for the semester	N/A	3.67	N/A
VLS reflection and goals		3.80	N/A

Weekly self-evaluation	3.21	3.31	3.72
Grading explanation and final self-evaluation	N/A	3.64	3.80
The overall course	N/A	4.24	4.40

Notes: (1) Shaded cells indicate course components that were not included in a given year. (2) N/A indicates data not collected.

As shown in Table 5, the textbook, listening tasks, and role-plays were considered very or extremely useful by almost all of the students, together with medical English tests and free conversation. Goal-setting, reflection and evaluation tasks were felt at least somewhat useful by most students, although as per the first semester, opinions were divided; and even though 2010-2011 students evaluated them as notably more useful than their predecessors, I can only speculate as to the reasons why. For example, perhaps I was better able to convey the benefits more effectively, or perhaps there was a halo effect due to students' higher overall satisfaction with the course. In some ways, I was pleased that my decision to persevere with one of the least popular course components seemed to have paid off, but on the other hand, I am admittedly no more enlightened. So, whilst it is a belief that goal-setting, reflection and evaluation have value and can contribute to learner autonomy, this remains an area for further investigation.

Student feedback from open-ended questions

Written feedback on the best things about the second semester course in 2009-10 and 2010-11 provided further evidence of the value students placed on learning medical English vocabulary and content together with developing English communication skills, especially for doctor-patient scenarios. In contrast, the worst things about the course included having a lot of homework, difficult tests, and weekly self-evaluations.

Additional student feedback

In the optional comments/questions section of the survey, despite several students commenting on the amount of homework and difficulty of the course, typical feedback nonetheless illustrated how the class was considered interesting, enjoyable and/or beneficial for them:

2009-10 student: *It was a little difficult for me so I didn't want to attend this class. However, since I had to study and studied harder than I used to, I can feel fun in this class.*

2009-10 student: *This course made me study hard. I have learned English harder than before. The best thing about the course was medical English word tests. These* *tests made me know many words. I learn to check Internet or dictionaries when I didn't understand. I became to like English more. Thank you very much.*

2010-11 student: *The time while I practiced in this class was full. I could improve the communication ability and the vocabulary got larger. I would use what I learned in this class in the future. To be honest, I thought that the homework was hard, but it was good for me because I could learn English almost everyday.*

Although one student questioned the need to learn medical English in the first year as opposed to general English, many comments underlined the value that students saw in learning medical English for the future:

2009-10 student: *I was able to learn many things in English that will be important when I become a doctor. I want to remember them.*

2010-11 student: *Thanks to this course, I could learn how to talk with patients in English and how to diagnose the patients. I also learned how important talking is.*

Moreover, some students explicitly connected learning medical content with motivation:

2009-10 student: *I was able to learn a lot of things in this class. Learning medical things make my motivation increasing and I could study harder.*

2009-10 student: *Medical English test was very useful to keep motivation because we don't study about medicine in other classes.*

However, one student pointed out that role-playing the doctor-patient scenarios was difficult since they hadn’t learned enough medicine to diagnose patients. Even though we did not expect students to make full and accurate diagnoses but rather focus on the interview process and questioning techniques, finding ways to better facilitate this is an important point for consideration.

Limitations

Having examined student feedback on the course, this section considers some further limitations of the course and this study.

Further limitations of the *Health Care English* course

Level-appropriate materials

Currently, *Health Care English* is only offered to the top two tier classes based on the English placement test. If medical English were to be introduced to students with lower-level English abilities, it might be worth using material that is a few years below their current level of study so that they know the content and can grasp the English, as opposed to trying to learn new content and new language simultaneously (M. de Boer, personal communication, November 13, 2012). For example, Sasajima, et al. (2011) used science topics from UK secondary education aimed at 14-16 year olds.

On the other hand, this year (2012-13), there are about six returnees, and a student who has studied and practiced forensic medicine. Thus, in order to meet their needs, my former colleague is introducing problem-based learning (PBL) on ovarian cancer and breast cancer, following consultation and advice with hospital doctors (J. Surya, personal communication, November 17, 2012). In contrast to traditional teaching at medical school, PBL has also been found to help students develop greater autonomy and make a smoother transition to clinical clerkship (White, 2007) with 'superior professional competencies' (Neville, 2009, p. 1).

Integration within the wider curriculum

In spite of collaboration between HCE teachers, as with many CBI courses in Asia, "…the content is freestanding, developed within the course without specific reference to other classes the students may be taking simultaneously or in the future" (Dickey, 2001, p. 56); thus greater horizontal and vertical coordination between content and language courses could help to improve not only progression from one year to the next but also integration of medical knowledge in English and Japanese within each year of study.

Course assessment

According to Banegas (2012), in a content-driven CLIL course, content rather than language learning should be the primary goal. Thus by evaluating students across four areas (in-class participation, weekly medical English vocabulary tests, homework assignments, and doctor-patient oral interviews) and including both formative and summative evaluation of both content and language skills, the method of assessment seems to be congruent with the course goals. However, in order to maintain consistency with the third and fourth tier English classes, students on the HCE course were graded using the same in-house rubric despite the different course objectives, content, and assessment. This also highlights the difficulty of being fair to all students whilst tailoring individual courses and teaching to meet their needs and abilities.

At this point, it is also interesting to note that in the wider medical profession, "Sensitivity around the recruitment of foreign doctors [in English-speaking countries] has, of course, increased the demand for medical English training - even though most of the language tests used are not specific to medicine" (Salusbury, 2012, p. 17). So on the one hand there might be value in using standardized testing, such as the IELTS or TOEFL, that are required by the medical profession in English-speaking countries. But on the other hand, perhaps there is argument for the medical profession to work with language educators and testers to develop a more appropriate medical English exam, and indeed a national curriculum, that better reflects the real language needs of healthcare professionals in Japan (cf. Rodis, et al., 2011). Meanwhile, the more local development of medical English CLIL courses, such as in this study, by Rodis, et al. (2011), and Sasajima, et al. (2011), may offer insights into the associated challenges and successful practices, and additionally provide opportunities for larger scale studies across contexts.

Limitations of the study

There were several factors that may undermine the reliability and validity of the data as well as make it difficult to interpret the results. These are outlined below and some suggestions for improvement are made.

Small scale action research

This classroom-based action research was a small-scale study so findings are context specific and not generalisable. Moreover, differences between individual students, group dynamics and myself could collectively lead to notable differeces between even just the morning and afternoon classes on the same day, and particularly in a small-scale study, these factors may be quite significant. However, as CLIL is being implemented in more contexts, the issues need to be better understood by practitioners as well as researchers. It is hoped that studies such as this can not only illuminate but also help identify possible areas for large-scale experimental research. Moreover, there is also growing argument for teachers to research and innovate their own context, adapting ELT approaches and methodologies to suit local needs (Muller, Herder, Adamson, & Brown, 2012).

Limitations with the survey

Student feedback was anonymous for both semesters of 2008-9 and the first semester of 2010-11, but not for 2009-10 or the 2010-11 second semester. In 2008-09 and 2010-2011 I taught the second tier in first semester then the top tier students in second semester, but in 2009-2010 I taught the top tier in first semester then second tier classes in second semester. These factors may have somewhat confounded the results, although it is not discernable from the data.

The surveys used were admittedly crude instruments. Firstly, the descriptive categories attributed to the 5-point Likert scale were not really equal or even typical. In hindsight, it would have been better to change a rating of 4 from ‘very useful’ to ‘useful’ and 5 from ‘extremely useful’ to ‘very useful’. That said, it is difficult to ascertain if the qualitative labels or scores were more important from the students’ perspectives. Secondly, the surveys were also modified slightly from year to year, albeit in part to reflect changes in the course content or areas that I wished to better understand as a teacher-researcher. Third, the reasons behind many of the answered could not be determined by numerical scores or written responses alone. For example, why were tests rated so highly? Follow-up interviews using students’ first language where necessary, may have helped to explain and provide greater insights, together with providing the original surveys in Japanese.

Differences in first and second semester course instructors

To what extent does the teacher make a difference to the course evaluation? And in our context, what was the effect of swapping students each semester? Whilst it can naturally be assumed to be significant, it would have perhaps been insightful to administer the same survey to students taught by my colleague, whose students consistently spoke highly of out of class in terms of his knowledge, teaching skills, and how personable he is.

One hopes that as a result of experience and teacher development as well as program innovation, the course content and delivery should improve, and this may be reflected by the higher evaluations for the second semester 2010-11 course. Personally, I felt a huge difference between teaching the course for the first time in 2008-9 (when I was juggling learning medical content myself, finding an effective teaching approach in a new context, and conducting classroom-research) in comparison to 2010-11 when I was more comfortable and confident with the content, classroom activities, and environment.

Conclusions

Despite the limitations and issues discussed, the CLIL *Health Care English* course was highly appraised by medical students in 2008-9, 2009-10, and 2010-11, who found it relevant, interesting, and motivating. In addition to the textbooks being well-regarded and providing model language, role-plays were strongly felt to facilitate students’ ability to communicate in class as well as with future potential patients, thus achieving their primary aim. The importance of medical English vocabulary was self-evident, and the vocabulary learning strategies program raised learners’ awareness of their strategies use, facilitating the learning process and perhaps helping to foster autonomy.

On the other hand, it is important to be aware of the issues faced by students and provide appropriate scaffolding, encouragement and support. Teachers, too, may initially face a steep learning curve with medical content knowledge or need to change their teaching approach to implement CLIL effectively. Meanwhile, curriculum developers might benefit from (a) coordinating horizontally across the curriculum so that content learning in different classes is more complementary, and (b) coordinating vertically through the curriculum so that there is smoother progression from one year to the next. Finally, effective ways to measure both content and language learning need to be developed so that the course assessments and student evaluations match the course goals and objectives.

Looking beyond the *Health Care English* course to the wider medical profession in Japan, it is promising to see a call for a nationwide needs analysis of dental English in Japan with a view to developing a core course to be integrated into the wider dental curriculum and national board examinations (Rodis, et al., 2011). Thus as CLIL gains more attention, one hopes that its potential for developing internationally-minded and capable healthcare professionals in Japan might be more fully realised. In order to do this successfully, in addition to the growing CLIL literature, it also seems wise to draw on the CBI literature. It is eye-opening to see that many of the points touched on in this paper have also been raised previously by Butler (2005) who further observed:

> The effectiveness of CBI appears to be influenced by a number of factors including: (a) program setting and curriculum, (b) characteristics of teachers, (c) characteristics of learners, and (d) resource availability. (p. 231).

Thus, to implement CBI in EFL contexts, Butler (2005) urges “careful consideration and tremendous commitment by teachers, administrative staff, and others” (p. 233) whilst stressing the importance of (a) needs analysis, (b) sufficient support for teachers, (c) careful monitoring of student learning, and (d) securing sufficient resources. And arguably, the same remains true for CLIL.

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Appendix A: Diseases and Disorders Test 1 (Japanese to English)

1. 肺炎	**6.** 痔、痔疾	**11.** アルツハイマー病	**16.** 胃潰瘍
2. 膵（臓）炎	**7.** 白血病	**12.** 虫垂炎	**17.** （片）頭痛
3. 十二指腸潰瘍	**8.** てんかん	**13.** 胆石	**18.** 心筋梗塞
4. 髄膜炎	**9.** 不整脈	**14.** A 型肝炎	**19.** 脳卒中
5. 過敏性大腸	**10.** 貧血症	**15.** 狭心症	**20.** (気管支) 喘息

NAME:_________________ STUDENT NUMBER:_______

For each Japanese word above, write the English on the lines below.

1 ____

2 ____

3 ____

4 ____

5 ____

6 ____

7 ____

8 ____

9 ____

10 ____

11 ____

12 ____

13 ____

14 ____

15 ____

16 ____

17 ____

18 ____

19 ____

20 ____

Appendix B: Medical Procedures Test (English only)

Name: ___________________________ **Student #: _________**

Use each of these words once in Section A and once in Section B:

an X-ray	*an EKG/ECG*	*an ultrasound*	*(an) endoscopy*	*an MRI scan*
barium	*a laxative*	*a prescription*	*a blood test*	*a urine sample*

A) Definitions

1 __________ is a piece of equipment that records electrical changes in your heart.

2 __________ is used to produce a picture of the inside of someone's body that uses a strong magnetic field and radio waves.

3 __________ is a photograph of part of the inside of the body that shows bones and some organs.

4 __________ is a commonly used medical examination used to check if a person has a disease or medical problem.

5 __________ is taken from patients to see if they have a disease or medical problem.

6 __________ is a medical process that uses this type of sound to produce an image of something inside your body.

7 __________ is a medicine or something that you eat that makes your bowels empty easily.

8 __________ is (1) a piece of paper that the doctor writes so that a patient can get the medicine they need from a pharmacist; (2) a particular medicine or treatment ordered by a doctor for a sick person.

9 __________ is a medical procedure that allows a camera to be put inside the body.

10 __________ is a soft, silvery-white metal that is given to patients before an X-ray.

B) Language in use

1 Phil was taken to hospital for ________ of his skull after he was hit with a cricket ball.

2 The nurse gave the patient __________ to check for STDs (Sexually Transmitted Diseases).

3 The patient's heart was monitored using ________.

4 The pregnant woman was given __________ to examine her baby.

5 The doctor asked the patient to swallow some __________ before her X-ray.

6 I need to go to the drug store to get __________ filled.

7 The nurse gave the patient a cup and asked for __________ so that they could run some tests.

8 The leukemia patient was given __________ to examine his bone marrow and brain.

9 The doctor prescribed the patient __________ to help relieve them of their constipation.

10 __________ was performed to examine the patient's bowels and intestines.

References

Longman Advanced American Dictionary

NHS website: http://www.nhsdirect.nhs.uk/articles/article.aspx?articleId=556&sectionId=1

Appendix C: Chief Complaint and History of Present Illness Test

A: <u>Chief Complaint / Concern:</u>

We begin the medical interview with open questions.

For example, *How can I help you today?*

What's a similar question you can ask?

____ [2]

B: <u>What to Ask to Take History of Present Illness (HPI):</u>

"***T****o* ***D****iagnose* ***F****irst, ask about* ***T****otal* ***P****hysical* ***R****esponse****S***" is a mnemonic device used to remember the types of questions we need to ask. Complete the following table.

T____ of Onset [1]	**D__________** [1]	**F_________** [1]
When did it begin/start?	How long have you had the symptoms?	How many times have you had this before?
[2]	How long has this been a problem?	[2]
Does this happen more at night or in the morning?	[2]	
Provokes or p________ [1]		
Is it getting better or worse?		
a. Factors that aggravate?	[2]	
b. Factors that relieve?	What makes it better? What relieves the pain? What helps?	
Region		

Where does it hurt? Which area is affected?		
[2]		
Does the symptom appear in other regions? If so, where?		
Severity and type of pain		
a. Severity	How severe is the pain?	
	[2]	
b. Type	What does your pain feel like? What type of pain is it?	
	[2]	

Total [__/20]

Appendix D: Sample materials from from *Health Care English@110* lesson on outpatient reception desk

Outpatient Reception Desk

A: Doctor B: Patient

A: Hello, good morning. May I help you?
B: Good morning. Yes, please. This is my first visit.
What do I need to do?
A: Please fill out this form.
B: I'm sorry, but I can't read Japanese.
A: That's all right. Let me help you. Please tell me your name,
current address , and phone number.
B: My name is Valerie Wheeler.
A: Sorry. Could you spell your name slowly, please?
B: Sure. First name Valerie – V-A-L-E-R-I-E .
A: (Writing down the name, at the same time 'ECHOING') – V-A-L-E-R-I-E .
Thank you. Could you spell your second name, please?

B: Wheeler – W-H-E-E-L-E-R.

A: (Writing down the name, at the same time ‘ECHOING’) – W-H-E-E-L-E-R.

And May I have your address?

B: I live at 3__(dash) __ 22 __ 4 Daizawa, Setagaya-ku

A: What’s the postal code?

B: It’s 155__ 0032.

A: Could you tell me your phone number, please?

B: Area code (03) 3421 __ 9790.

A: Thank you. What specialist do you wish to see today?

B: I’m not sure

A: What seems to be the trouble?

B: I haven’t been sleeping very well, and I feel so sluggish.

A: I see. I think you should first see a doctor in the Internal Medicine Department.

B: All right. I’ll do that. Thank you very much for your help.

A: It’s my pleasure. You’re welcome.

Outpatient Reception Desk Practice

A: Health-Care Worker B: Patient

A: I need some information from you.
B: All right.
A: Please ___________ me your ___________ .
B: It’s *(your own information)*

1. name 2. current address 3. telephone number

4. postal code 5. date of birth 6. place of birth

A: What ___________ do you wish to see today?
B: I’m not sure.
A: What seems to be the trouble?
B: ____ .
A: I think you should first see a ___________ in the *(your answer)* Department.
B: All right. I’ll do so, thanks.

1 I have a little lump under my chin. It doesn’t hurt, but I’m a little worried / concerned.

2 I haven’t been sleeping well, and I get tired very easily.

3 Lately I have a dull pain in the back of my head all the time.

4 There is something wrong with my sinuses {膿瘻}. I sneeze a lot, and my head feels heavy most of the time.

5 I have a rash all my over body. It's really itchy.

6 I have a backache.

Appendix E: Sample materials from from *Health Care English@110* lesson on assessing and treating a common cold

Assessing and Treating a Common Cold

A: Health-Care Worker B: Patient

A: Good afternoon, Mr. Wilkins. What's the ______ ______?

B: Good afternoon. For about 3 days, I've been having **a** ______ ______ and also ______ a lot.

A: I see. Have you had **a** ______ ______ ?

B: Well, I have had **a** ______ ______ and **a** ______ ______ for a few days.

Confirmation: Repeat what the patient said

A: You have a fever? Please use this ______ to take your ______ ?

B: Uh-huh *(After beep-beep)* What's my temperature?

Assessing the patient's throat:

A: Now, let me ______ your ______. Please open your ______ ______.

Throat Diagnosis:

A: Your throat is **inflamed**. I'll ______ this **anti-bacterial** solution "Isodine" on your ______.

It may taste terrible, but it is good for you.

Asking for more signs and symptoms:

A: When you ______ , do you _______ (**spit up**) **sputum** (**phlegm**)?

B: I _______ **thick,**______ ______. Do you know what's ______?

A: You have a slight ______ ______. But to be ______, could you give ______ **specimen** in this cup?

B: Alright. When will I know the ______ of the test?

A: The ______ will ______ this sputum. Please ______ the clinic tomorrow morning.

<u>Prescribing Medication</u>:

A: The doctor prescribed antibiotics “Zithromac” for 3 days. Please take it ______ ________

________ a day after ______. And anti-inflammation “Loxonin” for your inflamed throat. Take it __________ a day after meal.

B: Thank you very much.

A: Take ______ and I hope you’ll get ______ ______.

Assessing and Treating a Common Cold

A:Health-Care Worker B: Patient

A: Good afternoon, Mr. Wilkins. What’s the matter today?

B: Good afternoon. For about 3 days, I’ve been having **a terrible sore throat** and also **coughing** a lot.

A: I see. Have you had **a cold** recently?

B: Well, I have had **a runny nose** and **a slight fever** for a few days.

<u>Confirmation:</u> Repeat what the patient said

A: You have a fever? Please use this **thermometer** to take your **temperature**?

B: Uh-huh *(After beep-beep)* What's my temperature?

A: You have a high fever **--- 37.5^{0}C**.

Assessing the patient's throat:

A: Now, let me examine your throat. Please open your mouth wide.

<u>Throat Diagnosis</u>:

A: Your throat is **inflamed**. I'll **apply** this **anti-bacterial** solution

"Isodine" on your throat.

It may taste terrible, but it is good for you.

<u>Asking for more signs and symptoms</u>:

A: When you **cough**, do you **discharge** (**spit up**) ***<u>sputum</u>*** ｛**痰**｝

(**phlegm**)?

B: I **discharge thick, yellowish sputum**. Do you know what's wrong?

A: You have a slight common cold. But to be sure, could you give ***<u>sputum specimen</u>*** ｛**喀痰試料**

｝ in this cup?

B: Alright. When will I know the **result** of the test?

A: The **laboratory** will check this sputum. Please call the clinic tomorrow morning.

<u>Prescribing Medication</u>:

A: The doctor prescribed antibiotics "Zithromac" for 3 days. Please take it once a day after meal.

And anti-inflammation "Loxonin" for your inflamed throat. Take it twice a day after meal.

B: Thank you very much.

A: Take care and I hope you'll get better soon.

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Implementing Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) approach to TOEIC Preparatory Lessons

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Bioprofile
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Abstract
Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) has been recognized in the Japanese EFL context since 2011 (Hemmi, 2011). However, the educational as well as the social role of CLIL will be immense in Japan considering the recent low birth rate and increasing number of overseas students at many universities in Japan. It is highly likely that the common classroom language will become English in the near future. One of the strengths of CLIL is its flexibility to adapt various approaches to accomplish a learner's goals. This paper explores a TOEIC vocabulary series of seminars applying the CLIL approach at a major English conversation school in Japan. In these seminars, the teacher plays a role as not only a language teacher but also a content teacher by making the most of his former experience as an auditor at an international accountancy firm. This paper also examines the strengths and weaknesses of CLIL to discuss the results of the TOEIC vocabulary series of seminars. The former includes, first, activating the zone of proximal development (ZPD) and *scaffolding* through cooperative learning and, second, pedagogical flexibility to incorporate *translanguaging*, a strategic use of both L1 and L2 for effective L2 acquisition. The latter contains the required lexical threshold level for effective learning and interdisciplinary issues. The seminars contributed to enhanced learning motivation, *mutual scaffolding* using *translanguaging* among learners, and immediate learning of *content-obligatory language*. However, due to the short duration of the series of seminars, analyses from a longer-term perspective will be necessary. To this end, I put forward reflections on

the TOEIC series of seminars towards an ideal situation－a more extended and structured 6 month course.

Key Words: CLIL, CLIL in Japan, learner motivation, TOEIC vocabulary acquisition, ZPD, cooperative learning, translanguaging, mutual scaffolding, interdisciplinarity

Introduction

In this paper, first, I will examine the theoretical framework, strengths and weaknesses of CLIL. Then, I will explore the TOEIC vocabulary series of seminars applying the CLIL approach and discuss the findings. Finally, I will discuss how reflections on the series of seminars can improve the future TOEIC preparatory course implementing the CLIL approach toward an ideal situation.

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has gained its momentum ever since the rapid globalization and European integration in the 1990s (de Graaff, Koopman, Anikina & Wethoff, 2007). In Japan, on the other hand, the notion of CLIL has just started to be recognized. I believe that the expansion of CLIL in Japan has two important implications. Firstly, due to the recent low birth rate, Japanese universities are competitively seeking prospective students from overseas. Therefore, it is probable that not only the English language but also a variety of subjects will be taught in English as a common classroom language. CLIL will help Japanese learners prepare for this possible future requirement. Secondly, in the hope of transcending the limit of traditional teaching methodologies, Japanese educators have just started to explore CLIL as a new effective approach. According to Sasajima and Ikeda (2012), CLIL can be used as a new approach because grammar translation, audiolingualism, and communicative language teaching were not at all successful. This is also echoed by Wolff (n.d.). CLIL has gained great popularity all over Europe, while “post-communicative approaches” (Wolff, n.d., p. 1) such as task-based and process-oriented language teaching and learner autonomy have often been controversial.

It is more meaningful and fruitful to provide learners with instructions which focus on the integration of both content and language, rather than to teach them separately. “[L]anguage is acquired most effectively when it is learned for communication in meaningful and significant social situations” (Genesee, 1994, p. 3). Also, the integration of content and second language instruction contributes to meaningful ground for mastery of new language structure and patterns, and concurrence of social, cognitive, and linguistic development so that second language learning plays a vital role for an educational context. Furthermore, the integration of second language instruction and authentic content and communication respects the idiosyncrasy of functional language use (Genesee, 1994).

One of the strengths of CLIL is its flexibility to allow various approaches. In this paper, I will explore the case in which CLIL is also effective for English proficiency test preparatory lessons. In my school, I have seen many students from listed companies regularly take TOEIC for their career development. Helping them improve their TOEIC scores more efficiently, I was always thinking that lessons would become more productive if I could link TOEIC-oriented language learning with relevant business content. I believe that CLIL would be an ideal approach to organize a TOEIC series of seminars.

Theoretical framework of CLIL

CLIL is a dual-focused educational approach to learn and teach content and language simultaneously by using an additional language (Mehisto, Marsh, & Frigols, 2008). As a comprehensive construct of CLIL, Coyle (2007) proposed the 4Cs framework, which demonstrated the interrelationship between content (subject matter), communication (language), cognition (learning and thinking), and culture (cultivating intercultural awareness). It considers association of different elements of CLIL such as learning–association of content with cognition, language learning–integration of communication with cultures, and intercultural experiences. For teacher's strategic planning of language and content learning sequence, Snow, Met, and Genesee (1989) suggested that *content-obligatory language* (language vital for understanding content material) and *content-compatible language* (language teachable within the context of a specific subject naturally and requiring learners to practice additionally) need to be systematically considered. In order to operationalize this planning and to clarify the interrelationship between content and language objectives, Coyle, Hood, and Marsh (2010) proposed *language of learning* (analyses of language requiring learners to access basic notions and skills concerning the subject topic), *language for learning* (strategies for effective learners' foreign language use) and *language through learning* (fundamentals requiring active linguistic and cognitive engagement for effective learning). To qualify as a CLIL lesson, Costa and D'Angelo (2011) argued that, firstly, at least 50% of a lesson time should be given in the additional language. This percentage should be gradually increased up to 90% while allowing code-switching because of the essential function of L1 to consolidate the cognitive processes.

Secondly, adequate quality of content learning needs to be guaranteed. If content learning is deteriorated as a result of simplification depending on learner's linguistic proficiency, the CLIL approach should not be implemented.

Benefits of implementing CLIL

Activating the zone of proximal development (ZPD) and scaffolding through cooperative learning

Vygotsky (1978), as cited in Nyikos & Hashimoto, (1997) argued that cognitive development cannot be achieved by solitary learning, but learning entails more than one person so that knowledge is co-constructed. He developed this notion and termed it the zone of proximal development (ZPD), which refers to the "distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky 1978, as cited in Nyikos & Hashimoto, 1997, p. 507). Fuentes and Hernández (2011) pointed out that collaborative learning is an integral component of CLIL. Yi (2005) demonstrated that learning through the ZPD provides solid ground for cooperative learning.

The notion of the ZPD has been acknowledged in association with that of *scaffolding*, which represents the cooperative behaviors by which an expert can help a novice learner accomplish higher levels of regulation (Guerrero and Villamil, 2000) and lessen his or her effort to search so that he or she can concentrate on learning efficiently (Pistorio, 2010). There is empirical evidence by some researchers that attending to the ZPD and *scaffolding* resulted in positive outcomes. Fuentes and Hernández (2011) argued that findings are shared first in the group, further interacting with the ZPD drawing on a more knowledgeable peer to keep up with all the group members' knowledge. This contributes to learners' mastery of the content and increased confidence.

Pedagogical flexibility to incorporate translanguaging

Translanguaging is the strategic use of both L1 and L2 for effective L2 mastery, whether or not the speaker is completely bilingual. Anton and DiCamilla (1998, as cited in Guerrero & Villamil, 2000) pointed out that inhibiting the L1 use during L2 collaborative tasks may not be pedagogically beneficial since the adaptation of critical psychological tools, the essence for collaboration, is discouraged. Cummins (2005), as cited in Creese & Blackledge, (2010) suggested the necessity to introduce explicit bilingual pedagogic strategies for bilateral cross-language transfer.

In relation to the effective L1 use in class, García (2007), as cited in Creese & Blackledge (2010) used the term *translanguaging* instead of codeswitching based upon their notional difference as follows.

> The notion of codeswitching assumes that the two languages of bilinguals are two separate monolingual codes that could be used without reference to each other. Instead, translanguaging posits that bilinguals have *one linguistic repertoire* from which they select features *strategically* to communicate effectively (García, 2011, p. 1).

Baker (2006) pointed out that a deeper and fuller understanding of the content will be fostered, and literacy in the learner's weaker language will be scaffolded by *translanguaging* since it is assumed that *translanguaging* is aimed to cultivate full bilingual and biliterate academic language skills.

García (2011) compared the notion of emergent bilinguals with that of English language learners to demonstrate the importance to attend to the former. García (2011) demonstrated that language learners should not be seen as mere seekers of an additional language, but as emergent bilinguals, whose capacity can lead to bilinguals as they gain new language practices. García (2011) argued that *translanguaging* helps emergent bilinguals understand and accomplish academic tasks because they are still at the starting point of becoming full bilinguals. The next chapter, in turn, identifies the weaknesses of CLIL.

Weaknesses of CLIL

Required lexical threshold level for effective learning

Eldridge, Neufeld, and Hancioğlu (2010) pointed out that CLIL practitioners have long struggled with the complexity arising as learners encounter the problem to comprehend the content with their limited linguistic resources.

Feldman and Kinsella (2005, as cited in Eldridge et al., 2010) claimed that it should be normal in a CLIL setting that discussions on key lexis are absolutely dependent upon the subject. In other words, introducing key lexical items for the subject is sufficient enough for learners to follow the lesson. In fact, Eldridge et al. (2010) pointed out that imbalanced lexical focus will lead to "lexical deprivation" (Eldridge et al., 2010, p. 82), which eventually hampers learning and teaching.

However, Nation and Waring (2004, cited in Eldridge et al., 2010) pointed out that, for practical understanding of the language, it is fair to possess receptive knowledge of the most frequent 6000 word families. This is based upon their notion that inference of the meaning of new words and comprehension without assistance can take place provided that learners can ensure their prior knowledge of approximately 95% of the words in the text. In line with Nation and Waring's notion, Eldridge et al. (2010) demonstrated that certain lexical threshold level is necessary for successful and thorough implementation of CLIL as follows.

i. Knowledge of around the 6000 most frequent words in English,
ii. Knowledge of the key lexicon of the content area, and
iii. Knowledge of the key transactional lexis of the educational environment, including knowledge of the key lexis used by digital media (Eldridge et al., 2010, p. 82).

This section has addressed the linguistic matters involved in a required range of lexical knowledge. The next section will elaborate on the institutional issues of implementing CLIL.

Interdisciplinary issues

According to Mansilla and Gardner (2003, as cited in Adamson, 2010), interdisciplinarity is work which knowledge and ways of thinking from multiple disciplines are collectively employed in order to foster understanding that a single discipline cannot provide with. Integration of language and content teaching entails collaboration between EFL language teacher and content teacher because the language teacher may consult with the content teacher to identify the special attention to be given to the content that includes specific language requirements, while the content teacher needs to consult with language teacher concerning how to encourage language skills essential for specific content areas (Snow et al., 1989).

However, Adamson (2010) identified ELT and non-ELT academic teachers' negative reciprocal attitudes towards interdisciplinary collaboration with one another. What is problematic is that, Takagi (2002, as cited in Adamson, 2010) identified the fact that many Japanese EFL teachers are reticent to collaborate within disciplines and across boundaries although "communication, coordination, and partnership" (Bronstein 2003, as cited in Lee, 2008, p. 130) are keys for successful interdisciplinary collaboration. As with the issue in Japan, Arkoudis (2006) reported the ongoing 20 year struggle in Victoria, Australia to find the answer for effective collaboration between ESL and mainstream teachers despite their consensus as an unquestionable policy.

What are the causes of these issues? Three major factors can be considered: the institutional constraints and personal restraints, power relationship perceived by ESL teachers, and lack of expert trainings on cross-disciplinary communication.

First, Heintz and Origgi (2008, as cited in Adamson, 2010) argued that the possible obstacles to interdisciplinary collaboration attribute to the institutional constraints and personal restraints. According to Adamson (2010), the former involves the comprehensive rank of the ELT department within the institution depending on if it is acknowledged as an independent department or merged into a bigger one, while the latter can be illustrated that if only compulsory general English is provided or more specialized ESP classes which meet learners' current or future needs are offered is the determinant.

Secondly, Creese (2002, as cited in Arkoudis, 2006) found that ESL teachers' frustration that a fair degree of ownership within the classroom does not seem to be maintained by indicating subject teachers' more ownership of the subject area. Arkoudis (2006) argued that ESL teachers have been concerned about working with mainstream teachers referring to the case that the subject experts hold the authority to accept or reject suggestions due to not only ESL teachers' misconceptions but also respective teacher's subject disciplinary prejudice.

Finally, Arkoudis (2006) suggested that cross-disciplinary conversations are one of the expert skills. Therefore, without training ESL teachers, genuine collaborative practice and their strategic awareness to take initiative within the mainstream curriculum cannot be developed in the currently existing dilemmas between ESL and mainstream teachers. Considering the arguments of CLIL, my research on the TOEIC series of seminars will be explored in the next chapter.

TOEIC vocabulary series of seminars applying CLIL approach

Background and lesson structure

My school is one of the major English conversation schools in West Japan. As of August 2011, there were 219 students. In order to improve the variety and content of the lessons my school could offer, I conducted the needs analysis using a part of the educational counseling and questionnaire by asking what kind of lessons students wanted us to offer. It was determined that the majority of students wanted to increase their TOEIC vocabulary range as a short-term goal.

In light of the results, I embarked on designing the new syllabus which could facilitate the TOEIC vocabulary learning process. Particularly, students had trouble understanding business terms even in Japanese; therefore, I focused on finance and accounting terms, which frequently appear in TOEIC, while lecturing on the relevant content as an auditor myself in the past. Therefore, I played the role of not only a content teacher but also a language teacher. Participant's minimum TOEIC score was set to 500, and their conversational proficiency was between lower intermediate and advanced level. Male and female university students and office workers attended the 4-lesson, 60-minute seminar. Class size fluctuated between 4 and 10 depending on the time of day. The lesson structure is available in Appendix 1.

Data collection and limitation

The method of the data collection was twofold. First, information was collected through direct observation in class. Then, unstructured interviews were conducted individually with all participants in the lobby of the school to elicit their opinions after the seminar. Verbal feedback was given to me personally and voluntarily by interviewees in person. Exact profile of each student and actual TOEIC score improvement data were not made available.

Findings

During the course of classroom observation, the major findings were identified as follows. In Step 2, the students used their schemata and shared their knowledge with each other by referring to the associated news or events in Japanese before I assigned who to start answering. As the seminars progressed, students demonstrated a reduced anxiety and all classmates became one cohesive group. In Step 3, many students used a morphological approach to guess the meaning of words they were not familiar with. It should be noted that the students holding TOEIC scores of around 500 could also apply this approach. On the other hand, some students tried to associate the pronunciation of the new vocabulary with that of the previously acquired vocabulary which has similar sounds. In Step 5, during my talk, the students working for companies or the government tended to initiate the relevant business news or corporate scandals they are familiar with in English frequently. They even used some new technical terms which were worth sharing in class. Incidentally, all the students could have more chance for extensive vocabulary learning. In Step 6, when I conducted a vocabulary retention quiz using the dialogue and monologue posters, at most, only two vocabulary words per poster could not be answered in every seminar. In Step 7, there were a few students who could not answer. However, when I asked students in which topic the vocabulary appeared, they tried to recall the poster and answered correctly. It should also be noted that their classmates often helped them by providing the summary of the poster in English before I proceeded to help them. In Step 8, after the seminar, in the lobby I found the students autonomously practicing the activity again using copies of the poster and vocabulary list with their classmates. They were also exchanging the information they had missed during the seminar.

Furthermore, according to the interviews and feedback from the students, over all, positive outcomes were obtained from the students as follows. The students were very motivated to understand the vocabulary and content both in English and Japanese since the teacher told anecdotes about his real experience as an auditor at an international accountancy firm. Students also felt that the learning process was innovative and impressive. A Clear image of the vocabulary seemed to be reinforced through learning in the content lecture and various tasks. Tasks were really fun and students could participate actively in the tasks in a cooperative manner. What's more, students felt as if they were learning at a foreign university, thus, intercultural awareness was nurtured, and content learning seemed to be accomplished.

Conversely, as an area to improve, participants claimed that a four-lesson seminar was not sufficient enough in terms of quantity and duration; therefore, a more extensive and structured course for three to six months could be more beneficial to students .

Discussion

Enhanced learning motivation

Especially for business people, the content was business-oriented and somewhat familiar to them. Thus, once the students working for companies or the government almost understood the meaning, they showed a greater desire to talk about the relevant news events while using *translanguaging* in an attempt to convey their knowledge fully. Furthermore, for the university students, their feeling as if they were studying at a foreign university was presented in a positive manner. They became inspired enough to attend all the lessons and excited about the content because of not only TOEIC preparation purpose but also learning about the subject matter per se. Enhanced motivation was supported by the fact that the students were autonomously reviewing and practicing the vocabulary learning activity with their peers after the seminar.

Lasagabaster (2011) found that the CLIL approach is closely-intertwined with motivation. Lasagabaster (2011) pointed out that learners in the CLIL approach were far more enthusiastic than in the traditional EFL classroom because the former can provide more authentic input and a real communicative function. Moreover, motivation is not only sustained but also even enhanced by implementing the CLIL approach. The students' positive feedback on integrating finance and accounting content with the vocabulary which frequently appears in TOEIC demonstrated enhanced motivation. Diverse task sequence also contributed to the students' willingness to participate in each activity. More varied and dynamic tasks that cooperative learning contains contribute to learner's genuine interest in the learning process. Moreover, as Ehrman and Dörnyei (1998) stated, cooperative learning nurtures the joy of collaboration in a cohesive group, which entails autonomous learning environment and immediate feedback available from the classmates through promotive interaction.

Mutual scaffolding using translanguaging

From the early stage of this project, the students were helping each other by suggesting possible answers. In the latter part of the lessons, classmates often helped each other by giving summaries of the posters in English, before I could offer assistance. More knowledgeable students introduced the relevant news events, concepts, and other key words. This provided classmates with the opportunity not only to learn extra vocabulary, but also to strengthen their understanding of the target vocabulary from a different viewpoint. The original concept of *scaffolding* posited that "*a single, more knowledgeable person* . . . helped an individual learner by providing him or her with exactly the help he or she needed to move forward" (Bruner, 1975, as cited in Puntambekar & Hübscher, 2005, p. 2). However, a more knowledgeable person does not have to be a teacher, but learners mutually facilitate their learning (Donato 1994, as cited in Guerrero and Villamil 2000). Unlike traditional tutor-learner settings, Donato (1994, as cited in Guerrero and Villamil 2000) found the notion termed *mutual scaffolding* among 3 novice L2 learners of French. His findings displayed that, irrespective of their linguistic abilities, not only did they scaffold each other, but also demonstrated higher linguistic improvements than they would have achieved by individual learning. From a sociocultural viewpoint, Guerrero and Villamil (2000) pointed out that, despite the fact that communicative and grammatical inaccuracy exist among learners, they always attempted to co-construct their own system to get their messages across in L2. Also, as Creese and Blackledge (2010) stated, *translanguaging* encouraged them to interact with peers often and reduce the initial anxiety. *Translanguaging* demonstrated the capacity to engage participants, fostered the recognition that all languages are necessary to convey and negotiate meaning, and facilitated the tasks to move smoothly by allowing learners' simultaneous literacies and languages.

Contribution to immediate learning of content-obligatory language

At most, in Step 6, the students could not answer only two vocabulary words per dialogue or monologue poster in which five target vocabulary words were embedded. However, in Step 7, they tried to recall the poster in which the target vocabulary appeared and answered correctly. I believe that the following multiple pedagogic methods contributed to this positive outcome. First, students learned content-obligatory words which are embedded in the contextualized poster. From both a psychological and linguistic perspectives, it is vital that vocabulary be learned in context, since words in a meaningful context facilitate their *semantization*, which represents "a continuing process of getting acquainted with verbal forms in their polysemous diversity within varying contexts" (Beheydt, 1987, p.56). It is encouraged that content should be extensive, which arouses greater cognitive support for the *semantization*, while context can be a text or a sentence (Beheydt, 1987). Second, students also have exposure to my English narratives which contain some target vocabulary words in order to increase the frequency of encounter to the target vocabulary as well as make the story presented in an interesting way for attracting learners' attention. Guessing the meaning from my narratives also contributed to foster the students' deeper understanding of the new vocabulary. A teacher-provided narrative helped facilitate recall of the L2 word forms and meanings from episodic memory (Prince, 2012). Furthermore, emotions exert a direct influence on attention. Therefore, by drawing learners' attention while presenting the vocabulary in an interesting manner, learners' retention of a word can be accomplished (Oxford & Scarcella, 1994). Third, vocabulary acquisition can be facilitated by associating the vocabulary with the summary of the poster, which requires mental imagery enhancement and extensive cognitive engagement. Kosslyn, Cacioppo, Davidson, Hugdahl, Lovallo, Spiegel, and Rose (2002, as cited in Dörnyei, 2009) argued that human's response to mental images is analogous to visual ones. An imaginative conceptual activity needs to be operationalized in order for the *semantization* process to be activated (Beheydt, 1987). Rohwer (1970, as cited in Beheydt, 1987) proposed *mental elaboration* to this end. Craik and Lockhart (1972, as cited in Beheydt, 1987) found that an elaborative activity such as attempts to imagine it and relate it to other familiar things led to a significantly improved performance of recall. They suggested that the elaborative activity appeared to transfer the learning to long-term memory. Finally, the sequence of activity is designed so that the students can have at least eight-exposures to each target vocabulary. Nation (2001, as cited in Eldridge et al., 2010) suggested that 10-12 exposures to a word are necessary before remembering it. Eight-time exposure does not seem to be enough, but is close to Nation's point. I confirmed learner's autonomous learning after class. Therefore, I believe that 10-12 exposures will be attainable if learner autonomy outside the classroom and pedagogic attempts to present the target vocabulary recurrently in the subsequent lessons are maintained. However, Eldridge et al. (2010) demonstrated that, considering the receptive nature of lexis discussed earlier, it does not seem to be sufficient enough to accomplish the real objective of CLIL, which is basically designed to provide learners with highly communicative space and encourage fluent use in speaking or writing. In addition, “the 4 +1+ 1formula” (Carpay 1975, as cited in Beheydt, 1987, p. 63) was proposed to demonstrate the importance to learn new vocabulary in four different contexts in class. Also, it should be introduced at least once in each of the three following lessons. In relation to Carpay’s formula, Herman Ebbinghaus’s (1985, as cited in Beheydt, 1987) *distributive learning* is worth considering, which refers to the longer-term effect when the given amount of practice is distributed rather than massed. In vocabulary learning, the *semantization* will be facilitated if the exercise is spread out over several lessons and if the vocabulary is constantly repeated in class (Beheydt, 1987). The next chapter will reflect on the seminar series and discuss how better syllabus design can be implemented towards an ideal situation.

Reflections on the series of seminars: towards an ideal situation

Reflecting on the series of seminars, I suggest a 24 lesson extended TOEIC prep course while I am lecturing on accounting and finance additionally using “FINANCE ” (Clark & Baker, 2011) as pieces of activities and “CPA Examination Review 1999” (Delaney, 1998) as an instructional tool. Based on the positive feedback on the series of seminars, in every odd number lesson, *content-obligatory languages* are taught following the same structure. Alternatively, in every even number lesson, more proactive activities such as speaking and writing are implemented. I assume that good retention of the *content-obligatory language* facilitates the even number lessons. CLIL lesson plan reflected upon the series of seminars can be seen in Appendix 2.

In accordance with the 4Cs, first, content is highly relevant to TOEIC since it particularly requires learners to develop business oriented communicative competence. Therefore, the lesson objectives are shared among all parties involved. Second, learner’s intercultural awareness will be stimulated while the teacher talks about his own experience as an expert auditor before. Third, based on the *content-obligatory language* taught in the previous lesson, activities such as having learners classify balance sheet accounts (e.g. inventory, accounts receivable and payable) and discuss ethics of an independent auditor will lead to learner’s cognitive development. Finally, communication is encouraged while learners are discussing corporate scandals in a cooperative learning setting. The teacher appropriately scaffolds learners to activate their ZPD. Since this is a suggested plan for an ideal situation, balancing cognitive and linguistic demands has to be continuously attended to and arranged depending on learner's progress.

To improve the weaknesses of the CLIL approach, my perspectives are as follows. The odd number lessons will also help build up *content-compatible languages* since I elicit synonyms and write useful lexical items which learners utter on the white board. Due to the minimum entry requirement set at a TOEIC score of 500, learners are likely to acquire the most frequent 6000 word families. In regards to the interdisciplinary issues, it still seems to be a challenge. However, I suggest the language teacher attempts to learn the subject as a valuable opportunity for teacher development. Furthermore, the discussion of collaboration needs to be gradual between the language teacher and the content teacher. As Crandall (1998) stated, it is reasonable for teachers to review others' texts and materials as a starting point. Then, peer observation and mutual feedback contributes to collaborative findings. It should be noted that teachers' focus must be paid to the common learners so that they can attend more to student learning than their own effectiveness. It is my view that, if the content teacher is not available, the language teacher may independently research and teach, for learners benefit from not only his correct pronunciation and intonation but his learning process of the content as a good model.

Conclusion

In conclusion, CLIL can be an effective approach not only for regular school curriculum but also for language proficiency preparatory courses. As examined in the theoretical framework of CLIL, the 4Cs Framework is one of the key tenets to prepare CLIL lesson plans. It facilitates teachers to embed content, communication, cognition, and culture together in the EFL classroom context. This research demonstrated that the CLIL approach activated learner's ZPD and *mutual scaffolding* through cooperative learning. It also fostered learners' active engagement in class by implementing *translanguaging*, enhanced learners' motivation, and contributed to immediate target vocabulary learning mainly through teacher-provided narratives and elaborative mental activities. Conversely, it theoretically entails interdisciplinary issues and minimum lexical threshold level. However, my research and reflections on the research should contribute to help learners acquire the most frequent 6000 word families. In addition, language teachers will reconsider the benefits of teacher development and seek gradual collaboration strategies to content teachers.

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Appendix 1

Lesson Structure of TOEIC vocabulary seminar series

	Activity	**Principle**
Step 1	The teacher puts up about 25 vocabulary cards on the white board, and he leads the class in choral repetition.	Through coral repetition of the new vocabulary, lexical items are inputted aurally. It also reinforces listening skills for the listening part of TOEIC.
Step 2	The teacher asks the students to pick up the vocabulary cards, so students can guess or state their meaning. Each student reads the cards aloud, guesses the meaning, and answers.It is not a problem at all if the students cannot answer as this in the first try. Students perform this task in clockwise order. Some include loan words which have almost the same pronunciation as Japanese ones. Others contain similar spelling or pronunciation that the students seem to have already acquired.	It should be noted that I put up some loan words such as 'compliance', which the Japanese people also pronounce *'konpuraiansu*'. Therefore, the activity is carefully designed so that students are not overwhelmed and can keep up their learning motivation. In regards to the unknown vocabulary items, I just introduce them with their pronunciation only for consciousness raising.
Step 3	The teacher puts up a dialogue/ monologue poster. Each poster contains around five finance/accounting terms. The teacher first explains the situation as	Students can learn finance and accounting terms in the business context. In doing so, genuine interest in learning can be evoked.

	an introduction to the content of the poster. Then, when it is a dialogue, the teacher and one volunteer student model it. , when it is a monologue the students are asked to read it aloud whilst thinking of the content. Finally, the students need to guess and answer the meaning of the terms in Japanese. Target vocabulary words are highlighted.	The guessing activity in the context may also lead to cognitive development and more meaningful learning.
Step 4	There are several terms that cannot be understood. In these cases, the teacher reads the definitions introduced in Oxford English-English dictionary aloud, and then, the students guess the meaning in Japanese.	Listening skills are nurtured by the teacher's reading of the definition. Answering in L1 will strengthen the student's immediate comprehension of the vocabulary items.
Step 5	The teacher talks about his real experience and professional knowledge as an auditor in the past, in association with the content of the poster. Then, students are asked to name the title of the poster.	Content learning occurs as I associate the subject of the poster with my elaboration on key terms and anecdotes from my professional experience. Real stories motivate learners to be involved in the learning process.
Step 6	After practicing four or five posters, we return to the first poster. The teacher reads the poster and pauses at each target vocabulary item to check students' understandings of the meaning. The students answer in Japanese.	The second practice will be easier and quicker response can be expected. This leads to learner's confidence.
Step 7	The students are asked to make a circle, and the teacher places a pile of the vocabulary cards in the center which are introduced at the beginning of the class. The students pick up a card in order and read it aloud showing it to the rest of the classmates. It should be borne in mind that the students answer not only the meaning, but also the title of the poster in which the vocabulary is introduced.	By having the students answer the meaning of the vocabulary in association with the title of the story, their ability to recall will be facilitated due to the enhanced image of the concept.
Step 8	Reduced copies of the posters and the vocabulary list are distributed to the students in order for them to review at home.	First, the students only look at the vocabulary list and try to answer the meaning. Then, they can strengthen their comprehension while guessing the highlighted vocabulary in the copy of the poster.

Appendix 2
CLIL lesson plan

UNIT2: What is auditing?

<table>
<tr><th colspan="4">AIMS</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">To present lexical items which frequently appear in TOEIC and encourage deep understanding of the meaning in the finance and accounting context.
To reinforce the content-obligatory and compatible languages that students have learned in the previous lesson.
To link the content with the previous knowledge such as news report in the past.
To maximize incidental and intentional learning opportunities for TOEIC by having students immersed in rich business English environment.</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="4">CRITERIA FOR ASSESSMENT</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Teacher, peer- and self-assessment will be used to confirm how well students:
understand what auditors do
become familiar with financial statements
identify the major departments and positions within a typical US listed company
account for the meaning of content-obligatory languages</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="4">TEACHING OBJECTIVES</th></tr>
<tr><th colspan="4">Content & Cognition</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Content
Finance and accounting
Auditing
Corporate structure</td><td colspan="2">Cognition
Stimulate student’s motivation to learn the content by introducing teacher’s authentic experience as a professional auditor.
Elicit past business scandals and news reports in English
Have learners discuss the ethics of an independent auditor
Activating the ZPD by pair work</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="4">Culture</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Identify difference in business practice between Western and Japanese firms whilst listening to the teacher’s talk about his past experience as an auditor in an international accounting firm.
Foster simulated experience as if students were attending a lecture at a Western university.
Become aware of critical thinking process prevalent in the West.</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="4">Communication</th></tr>
<tr><td></td><td colspan="2"></td><td></td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><th>Language of learning</th><th>Language for learning</th><th>Language through learning</th></tr>
<tr><td>Key vocabulary:
● stockholder
● asset
● liability
● inventory
● accounts receivable
● accounts payable
● board of directors…</td><td>● Clarifying the other learner’s comment
e.g. Are you saying that …?

● Reported speech
e.g. He told us that …

● Eliciting ideas
e.g. What do you think about …?

● Showing agreement and disagreement in a nice manner
e.g. Absolutely. Exactly.
I couldn’t agree with you more.
That’s a good idea, but …
I’m afraid to say …</td><td>● Reproduce the story that the teacher has talked about.
● Be conscientious of the words or expressions which learners are corrected.
● Strengthen the memory of the lexical items students have learned in the previous lesson
● Speak using as much new vocabulary as possible when learners are working in pairs to reinforce the knowledge gained incidentally and intentionally.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">LEARNING OUTCOME</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">By the end of the unit students will be able to:
● describe what auditors do.
● draw a simple balance sheet.
● draw a diagram of the organization chart of a typical US listed company.
● raise some famous CEO’s names.
● become critical about business ethics.
● acquire lexical items which frequently appear in TOEIC.
● learn how to scaffold each other with the partner.</td></tr>
</table>

(Arranged “CLIL lesson plan”, cited from Coyle et al., 2010, p. 80-81)

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Learning through in-house videos: how one Japanese college integrates subject content in its EAP program

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Introduction

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is a 'dual-focused educational approach' (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010, p. 1) which attempts to teach a content course in another language. CLIL attempts to interweave language and content. CLIL subject teachers 'interweave language' into their lessons while CLIL language teachers 'interweave the subject' in their language lessons (Dale & Tanner, 2012, p. 3). It offers several benefits; it provides a purpose for language use, puts the emphasis on meaning rather than form, drastically increases exposure in the target language (Dalton-Puffer & Smit, 2007), and results in the acquisition of a higher level of receptive vocabulary and a higher language competence compared to non-CLIL contexts (Catalán & de Zarobe, 2009). Further to these benefits within the classroom, it encourages whole school development and innovation (Dale & Tanner, 2012, p. 14).

This paper will describe an academic listening course taught at Akita International University (AIU), Japan. The course tries to prepare undergraduate freshmen for the reality of the listening and speaking demands of a general education content course they will encounter once they exit the college's first-year intensive academic language program. It does this primarily by having students watch, take notes and discuss videos of content lectures from a commercially produced source, and especially, using in-house video lectures featuring faculty who teach content courses at the institution. CLIL at AIU has allowed language instructors to familiarize themselves much more thoroughly with content areas that are normally the domain of content specialists. Furthermore, CLIL has provided the venue for greater collaboration between language and subject teachers. In particular, it has allowed language teachers to move away from ‘generic’ language and academic skills teaching in order to embed language within content. The instructors in the academic listening course introduce students to the relevant vocabulary, theories, issues and debates specific to various disciplines and train them to actively participate and take notes in interactive lectures.

Institution Background

AIU is a small English-medium liberal arts college located in Akita, Northeastern Japan. It has around 800 degree-seeking students, the great majority of whom come from different regions of Japan. The four-year degree at AIU consists of four programs; English for Academic Purposes (EAP), Basic Education (BE), Global Business (GB) and Global Studies (GS). The college offers two fields of specialization, GB and GS, and students are expected to choose a major sometime during their second year. Students generally take EAP courses in their first year, study BE courses in their second year, go for a year abroad in their third year at one of AIU’s 130 partner institutions in North America (47), South America (1), Europe (44), Oceania (8), Asia (27) and finally Africa (3). They come back to major in GS or GB in their final year.

As all courses at AIU are taught in English, freshmen students enter EAP for an intensive period of study of academic English of around 18-21 hours per week. Students spend anywhere from one to three terms in EAP depending on the speed of progress of their English skills and on their incoming TOEFL score. Freshmen students in EAP are divided into three levels, I, II and III, based on their TOEFL scores. Each level has courses which develop students’ skills in the following areas; Computer Basics (no credit), TOEFL Preparation (no credit), Academic Reading (3 credits), Writing (3 credits), and finally Listening/Speaking (3 credits). Students’ progress in EAP is monitored through a variety of ways; through exams in the component subjects, and through taking regular TOEFL tests each term. To enter EAP Level II they need a minimum TOEFL score of 460. To enter EAP Level III they need to score at least 480 on the test. Students can only exit EAP by earning a minimum GPA of 2.00 in all the EAP component courses and by getting a minimum 500 on the TOEFL.

The effectiveness of the EAP Program as a whole is highly satisfactory. The college on the whole has a 15% non-graduation, or failure rate. That means that 85% of the freshmen students who leave EAP can expect to graduate within 4-5 years. The great majority successfully complete their year abroad and accumulate satisfactory GPAs there (a D grade for any course done abroad is inadmissible, so students must get at least a C for it to be accredited at AIU). Nevertheless, there is some evidence of a difference in the average GPAs students can expect to earn depending on their choice of region. Students who go study abroad in Korea generally get the same GPA there as at home. Those who go to Taiwan can actually expect to improve their GPA with respect to their home average. Students who choose to go to Canada and the USA get a slightly lower GPA there than in their home institution, whereas those who go to Europe receive a considerably lower GPA there than in AIU.

Students normally enter the BE Program in their sophomore year. BE courses range from the social sciences, to the humanities, mathematics, natural sciences and Japan studies. BE builds on the academic and linguistic skills students acquire in EAP. Its courses, along with those of GS and GB, are exclusively content-focused. Indeed, as is the case with some other English-medium colleges in Japan, students' initial period of learning takes place in an EAP/ESL program where the focus is on improving their linguistic skills. Once they leave EAP/ESL sometime during their first or second year, all the subsequent courses they will take tend to be content-focused. Indeed, most content teachers are not trained language teachers and vice versa.

AIU employs both full-time and part-time faculty. There are 17 full-time EAP professors, of which 14 are native English speakers (UK, USA, NZ) and 3 are Japanese. BE employs 19 full-time faculty from various countries; Poland (1), China (2), Russia (1), UK (2), Spain (1), Germany (1), Korea (1), USA (2), Mongolia (2) and Japan (6). GS has 7 Japanese and 2 (USA and China) foreign faculty members while GB has 2 Japanese and 4 foreign professors (China, USA, Taiwan).

Language and Content Integration

While most students leave the EAP Program adequately prepared from a general skills and linguistic perspective, they nevertheless encounter a slight shock when they discover the reality of the post-EAP courses; these are no longer language-focused, being fully content-based. Moreover, BE instructors tend to be content specialists who have no training or awareness of EAP/ESL. Notwithstanding these minor challenges second year students face, most BE faculty believe that most students who take their courses are adequately prepared. However, many BE faculty have made the suggestion to colleagues teaching EAP that more could be done in their program to better prepare students. In particular more could be done in EAP to increase student familiarity with the content, theories and especially the vocabulary of the various introductory courses taught in BE. Moreover, students should be trained to take active part in the class discussions and not be overly passive. In short, there is awareness among EAP and BE instructors that both programs need closer integration in order to ensure a smooth transition from one program to another.

One concrete example of the attempt to integrate content and language is the EAP Level III Academic Speaking & Listening Course. The course aims to develop students' familiarity with various content courses and improve their academic speaking and listening skills. It tries to prepare them to cope with the demands of a typical BE course, which, like the great majority of courses at most universities, tend to be lecture-based, meaning they turn students into passive listeners and consumers of knowledge transmitted by the lecturer. However, the courses vary in that some teachers give non-interactive lectures, meaning they force students to assume the role of passive listeners and consumers of transmitted knowledge, and others may include an element of interaction in their courses, frequently switching between monologues and lively conversations with students. The EAP course described here attempts to prepare students for the demands of both non-interactive and interactive lectures they will most surely encounter in the various programs (BE, GB, GS) as well for the vast majority of courses they will enroll in during their one-year study abroad at AIU's partner institutions.

The course uses the textbook *Advanced Listening Comprehension 3*. The book 'offers students models of both kinds of lectures: the non-interactive academic lecture and the slightly more interactive academic lecture' (Dunkel & Pialorsi, 2005, p. *vii*). The book has five units and each contains two chapters. Each unit explores a different topic; Anthropology, History, Sociology, Communication and Biology. This book was chosen as the required textbook precisely because its contents very closely match many of the subjects students will encounter in BE. Each chapter contains a scripted orientation lecture on the topic available in both audio CD and video DVD format. The audio CD contains three variations on the same lecture (scripted, at a slower speed and with elements of redundancy provided, and a recounting of the lecture by a student). The course explores all the units except for the one on communication (as there is presently no communication course offered at AIU).

The course teachers vary slightly in how they teach the course. But a typical lesson cycle for each unit or theme will last four days. Day one comprises a pre-listening activity where they introduce the topic, activate background knowledge, pre-teach relevant academic vocabulary, and present the structure and content of the information contained in the lecture. For homework they are then given a viewing task where they are asked to take notes while they watch the corresponding orientation lecture from the DVD or listen to it on CD. On day two the class does a post-viewing activity wherein the teacher actively discusses the content of the lecture with them, asks them to recap what they have watched, corrects any misunderstandings, and explores and reacts to the issues raised. Alternatively the instructor can ask students to discuss the lecture in groups while he circulates and checks for understanding. Then for homework teachers assign a text from the book that is related to the lecture they had just watched. For day three students discuss the comprehension questions for the assigned reading and for homework they watch a video recording of a BE professor giving a brief 15-minute lecture on the same topic. For day four the BE professor’s video lecture is discussed in class. The advanced listening course is assessed according to two criteria: vocabulary (75%), where students are given a sheet containing words they learnt on the course and they are expected to define and use them in context, and listening (25%), where students take notes while they watch a previously unseen 15-minute video lecture of a BE instructor in any of the four topics and then answer comprehension questions.

In order to facilitate this academic listening course, EAP faculty approached BE faculty and asked them to appear in two separate 15-minute video lectures to be created by the EAP faculty for use in the course. The instructors are chosen according to their fit with the units in the book. Thus the sociology teacher was asked to record two lectures for the sociology unit, the biology teacher was asked to record two lectures for the biology unit, and so on. One lecture is to be used during the teaching of the course units and the other one is to be part of the final exam. The BE faculty were asked to talk about something they already talk about in their own lectures. EAP faculty made it clear they did not want to impose any extra work on them or have them do anything they had not done previously in their classes. The only condition was that the videos had to be related to the topics.

A caveat, however, must be made regarding inter-program teamwork. I envision any joint effort, at least as far as AIU is concerned, to be largely a one-way affair, with EAP staff doing most of the work. In the case of the listening course, the EAP instructors adjusted and modified their teaching, syllabus and materials in order to ensure a tighter fit with BE, and not the other way around. Given that most BE professors are not trained teachers (in either language or content), it is expected that EAP teachers will have to take the initiative and shoulder most of the burden for any kind of cooperation to be successful.

Conclusion

The CLIL experience at AIU, with particular reference to the EAP Level III Academic Listening & Speaking Course, has enabled a much closer collaboration between EAP and non-EAP faculty than otherwise would have been the case. Faculty benefit to the extent that they begin to see their respective programs in a broader perspective; their course objectives and their teaching start to align more closely with the overall mission of the institution. It encourages whole school collaboration and innovation. Students benefit by getting a taste of several content courses while in the EAP Program. In particular, they learn vocabulary, theories, issues and debates specific to various disciplines and learn how to actively participate and take notes in interactive lecture courses. Lastly, it produces synergies for the programs concerned: students in EAP begin to talk about content in English and those in BE will have acquired beforehand content-specific knowledge and vocabulary.

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International history as CLIL: reflection, critical thinking and making meaning of the world

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Introduction

This paper will describe the conceptual framework behind an elective CLIL history curriculum taught to Japanese and non-Japanese students at an international studies university near Tokyo. For CLIL to be effective it must 'challenge learners to create new knowledge and develop new skills through reflection and engagement in higher-order as well as lower-order thinking skills' (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010, p. 54). Hence the aims of the course, *A History of Japanese International Communication*, are twofold: 1) To stimulate critical thinking (CT) and reflection in students through challenging content, and 2) to balance this with the need to improve all four language skills at a lexically high level (Nation & Macalister, 2010). The two are intimately linked by the student need to cross-culturally share intellectual endeavors and furthermore, to do that in English. As Barton and Levstik (2009) write, history education cannot only contribute to the common good, but can also help forge a common or at least a more empathetic future. It is to be hoped that in a world with so many cross-border problems and misunderstandings, often stemming from manipulated histories, an improved comprehension of international history will contribute to a better future.

The course covers the international history of Japan from pre-history to the modern day; how Japan has been shaped by, and how it has helped shape the world. CLIL provides a powerful tool to promote connectivity (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, 2008) and so normal people’s lives and their connections with the present are emphasised to build a ‘bridge between the students’ own lives and history’ (Mehisto et al., 2008, p. 117). The course necessarily investigates many histories and cultures, especially those in East Asia, to show the interconnectedness of peoples that are physically and culturally close but often separated by ideological and political machinations.

A brief summary of the course: From ancient times to about AD7-800 there was large-scale Asian immigration with technological, cultural and religious transfer to the Japanese islands. The next 500 years were notable for disease, famine and chaos throughout the world and international contacts in East Asia dropped off. From about AD12-1300 international piracy, trade, migrations (both to and from Japan) and cultural exchange blossomed until the 1680s when the Japanese mined gold, silver and copper that supported sophisticated East Asian economies, and indeed nascent European ones, became scarce. East Asian governments turned inwards, focusing on self-sufficiency and protectionism. From the 1750s onwards determined incursion by Europeans disrupted the oriental world order; China, Japan, Korea and indeed other Asian states reacted very differently, contributing to the East Asian cultures, communication and populations we know today.

The course looks at wars (remarkably few by world standards), hegemonies and grand personages but also tries to emphasise little-known stories such as the two Japanese sailors in England in the 1580s and interstate cooperation to deal with regional problems like pirates and Europeans. Throughout, there is an attempt to escape from the traditional idea of history as tied to the nation state and to focus on the larger world context.

Questions have been raised by colleagues about Japanese and non-Japanese students’ ability to deal with potentially difficult historical issues. Sensitive to this, the course does not directly treat imperialism and WW2 as subjects but looks at them instead through issues such as colonization, multi-ethnic Japanese populations and the loss of ethnic Taiwanese and Koreans’ citizenship after WWII. Students seem to cope well with these subjects and often keen to find out more.

Context and Course Design

The approximately 100 third and fourth year International Communication students who have taken this course so far have an English level of between TOEIC 500 and 800. The class is L2 only unless there is no English equivalent word for East Asian concepts, for example “*Wako/Waegu/Wokou*” or “*Bakumatsu*”. Lessons are divided into sections, no more than 20 minutes long, and each aims to integrate all four language skills and CT, as

Skehan (1996, p. 58) writes, educators should “structure the freedom which learners need to have […] above all, by trying to address the issue of attention, or learners’ capacities to focus their attention”.

Homework involves preparation of high-level vocabulary as designated and identified by “The Academic Word List” (University of Nottingham, 2012) from that lesson’s materials. Many words are related to history, for example *warlord* or *shogunate* but as Nation and Macalister (2010) point out, it is important to try to ensure vocabulary has a wider relevance beyond the immediate class, so high-level vocabulary, potentially useful in multiple contexts, for example *self-sufficiency* or *Buddhism* are chosen where possible. Words are then used in multiple ways at various stages in the lesson (Skehan, 1996) and later in the course.

Following Roloff Rothman’s (2011) model, the lesson begins with a mini-lecture of 15 minutes where students take notes. At the end of this they have five minutes in groups of three for brief discussions and to formulate a relevant question about something from the mini-lecture which they wish to pursue further. The group of three has various benefits over a larger or smaller grouping, for example a pair can fail if one student decides not to take part and four can “carry” a non participating student. However, the reason for this grouping size is mainly logistical, a space is left at each table where the teacher can easily sit down and interact with the group on an equal footing rather than towering above or squatting below. This promotes further dialogue and facilitates greater teacher involvement.

Once the question (sometimes questions) is decided upon by the group, it is asked to the teacher in a whole class session of around 15 minutes. This allows students to ask about specific points that interest them and utilize their new vocabulary; some examples of student questions are *Who studied foreign languages in the 17/18th century interpreter schools?*, and *What kind of money was used for international trade in the Muromachi (15/16th century) period?*

The next part of the lesson was inspired by Shahini and Riazi (2010).

1) Each member of a group of three receives a 400-500 word reading from the period of history studied in that lesson to summarize in 20 minutes. The texts are about subjects like *Asian residents of Nagasaki in the 17th century*, *Ranald MacDonald*, the first person to teach spoken English in Japan or the 19th century castaway *Otokichi* whose work helped foster Anglo-Japanese relations (he was also the first Japanese man to marry a British

woman and eventually took citizenship). Students then think of one or two discussion questions.

2) Group members take 5-10 minutes to explain their text summaries to each other in turn.

3) The group discusses and explores the themes with the discussion questions which they formulated in 1) for 10-15 minutes.

Finally students spend 15 minutes writing reflection logs in English about what the lesson meant to them before engaging once more in small group discussions about understandings reached. The aim here is to ground new knowledge in existing knowledge (Black & Wiliam, 1998) using L2 writing and for students to share each other's opinions and feelings verbally, using and revisiting one last time both language and content from the lesson.

At one stage of the course two historical movies, treating the period 1850-1870, are watched, one from the Japanese perspective *The Choshu 5* (2006) and one from an overseas perspective *Silk* (2007). Students then reflect on and discuss the movies together (verbally) and individually (in writing), these movie reflections normally centre on differences of cross-cultural perceptions. One student however chose to analyze the portrayal and exoticisation of Japanese women from a feminist perspective which was unexpected, but telling of the multiple inspirations students derive from this type of CLIL curriculum.

Assessment

There is some debate (Lucietto, 2008; Coyle et al., 2010) as to how assessment should be handled in CLIL; should the language learning or the content goals be prioritized? This course veers towards the content side, gives a nod to the language learning, but prioritizes above all CT and reflection. The grades are formulated thus: Reflection logs and vocabulary homework (40%), two presentations (20%), a participation grade (20%) and a final essay (20%).

The reason for CT and reflection being the largest component is that in this author's experience, without it these students cannot really grasp the extent or meaning of their learning, in either language or content. Furthermore it forces them to engage with CT, formulating their feelings and opinions before leaving the classroom (Black & Wiliam, 1998) or finishing their presentations; despite best intentions it is very easy to go to lunch and forget most of what just took place. Giving CT this weight ensures it is taken seriously, as similarly the 20% for participation encourages reluctant, taciturn or shy students to engage proactively in debate and conversation.

The two presentations involve group research on a topic of the students' own choice, for example *Hideyoshi's Invasions of the Korean Peninsula*, *Korean Embassies to Edo* or *Japanese Influences on European Fashion* and are graded by depth and accuracy of research, quality of language and presentation skills. This group work fosters a peer support culture (Mehisto et al., 2008, p. 61) and further improves the discursive nature of the course; students gain each others' trust and can support each other's learning. As they present to the whole class, they are also in effect teaching each other. Within the Japanese context this interdependent group work philosophy is a core feature of the schooling system from an early age (Sato, 1998, p. 137) but not necessarily in language lessons until recently, so doing this in the L2 may be a novelty for some.

Students choose the modality of the presentation themselves, most often PowerPoint, but photo narrative, speech, *kamishibai* (picture narrative) and posters have all been used too. This multimodality has the advantage of promoting different learning styles and gives the students more creative freedom. It also has the purely practical advantage of reducing the "death by PowerPoint" phenomenon, and retaining student attention for other students' presentations. Most learners state that presentations are their favourite part of the course as they can work independently and research their own interests. Many specifically choose to investigate the darker sides of history; often resulting in extremely novel and thoughtful presentations.

The final essay of between 500 and 1000 words consists of overall learner reflections on the course. This is essentially the final reflection log and brings together CT, language, opinions, ideas and knowledge development as the individual language and history learner has experienced them. The essays reveal that most students believe their language skills have improved, particularly in higher-level vocabulary and the ability to explain and discuss historical topics. Reading, summarizing and public speaking skills are also perceived as sharpened.

Interestingly many students assumed that they knew a lot about history, but having reflected during the course, they realized their relative lack of knowledge and understanding. Predictably, they report being saddened at history's more gruesome moments, but often derive inspiration from particular individuals' actions and periods of great moment. The non-Japanese students who have all been of Korean or Chinese origin to date have reflected deeply on their countries' relations with Japan. The broad historical sweep has allowed them to see the good and the bad but reflect that today's East Asia would be better if people studied the positives between countries rather than focusing on the negative.

For the Japanese students their newfound knowledge about the extent to which Japan is an "international" country seems to be most positive, often stating that history they learned previously has separated World from Japanese history as if the two were mutually exclusive (there was between approximately 1800 and 1970 an academic belief that Japan was secluded during parts of history. This has been recently disproved by academics (see for example Toby, 1984; Jansen, 2000), but is yet to really enter the public discourse). Essays often reflect that history is imperative to understanding the current world.

Finally, students complete a course evaluation questionnaire which collects quantitative data about them and how they feel they have developed their ideas as historians and language learners. It also asks them how the course could be improved. The author uses these evaluations and his own reflections to make modifications to the wider courses themes and materials where necessary (Nation & Macalister, 2010).

Why isn't there more CLIL history?

There are many history courses taught in the L2 but few if any taught as CLIL and to date there 'has been […] little published about the role of history in foreign language education' (Brooks-Lewis, 2010, p. 138). Brooks-Lewis (2010) however found that her Mexican EFL students had overwhelmingly positive views about historical content. The class improved cultural awareness, understanding of the place of English in the world and student motivation. Brooks-Lewis (2010, p. 148) concluded that 'history helps provide this panoramic vision, which creates a foundation for the constructing of learning' and 'the study of language with learning about history is a learner need'.

Shahini and Riazi (2010) in their study of a similar class in Iran agree; they found that encouraging 'students to plunge deeper into a question or set of questions by discussing their understanding of the concepts and reasoning for such an understanding' (p. 171) brought various benefits including enhanced thinking ability and improved L2 proficiency. They found that their students improved speaking and writing skills more quickly than those in a control group and were more motivated to actively participate in discussion. Moreover, they suggested that the challenging nature of philosophical questions encouraged heated debate and hence students were 'eager to stay longer in class and continue the discussions' (p. 175) even following them up in emails to the professors.

So why aren’t more courses of this type taught? Two issues which arise constantly in the literature (reported in, for example Goto Butler, 2011; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999) are that many believe that communicative methods and CT are unsuitable in the “Asian” or “Japanese” context. These doubts may well cause many educators to think twice before putting in the considerable work needed to research and design new curricula. However anyone who is hesitant should take heart at the findings of other studies that seem to suggest that issues with communicative and CT implementation are actually often due to teachers themselves (see for example Nishino, 2011), societal pressures and institutional considerations (see for example Aspinall, 2006), rather than individual language learners.

Conclusion

This article has presented a history class taught as CLIL, its concept, context and learning outcomes from multiple angles. ‘An integrated whole is greater than the sum of its parts’ (Liimets cited in Mehisto et al., 2008, p. 116) and had students separately experienced L2 lectures in history and non-content language classes teaching vocabulary, it seems unlikely that they would have fostered CT skills and engaged with the subject matter in the same fashion. Content combined with CT and language input not only builds knowledge and a critical understanding of past and present worlds, but also L2 skills and transferable skills; the core principles and aims of CLIL (Mehisto et al., 2008; Coyle et al., 2010).

This author contends that history as CLIL could form a valuable part of L2 curricula around the world, in particular when it focuses on relations between peoples and cultures. Despite the lack of systematically analyzed data evidence presented here, it is clear from the students’ general reactions and written feedback that they not only feel more informed about their world but also perceive L2 skill and CT improvement in multiple spheres. This must surely add to their future professional and social abilities as well as to their general cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1986). The author would recommend anyone who has the opportunity to teach or at least investigate history (of any nation, region, language or people) in their foreign language class to jump at the opportunity. It is and will remain one of the highlights of his language teaching career.

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A Case Study of Environmental Management & Content and Language Integrated Learning

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Introduction

Criticisms of content and language integrated learning (CLIL) have raised fundamental concerns on how to define the scope and space of this new approach. Begun primarily in a European context, Mehisto, Marsh, and Frigols (2008) described CLIL as an 'umbrella' term which illustrates a number of different modes of combining language and content teaching. It aims to bring together different language learning avenues including various forms of immersion-based programs, and student exchange where short- and long-term exposure to language exists, as well to emphasize primary, secondary, vocational, and higher learning locations. CLIL instructors are generally seen as presenting various degrees of language and content so that students gain a rich understanding of the subject matter while also reviewing language items in their specific genres and situations.

Yet researchers, notably Paran (2010), have seen this description as being vaguely understood, arguing that this umbrella term has in effect created an illusion since it diminished a clear sense of the parameters of the subject area. It is not known how CLIL distinguishes itself from other forms of content-based instruction (CBI), immersion programs, or the even various forms of English for academic purposes (EAP).

A basic answer to what constitutes CLIL has been presented by Coyle (2005), who shows how a four-part approach covering *cognition, culture, content,* and *communication* takes place. The combination of both content and cognition has been developed by Anderson and Krathwohl's (2001) in a modernization of the classic Bloom's (1956) taxonomy. This new take on the old taxonomy organizes learning as moving along dual pathways of knowledge or a content dimension as well as a cognitive one. Through content learning, students move from factual, conceptual, and procedural knowledge before ending at the metacognitive. Likewise, the cognitive dimension includes remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, and evaluating and ending with creating. These dimensions of learning content while developing cognitive understanding are inter-related processes.

The developmental processes also include a linguistic side. Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010) report that what distinguishes CLIL is how its content-driven approach incorporates language development, rather than viewing each subject matter as separate entities. To achieve this, methodologies of both the content and the language needs ought to be integrated without compromising each other, so that the learning experience of both disciplines is enhanced.

Another aspect which divides CLIL from other forms of language instruction and content is the context of learning itself. Most subject-specific teaching, whether stemming from traditional content-based learning or EAP, places the second language learner in the same locale as the language itself (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 2003). CLIL, as it has been applied in Europe, has primarily focused on the teaching medium of English in non-English speaking contexts. Students learn content and language while residing in their own countries. Given these two aspect of CLIL, one that incorporates integrated methodology along with context, it is of immediate value to understand how these avenues interact.

This current research extends CLIL to the context of Hong Kong, focusing on a new university course titled Communication for Environmental Management (CMT), whereby environmental topics are integrated with English language learning. This course and its parent degree program in Environmental Management and Technology (EMT) are interdisciplinary, meaning that they combine subject teaching in the physical sciences along with business courses. The aim or vision of the overall program is, in the short term, to prepare students to become change agents in business and non-governmental organizations, and in the long term, to make positive contributions towards the environment.

University Language & Content

Similar to the European context, linguistic interaction in the professional world of Hong Kong involves many languages whether they be Mandarin or Cantonese (two forms of Chinese) and English, along with various modalities. Language education in primary and secondary school often include all three of these languages in various degrees, with individual schools deciding which language will be used at the primary instructive medium. In any case, many students still speak Cantonese as their family-social language. Types of schools also vary to a great degree. While some students learn under the new International Baccalaureate (IB) which stresses critical thinking and basic research skills in the context of student-centered learning, most Hong Kong students learn from a more traditional method where teachers lecture to relatively quiet students.

At university, Hong Kong students are typically taught through the medium of English, regardless of their individual degree programs. The most common form of instruction is to implement EAP, whereby specific language centers or departments teach advanced level communication and language skills, alongside very general subject matter so as to cater to a wide variety of degree programs. These skills aim at moving students beyond their secondary education which typically stressed grammar rules and vocabulary and towards more communicative modes of learning so that they would be further equipped to interact with their professors during routine content courses.

CBI in the Hong Kong context typically involves adjunct programs. Here content instruction is delivered by the subject teacher, and language instructors are invited to conduct either workshops or given in-class time to present and develop students' language - often based on improving students' writing. This adjunct CBI typically involves deep cooperation between content and language teachers where the instruction is usually initiated by foreign instructors new to Hong Kong who prefer that their students write essays or laboratory reports, rather than rely on multiple-choice type assessments, as is commonly initiated by local, non-native English speaking instructors whose second language skills may not be up to the task.

A survey of some of the courses offered at Hong Kong University of Science & Technology's Center for Language Education reveal three types of courses:

Curriculum Set	Course Title	Course-Type
1	Technical Communication	EGAP
	English for Science	EGAP
2	Chemical Engineering Laboratory (Report Writing)	CBI/EAP-Adjunct
	Cultures and Values	CBI/EAP-Adjunct
3	Business Case Analyses	CLIL
	Communication for Environmental Management	CLIL

Curriculum Set 1 includes two English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) courses which cover general information related to a wide variety of subjects. Students from numerous disciplines can participate in these courses, since the skills cover broad areas. The second set of course relates to more traditional CBI programs, which incorporate characteristics of Adjunct learning. The courses are often co-taught with content instructors presenting traditional transmission-style lectures, and the language teachers providing seminar-like assistance, specifically in the area of report writing. The final set is the CLIL courses. As discussed in the introduction, these courses integrate content alongside language learning, and are taught by instructors competent to deal with both the subject matter and the language instruction. For brevity's sake, this paper will deal one of these courses below:

Communication for Environmental Management

The design aims of CMT have moved beyond those found in either the EAP or the CBI-adjunct courses as found at the Center for Language Education. The vision for the course (and the degree program) of creating "change agents" within international, multilingual companies, required a new conceptualization of how learning would occur. Students need to cultivate a variety of research and marketing skills, alongside understanding the various ways that the environment might be impacted by corporate decisions, and then devise steps for implementing organizational change.

In order to put this vision into operation, a multifaceted pedagogical approach was applied, one where students learn research and presentation-debate skills, while also covering English language instruction. Students are taught general business case analysis that included an environmental theme on various issues such as alternative energy and global warming.

A Flexible Methodology & Content

Maintaining flexibility in content and teaching methodology was necessary for this new course. While students entering the program had studied English as required in secondary school, not everyone had the sufficient skill to understand many of the materials first chosen. Furthermore, a divide was evident in students' background knowledge, the cultural element as found in CLIL (Coyle, 2005). A limited schemata or knowledge of the world negatively impacted their ability to understand the very nature of an interdisciplinary program. The issue was not simply a misunderstanding of the target language, though students did lack knowledge of some lexical items, a common feature of language courses. The main problem was their basic knowledge; the geographies of different lands, their peoples and cultures, along with a sense of the values which motivated any particular action was missing.

It had been the desire to have students to read specific classics on the environment such as the 'Land Ethic' or 'Tragedy of the Commons,' two readings which are considered fundamental to the movement. However, students simply lacked the language processing skills/ strategies to tackle such items. The cognitive dimension of understanding and analyzing was hindered by the limited content dimension in regards to the limited factual, conceptual, and procedural knowledge (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001).

Similarly, material had been chosen from students' content course in the department of Civil and Environmental Engineering called 'Climate Change Risk Mitigation and Adaptations.' They were required to read the lengthy 'United Nation's Intergovernmental

Panel on Climate Change' Fourth Assessment Report (AR4),' a synthesis report for policy makers.

It was soon discovered that many of these materials, which would be considered manageable for native English speakers, were simply too difficult for students to handle. Not only was the language and lexical knowledge insufficient, many students including those from the IB system also lacked the background knowledge to understand the ideas being raised. The reliance on authentic materials, a hallmark in many language-based courses hindered the learning process. Adaption, therefore, was needed to address content and language issues. Employing specific scaffolding techniques included not only adjusting one's language use, but eventually led to using simplified reading materials.

Given students' clear lack of understanding on a linguistic level and background knowledge and reading experience, the decision was made to shift the course in another direction. Students needed texts which were relevant to their subject area in terms of adult environmental topics, yet linguistically simplified to levels more characteristic of secondary school rather than that found at university. Moreover, such texts needed to cover a variety of genres so as to broaden the knowledge base. Students knew little about their world, beyond their own immediate physical and social environment.

A variety of reading materials were chosen to make up for students' gap in knowledge. These readings aimed at developing students' extensive and intensive reading in order to build their vocabulary and knowledge of environmental themes and genres. This genre-based structure for delivering content covered narratives such as Steinbeck's 'The Grapes of Wrath' as an example of the social issue of environmental refugees, or Dr. Seuss' classic environmental poem for children 'The Lorax,' which functions as a useful introduction into human environmental interaction. Argumentative and academic genres were also covered so as to cover conflicting debates such as global warming, and thus deepen their cognitive development in the areas of analysis, and evaluation. The cognitive developed finally moved towards instructing a research mindset whereby specific environmental topics could be studied in depth and these issues orally presented.

In terms of oral presentations, students tended to perform better than during the reading stage of their learning. Informative and argumentative essays, alongside presentations and debate were well-received by students who generally performed adequately. As expected, those students who had previously studied at international schools at the secondary level tended to outperform other students who lacked this experience.

While students certainly met the objectives of the course in terms of presentation and debating skills, their intrinsic motivation for the topic of the environment dropped considerably. Reports showed that students were too critical, and lacked their original drive and interest in the subject. The youthful interest in making a meaningful impact in society was reduced by the heavy academic emphasis. Students came to the course and the larger program of Environmental Management with a deep-seated desire to put into practice their growing knowledge as opposed to simply studying it.

For this reason, changes were also put in place to alter the course in the second semester so as to focus students' attention on implementation and social action. While the first semester provided basic knowledge on the environment, the second moved towards conservation and social change. A project approach was employed whereby specific topics raised previously in the first half of the course could be acted on in practical ways.

The second semester moved to a project approach in line with the cognitive and content dimensions of moving learning towards creating and utilizing the metacognitive (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001). Thus, students built on their knowledge acquired from the first semester, and moved towards designing and implementing their ideas by creating their own NGOs. The general issues discussed in the first semester were again raised with the new goal of identifying specific problems which could be solved. Students developed their own business plans focused on problems such as recycling and attempted to implement these solutions on their university campus. Along the learning process, students needed to reflect on the process of learning and implementation. The result of this change towards a project was greater degrees of reflection in the content dimension and a deeper interest in the subject area.

Conclusion

In spite of criticisms that CLIL might consist of an illusion through its use of the 'umbrella' metaphor, in the Hong Kong context, CLIL does provide a useful framework for new courses. The educational backdrop for new courses such as that found in CMT must necessary involve various socio-economic contexts, and thus needs, which require innovative teaching methodologies. Flexibility, as described by Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010), is essential in that it reflects CLIL's purposes that the teaching of language and content need not limit itself to specific contexts or methodologies. CLIL's value is that it provides a pathway for language and content to find a level of integration, a level which is more of an ideal that one aims to achieve in any given context. At no point along the way towards the goal of learning ought educators to hold to a pre-determined focus, one which might claim that content and cognition is of more importance than language, or that language need take the forefront. Given these qualifications and admonitions, CLIL does provide a valuable structure for teaching language and content.

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The International Program: curriculum design and assessment for an English-medium economics program

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Abstract

This paper outlines an intensive English-medium Economics program which was established to facilitate the development of various skills and knowledge needed for students to achieve their goal of being successful members of the international academic and business community. The three-year content and language integrated learning (CLIL) program not only provides students with the opportunity to take English-medium economic classes, but through a series of English for academic purposes (EAP) adjunct classes and study abroad opportunities, systematically builds their EFL skills. The skills developed allow students to better understand the English-medium lectures, actively participate in academic discourses, and provide them with a host of useful skills for their future international studies or employment.

Key words: economics curriculum design, adjunct course, curriculum requirements, program assessment

Introduction

Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) was first defined by Krahnke as the teaching of content in the target language with little or no explicit effort to separately teach the language itself (1987). However, CLIL can now be seen to fall anywhere along a continuum from content-themed courses to total immersion (Met, 1999), but the dual objectives of the transfer of content knowledge and the acquisition of the target language remain consistent. Researchers have argued that the focus on content as a medium of language instruction is pedagogically effective (Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Snow, Met and Genessee, 1989) as well as motivational (Grabe and Stoller, 1997).

The benefits outlined above have led to a dramatic increase in the number of universities offering CLIL programs in Japan. According to Miichi (2010), over 190 universities offered English-medium content courses in 2008. More recently, the Japanese government has also taken an active role in this movement through their Project for Promotion of Global Human Resources Development 2012, in which 11 universities were selected for university-wide CLIL curriculum development, and an additional 31 institutions are to offer faculty-specific CLIL programs (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), 2012).

However, the dual cognitive burden placed on the learner under CLIL cannot be ignored (Marsh, 2002). It is for these reasons that a well-designed and proven curriculum that supports effective content-based instruction is needed as the number of such programs increase.

The International Program

The International Program (IP) in the Department of Economics at Soka University hopes to serve as such a model after 11 years of development and assessment. “The IP is an intensive English-medium economics program that provides academic preparation for undergraduate and graduate study-abroad, and preparation for students’ future employment in international contexts.” (Aloiau, 2008, p. 108). The program was recognized for distinctive good practice by MEXT in 2007.

Goals

After two years of initial piloting, "the IP was officially established in 2001 to meet the needs of Soka University economic majors who aspire to achieve one or more goals" (Aloiau, 2008, p. 108). Many students highlighted a desire to (1) study economics-related content in English, (2) ~~to~~ gain high proficiency in English as a foreign language, and (3) ~~to~~ gain the skills and knowledge necessary to study abroad at undergraduate or graduate level, or (4) ~~to~~ work in an international context.

Three Pillars of the International Program

With the above goals in mind, a conceptual framework, known as the Three Pillars of the International Program, was developed for the design of the IP.

The International Program		
Skills	**Knowledge**	**International Experience**
1. English **2. Study** **3. Business**	**1. Economics** **2. Global Issues**	**1. Japan-Asia Studies (JAS) Program** **2. Study Abroad and Internships**

This framework was used to design and develop an innovative and intensive curriculum which focused on buildings students' English, study and business skills, economic and global knowledge, and international experience. The curriculum includes English-medium Economics content courses, intensive adjunct English support, and opportunities to gain international experience. The intensive nature of the program serves to help students achieve their goals within a relatively short period of time.

Program Requirements

The IP curriculum is divided into 3 levels (2 semesters per level) with strict requirements for each. Students in IP Level 1 must attain a TOEFL Institutional Testing Program (ITP) score of 380-500 and are divided into three proficiency levels.

- Pre-IP (ITP 380 – 420)
- Level 1 Intermediate (ITP 423 – 450)

- Level 1 Advanced (ITP 453 – 500)

To continue onto Level 2, students must successfully complete 2 semesters of the IP Level 1, attain an ITP score of 480 – 513+, and maintain an overall grade point average of 3.00 (5 point scale). Level 2 students are divided into two proficiency levels.

- Level 2 Advanced A (ITP 480 – 510)
- Level 2 Advanced B (ITP 513+)

After completion of the IP Level 2, students have the option to take economics electives offered in the Japan-Asia Studies (JAS) Program. These courses are ~~all~~ specialized English-medium economics courses taught by experts within their fields. Students must have an ITP score of 530+ and an overall GPA of 2.7+.

Level 1 (Semester 1)	**Level 1 (Semester 2)**
Academic Foundations	Academic Foundations
Introduction to Economic Reasoning (EAP)	Global Economy Laboratory (EAP)
	Global Economy Lecture (Economics)
Level 2 (Semester 3)	**Level 2 (Semester 4)**
Microeconomics Laboratory (EAP)	Macroeconomics Laboratory (EAP)
Microeconomics Lecture	Macroeconomics Lecture
Level 3	
JAS Program Economics Electives	

Level 1, Semester 1

It was felt that at this stage, the students do not have the English proficiency to successfully take English-medium content courses. Therefore, in semester one, students do not take any English-medium economics courses, but take six hours of English classes requiring 10-15 hours of out-of-class work per week. The focus of these courses is to develop students' general English ability and study skills in order to facilitate success in future English-medium economic courses, and to increase standardized test scores. Materials and content used to build EFL skills also serve the purpose of introducing a variety of economic themes. The main activities involved in the courses are outlined below.

EAP	**Academic Foundations**
Academic Writing	Intensive Reading
Fluency Writing	Speed Reading
Outlining	Extensive Reading
Academic Discussions	Intensive Listening
Speaking Fluency	Extensive Listening
Presentation Skills	Vocabulary Study
Listening and Note-taking	TOEFL ITP Preparation

Level 1, Semester 2

In the second semester, students continue with the above English courses, but also begin taking an introductory English-medium economics lecture taught by a professor of economics. The economics content lecture and related coursework are carried out in English and require students to submit outlines of the class text, complete three economics tests, and participate actively in class discussions. In the EAP classes, not only does the level and complexity of the course materials and activities intensify, but the academic reading and outlining is integrated with the content of the introductory economics course.

Level 2, Semesters 3 and 4

Starting in the third semester, the curriculum moves to a fully adjunct format along the CLIL continuum. An EAP course is paired with an English-medium microeconomics lecture in the spring semester and a macroeconomics lecture in the fall. The economics lectures are taught by an economics professor using an English university-level textbook. The required coursework includes outlines of textbook chapters, discussion on economic concepts, and a research project consisting of a 25+ page paper on the analysis of a business (microeconomics) or the analysis of a country’s economy (macroeconomics) and a 20-minute presentation. The EAP laboratory course is fully integrated with the economics lecture, focusing on the academic outlining of the textbook chapters, essays on economic themes covered in the lecture, and the drafting process for the semester-long research project. The focus clearly shifts in Level 2 from the foundational language skills developed in Level 1 to the application of these skills in a university level content course. With the use of a university level English economics text, the advanced economics lecture, and a research project, the program provides an immersion-like environment with the support of a fully integrated EAP course.

Level 3, Japan-Asia Studies Program

On successful completion of four semesters of IP courses, students have the opportunity to take classes offered in the Japan-Asia Studies (JAS) program. These courses are English-medium economics electives taught by either Soka University faculty, or visiting professors from overseas institutions. Students must maintain a GPA of 2.7+ and achieve the required TOEFL ITP test scores of 530 in order to be eligible. The courses typically contain 70% international students and 30% IP students. As a result, students are able to participate in an overseas-like study environment while in Japan. Students can take more than one course per semester, and can access these courses until their graduation. At this time, students receive no EAP or other English support.

International Experience

In order for all students to further improve their English language ability, as well as increase their cultural or global awareness, the university offers a number of study abroad opportunities.

- Exchange Programs (Credit Bearing)
    - The study term is usually for one academic year.
    - Agreements with ten universities in Australia, the US, Singapore, the Philippines, Thailand and Nepal.
- Recommended Study-Abroad Programs (Non-credit Bearing)
    - The study term is usually for nine months.
    - Seven universities in the UK, the US, Australia, New Zealand, China, India and Singapore.
- Short-Term Study-Abroad Programs
    - One month English language study program.
    - Eight universities in the UK, the US, Australia, Singapore, the Philippines and India.

- Overseas Internship Program: Students spend six to eight weeks with one of several companies in England or Canada.

Program Assessment: Measurements of Success

TOEFL ITP and TOEIC scores. Students who complete two years on the IP obtain a minimum TOEFL ITP score of 530 (out of 677), and many students achieve TOEIC scores of well over 800 (out of 990).

Enrollment and Grade Point Average (GPA). In both 2010 and 2011, over 70% of all incoming freshmen in the faculty of economics enrolled in the IP. Furthermore, IP students must maintain a higher than university average GPA of 3.0.

Percentage of participants in study-abroad programs and international internships. Economics students now typically account for almost 50% of all participants on the various programs each year.

Job placement and postgraduate education. Over the last 8 years, between 20% and 45% of IP graduates have obtained jobs with a company listed in Section 1 of the Tokyo Stock Exchange. Almost 100% of students who complete the full program find full-time employment, or are accepted to postgraduate programs, within one year of graduation, which is much higher than the 2011-12 national average of 63.9%.

Conclusion

The IP is now in its eleventh year and has been successful in both producing results and raising the profile of the university. It continually enables students to successfully take English-medium content courses and gain high EAP, study, and business skills in a short period of time. The IP can only maintain its high standards by having strict GPA and ITP continuation requirements, but these requirements cause many students to drop out of the program. In a country with a rapidly decreasing pool of students, this may seem absurd to university administration. However, only through the support of the strict IP requirements can the program continue to produce results. Therefore, the collaboration between faculty and the administration is central to the success of the IP.

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English education at schools of pharmacy in Japan: meeting curricular needs through authentic ESP materials

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Keywords: ESP, CLIL, curriculum, materials development

Introduction

Pharmacy education in Japan underwent a sea of change in 2006 with the introduction of the current six-year curriculum, also known as the Model Core Curriculum for Pharmaceutical Education (MCC). Until then, the study to become a licensed pharmacist had been four years. Among the changes from the previous curriculum was a shift toward one consisting of general instructional objectives (GIOs) and specific behavioral objectives (SBOs). The new curriculum also, with the four language skills in mind, highlighted the need for English to be taught in an ESP approach, to prepare students for future careers, such as caregivers and decision-makers who can counsel patients in English, be leaders and managers in international corporate environments, and researchers.

With the above in mind, the Japan Association of Pharmaceutical English, JAPE, founded in 2007, began as a small group of teacher-researchers working at private pharmacy schools in and around Tokyo. Since then, it has continued to grow and now consists of members, both English teachers and pharmaceutical sciences faculty, from various universities around Japan. As the founding members of JAPE were aware of the lack of materials to meet these new English education curricular requirements, we then took it upon ourselves to produce and publish textbooks to meet the curricular goals of the newly introduced six-year curriculum.

In this article on curriculum context, we will first share more information on the MCC, and go into more detail on the GIO and SBOs related to English education for pharmacy students. After that, we will explain JAPE's policies in regard to materials development for the teaching of pharmacy English and illustrate some examples of activities included in the textbooks. Following that, we will share the results of student surveys and how that feedback has been invaluable. Lastly, we will talk about our future projects and how we look forward to helping improve English education in Japan for pharmacy students.

Overview of the New English Curriculum

After many years, the MCC was finally drafted in 2002 and it was to cover all subjects that students would study in their six years working toward the new licensing exam to be held for the first time in 2012. The Conference for Studying Pharmacopedical Curriculum which worked on the guidelines looked to medical schools for guidance and found GIOs and SBOs (http://www.pharm.or.jp/eng/curriculum.html.) In short, a GIO is akin to telling you what the point of the study was. The SBOs would be what are referred to in ESL circles as "can do statements." The GIO and SBOs for the years of English study are outlined in *Appendix A.*

As one can see, they have been written in a rather vague manner and that is due to the fact that there was little, if no, input by actual English educators in the writing of them. As such, we have had to interpret them on our own based upon our experience having taught students in our respective school of pharmacy. The flip side to these issues was that it did allow us a certain amount of autonomy to adapt these SBOs to the writing of our textbooks on pharmacy English.

Materials Development

Even with a seemingly detailed framework, we were still somewhat at a loss due to the purposefully vague wording of the SBOs such as:

•Can read simple written sentences and identify the main idea in a timely fashion (Pharmaceutical Society of Japan, 2005, translated by JAPE).

Although it was not clear as to what "simple," written *yasashii* in the original Japanese text, was referring to, we had to define it for the sake of our project to produce materials and thus we took it to mean a level slightly above what the students had studied in high school. As it was our policy to focus on authentic English, we started to look at materials used as content textbooks in the UK, government publications of various sciences and health-related topics, texts for pharmacy students in the US, and other sources for articles to implement. As such, we were able to cover a variety of topics in a text (Appendix B).

But as all four skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening) are part of the MCC, it was necessary to address all of them in each respective chapter of our textbook. As such, a chapter in a text consisted of a reading to evaluate reading comprehension, a writing task, a medical vocabulary drill, and a listening/speaking exercise. To illustrate the design of the textbooks, we will describe a chapter of *Yakugaku Eigo Nyumon (An Introduction to Pharmacy English)*. First, there is a reading passage of 600 words; for example, Chapter 4 has a passage of 600 words on the theme of acid rain, which is followed by a summary exercise with blanks to be completed. Some chapters have comprehension questions, while others have true-false quizzes. After the tasks related to the reading passage, a grammatical rule is explained; in chapter 4, adverbial to-infinitive is reviewed with an excerpt from the text. Then there is a writing section where exercises to learn practical expressions in the area of pharmacy are presented; in chapter 4, the exercises are about how to read mathematical equations such as quadratic equations, trigonometry, and factor analysis. In other chapters, various writing activities related to science, technology, and mathematics are included. Then, in the section Medical Vocabulary, a few technical terms of a medical topic are presented. In chapter 4, six pictures of common medical tools are presented (*Appendix C*). At the end of each chapter is a Listening/Speaking exercise, where a dialog that would likely occur in a pharmacy school in Japan, is introduced. In chapter 4, Yoko, a Japanese student, is talking about her pharmacology exam with an exchange student from a sister school in America. In the end, the aim of these exercises is to help improve all four of the English skills of the students and at the same time meet the needs of the SBOs of the English education section of the MCC.

Even with our many years of experience teaching English to pharmacy students, we all lacked a background in science. As such, we felt it was prudent to include content teachers in the making of the texts to ensure the content was both appropriate and correct. Since many researchers at universities become highly specialized in a particular field, the variety of topics to be covered in the 20 chapters of our texts demanded that a number of professors in a range of studies be included in our group. They included experts in the fields of: pharmacology, organic chemistry, biology, and so on.

In the process of compiling the textbooks, JAPE members, including professors of pharmacy, collaboratively chose materials from scientific journals, websites, and other sources, and wrote drafts of activities related to the materials. Language professors checked the drafts mainly from the viewpoints of language teaching and learning, while the pharmacy professors focused upon the content. What was particularly helpful for the language experts was that the pharmacy professors often helped them by explaining about technical terms and by providing background information about the texts.

Among ourselves, the English teaching faculty, we had our own areas we had majored in, e.g. literature, grammar, phonetics, second/foreign language education, etc…. This meant that we were able to split the writing of the materials covering the four skills amongst ourselves and then collaborate in the editing process. In the end, it was an approach that took time and yet was necessary in the long run to help meet the needs of the students.
Generally speaking, it took us a year to write a text. And to date four textbooks have been published and a fifth textbook is in print. The target audience has been primarily 1st– and 2nd–year students. In the next section of this paper, we will discuss some of the students' responses to surveys which have been carried out on the use of our texts in the classroom.

Use of these Materials in Class and Student Evaluations

After compiling these textbooks, JAPE members used them in their university classes. Although their students were all enrolled in schools of pharmacy in Japan, there were differences in teaching approaches, methods, class size, and other factors in their educational settings. The teachers occasionally contacted one another to share their questions, concerns, and thoughts about the materials by email and recorded their communication to improve their teaching. In order to obtain the students' reactions about the new textbooks, surveys were conducted to find out how effective the textbooks were.

In 2008, 1,305 students in five universities were surveyed to evaluate the first textbook, *Pharmaceutical English 1*, by responding to questions on a five-point Likert scale. We learned that 52 percent of the students found that the textbook was either very interesting or interesting (Takeuchi, 2010). The same percent of the students felt that the textbook was very difficult or difficult, while 44 percent felt that the level was appropriate. It is notable that three quarters of the students rated the medical terminology section as very effective or effective.

After *Pharmaceutical English 2* was published, a similar survey was conducted in 2009 by JAPE members at their own institutions, revealing similar results. Furthermore, Takeuchi conducted a third survey in 2010, reporting that 40% of the students had found the textbook very challenging or challenging; 40% of them answered that studying with this textbook had helped improve their English (2010). Again, 73% of the students evaluated the medical vocabulary section of the text positively. As for the dialogs in pharmacy and hospital settings in the listening and conversation section, 2% rated the activity as very effective, 29% as effective, and 51% as "can't say." The writing section, which includes e-mail writing and expressing opinions, showed a similar tendency; 4% of the students answered it was highly effective, 23% said that it was effective, and 55% chose "can't say." A possible reason for these mixed results is that the teachers did not have enough time to complete all the activities packed in a chapter in the limited class time. Also, the class size, which varied from 30 to 70 depending on the university, might have had an influence on the effectiveness of each activity.

The importance of the teaching of pharmacy English vocabulary was further confirmed in surveys conducted from 2008 to 2010 (Kawano, 2011). For three consecutive years, approximately 60 to 75% of the students evaluated the medical vocabulary section as highly effective or effective. In particular, students commented that they enjoyed the etymological knowledge of medical terms, rather than a theme-based collection of new vocabulary such as parts of organs or body parts.

In the latest survey conducted at four universities in 2011, *An Introduction to Pharmaceutical English*, our most recent textbook, was evaluated by the students to be appropriate in terms of its level and the length of the reading passages (Horiuchi, 2011). The section on medical vocabulary was also considered to be highly effective or effective by 76% of the respondents, and half of the students rated the other activities such as listening and writing as highly effective or effective. In the same study, 10 teachers who were also using the text at their respective institutions were also surveyed; all of them felt that the reading passages were about the right level for the students, and eight of them judged that their length was appropriate and that the writing and vocabulary activities were effective.

Conclusion

In this paper, the development of three textbooks for the teaching of pharmacy English at universities based on the curricular guidelines of the new six-year MCC was summarized. It was shown that the three textbooks, which combined language (English) and content (the pharmaceutical sciences), were effective at least from the perspective of language learners and English teachers. Furthermore, authentic materials were shown to be appropriate for the university students; the students tried hard to comprehend and analyze difficult authentic passages, which indicated to us that there was no need to simplify or paraphrase passages for their convenience.

In addition, there are two points that we hope will be applied to other areas of ESP or CLIL. First, the collaboration of language teachers and content teachers is indispensable not only in preparation, but also in the later phases of education such as implementation of the curriculum and evaluation of the textbooks, which may lead to their subsequent revisions. In fact, we have revised one text (*Pharmaceutical English 1- Revised Version*) and are in the process of revising a second (in print). In the original three textbook writing projects, without the input from the pharmacy faculty, we language specialists would not have been as confident in both preparing and teaching said content.

Second, an ongoing process of needs assessment, implementation, evaluation, and revision of materials and curriculum is required to ensure that students obtain the maximum benefits from an ESP or CLIL curriculum. There are no established standards or norms, and language teachers, content teachers, and learners have to constantly contribute to the quality of learning. In that sense, we feel that an ESP or CLIL curriculum is a very meaningful, novel approach to language education.

Lastly, having received a grant from the government of Japan, we are now working on a three-year research project to help make an even more practical English text for pharmacy students in Japan. We hope to have that text ready for April, 2015, and the target audience will be 3rd-year pharmacy students throughout Japan.

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Appendix A

Curricular Guidelines for English Education as Presented in the Model Core Curriculum for Pharmacy Education (Japan) translated by JAPE

General Instructional Objective:

Students should acquire basic knowledge of and the abilities to read, write, listen to, and speak English necessary for pharmacy and the natural sciences.

Reading Skills

Specific Behavioral Objectives

Can read simple written sentences and identify the main idea in a timely fashion. (Knowledge/Ability)

Can explain the content of simple written passages. (Knowledge/Ability)

Can explain the content of English, including technical terms, related to pharmacy. (Knowledge/Ability)

Can correctly explain English written for the sciences and related to clinical practice. (Knowledge/Ability)

Writing Skills

Specific Behavioral Objectives

Can rewrite short Japanese sentences into English. (Knowledge/Ability)

Can write a self-introduction or letter in English. (Knowledge/Ability)

Can list basic measurements, numbers, and phenomena related to the natural sciences in English (Knowledge/Ability)

Can outline the methods and results of a simple science experiment in English. (Knowledge/Ability)

Can write a simple paragraph related to the sciences or clinical practice in English. Knowledge/Ability)

Listening and Speaking Skills

Specific Behavioral Objectives

Can tell the difference between sounds in spoken English. (Knowledge/Ability)

Can summarize the understood content of an English conversation. (Knowledge/Ability)

Can ask and answer questions that come up in an English conversation. (Knowledge/Ability)

Can correctly pronounce the names of illnesses, parts of the body, and drugs. (Knowledge/Ability)

Appendix B

List of Contents from *Yakugaku Eigo Nyumon (An Introduction to Pharmacy English)*

Chapter 1 White Coat Ceremonies
Chapter 2 International Pharmaceutical Students' Federation
Chapter 3 The Story Behind the Discovery of the Fullerene
Chapter 4 Acid Rain

Chapter 5 DNA
Chapter 6 The Nobel Prize in Chemistry
Chapter 7 The Race to Synthesize Taxol
Chapter 8 Copper
Chapter 9 Bacteria, Viruses, and Antibiotics
Chapter 10 Living with Parkinson’s Disease
Chapter 11 The Science of Drug Abuse & Addiction
Chapter 12 Allergies
Chapter 13 *E. coli*
Chapter 14 Report Calls for Clean Up of World’s Dirtiest Dozen
Chapter 15 A Drug’s Life
Chapter 16 Anti-cancer Drugs
Chapter 17 Medicines for the Future
Chapter 18 Nanotechnology and Drug Delivery
Chapter 19 Inside Clinical Trials: Testing Medical Products in People
Chapter 20 Self-Medication

Appendix C

Exercises of Chapter 4 from *Yakugaku Eigo Nyumon (An Introduction to Pharmacy English)* pp.24-25

対応 SBO
SBOs 3,13

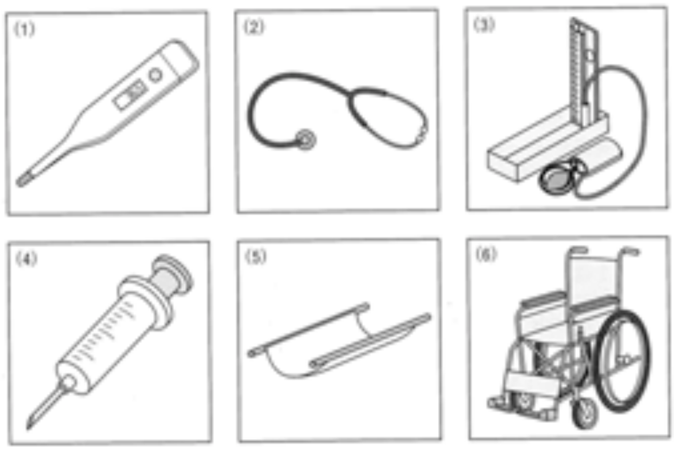
4・5 Medical Vocabulary

Write the name of each numbered figure on the corresponding line.

(1) ____________ (2) ____________

(3) ____________ (4) ____________

(5) ____________ (6) ____________



4・6 Listening/Speaking

▶ **Dictation** Listen to the following conversation and fill in the blanks.

コアカリ SBO
SBOs 10,12,13
Track 8

At the University Library

Lisa Yamanaka: Yoko, hey, how are you?

Yoko Kimura: I'm OK, but I have a ( ) coming up and I really have to study.

Lisa Yamanaka: Which class is the test ( )?

Yoko Kimura: The test is on ( ) and I am not very good at it.

Lisa Yamanaka: I know what you mean! When I was studying the subject, I really ( ), too.

Yoko Kimura: Really? I thought you were so smart. I am sure you are very ( ) science.

Lisa Yamanaka: Actually, I'm not. I only studied to become a ( ) because of my parents.

Yoko Kimura: Really? I thought that was only in Japan! That's why I am here.

Lisa Yamanaka: No. We ( ). Anyway, good luck with your studies.

Yoko Kimura: Thanks. ( ).

Now work with your partner and try to say the above dialog (in natural English, of course), but use your own words. For example, instead of "organic chemistry," you could say, "anatomy."

Naturally Spoken English Notes:

but I = budai have to = hafta what you = whatcha
going to = gonna

ASIAN EFL JOURNAL
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Readdressing EFL approaches: CLIL curriculum in a Japanese medical university context

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Abstract

Universities in Japan are searching for practical approaches to improve their EFL programs. Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) is one approach that has shown potential for both improving language learning and cognition. However, despite CLIL's positive outcomes, disjuncture – or "a tension between one's current way of doing things and a new approach" (Mehisto, 2008, p.93) - can occur when implementing the program. Nevertheless, the author believes that the successes of adopting a CLIL program outweigh the problems that can surfaced in balancing content and language instruction and CLIL's 4Cs – content, communication, cognition and culture. In this paper, I will briefly share how our university has explored better learning through CLIL and the issues involved in adopting a CLIL approach to language learning. First, I will discuss the rationale for adopting a CLIL-based curriculum. This will be followed by presenting the early stages of implementation and the adjustments that were made. Following this, a discussion about revisiting the 4Cs of the CLIL program will be addressed. In the final section, the implications this program may have for other CLIL teachers in Asia will be summarized.

The Rationale for a CLIL-based Curriculum

Frolich and Paribakht (1984, p.71) have stated that, "a complex interplay of factors potentially affects success in second language learning." Indeed, this point has had credence at our university as well. In 2008, Saitama Medical University's 1st year English curriculum included reading, writing, and communication classes. Even though a variety of classes were offered, English was not seen as a priority for students, and their motivation to learn a second language had a great deal of variation. In addition to this, many students felt dissatisfied with standard communicative-based English lessons. One reason may have been that the learning content was divorced from their health-science studies (Sasajima, Godfrey & Matsumoto, 2011).

When examining our goals for teaching English to Japanese medical students, we realized that different issues interfered with effective learning. This caused several questions to be raised when revising our curriculum, including: What is relevant for medical students to learn in an EFL classroom? What methods and materials achieve better language learning? How can communication in English be best promoted in the classroom for Japanese students? Where does critical thinking fit in? Should we tailor lessons to address the students' culture as well as global culture? How can we build better learning communities in the classroom? As a solution, a CLIL program was introduced in 2009, with the hope that it would provide richer learning opportunities for our students.

CLIL Implementation

CLIL is defined as a "dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for learning and teaching of both content and language" (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, 2008, p.9). Implementing CLIL at our university helped merge medical and science content and the student's language learning. Furthermore, adding CLIL to the English curriculum appeared to benefit teachers with different teaching backgrounds, as well as students with different language proficiencies. As Coyle, Holmes & King (2009, p.6) have suggested, "The CLIL approach to the curriculum is inclusive and flexible. It encompasses a variety of teaching methods and curriculum models and can be adapted to the age, ability, needs and interests of the learners."

CLIL promoted not only content and language learning at Saitama Medical University, but it also helped to increase the motivation of both staff and students. Teachers appeared more motivated in the classroom. The CLIL teachers had ownership over the content, with each teacher choosing their favorite health-science topics (e.g., alternative medicine, the workings of the human body, and nutritional guidelines). Students' interest increased because the lesson content was relevant to their professional goals. Evidence of this was seen in a 2011 student survey (Sasajima, Godfrey & Matsumoto, 2011), where 65% of the students reported that they enjoyed CLIL classes and would like to have more CLIL classes in the future. 71% also conveyed that their content knowledge satisfactorily improved from CLIL lessons, while 55% felt that their English made positive gains.

Redefining CLIL

When CLIL was first adopted, the 4Cs framework of content, communication, cognition and culture (or 'community') (Coyle 2005; revisited Coyle, Holmes, & King, 2008) was used to focus the program. However, parts of the 4C framework were lacking from some of the CLIL teachers' lessons. To create a more cohesive link between the 4Cs and classroom practices, a CLIL textbook and teacher's guide based on our own interests and the university's 1st year science curriculum was authored. Titled *CLIL Health Sciences* (Sasajima, Godfrey, Gilroy, Gleeson & O'Toole, 2011), the textbook provided a leaping point for the CLIL teachers and students to become more aware of the 4Cs. The textbook included authentic materials and activities that linked to the students' own community and to global issues (culture/community), it provided problem-solving tasks (cognition), included authentic information on science and healthcare (content), and opportunities to discuss content with partners, team members and the class (communication).

4 Cs Discussion

The 4C framework is an important thread that holds a CLIL curriculum together, therefore an awareness of each of the 4Cs is important for teachers when beginning a CLIL program. In our situation, maintaining a balance between each of the 4Cs has been an ongoing challenge during our implementation period. Based on our own experience, issues relating to 4Cs are addressed below:

Content

The inclusion of authentic content was addressed through creation of a textbook. However the content, in the end, became the driving force of some teacher's lessons. This has left the other 4Cs, especially cognition, neglected in some classrooms. One reason for this may be because the CLIL teachers are not medical-science content teachers, but rather they are EFL teachers; teachers who are teaching outside their familiar teaching context and having troubles integrating content and language in lessons. This issue is addressed by Mehisto (2008, p.98) who states, "Teachers are not in a habit of integrating both content and language, and as a consequence neither are students. Both groups may not recognize the benefits of integrating the two and may not possess the required strategies." Although content is the starting point for designing a lesson, it can't become the ending point. Strategies are needed to tie content and language together. In addition to this, the other 4Cs need to support the CLIL lesson structure. Possibly, when our CLIL teachers become more familiar with the content they are teaching, the other 4Cs may become more balanced over time.

Communication

How to give the students outlets for discussing complex topics like the immune system deficiency disorders or deforestation is another challenge. The CLIL teacher needs to be aware of their students' abilities and be careful to scaffold the content and language throughout the lesson. This will aid in easier conversation opportunities between students. Introducing necessary lesson vocabulary or even conversational gambits for discussion can assist students. In addition to this, the CLIL lesson often benefits from utilizing a variety of activities to promote discussion about the lesson content. These activities can range from debates, to interviews, to presentations, to pair-work conversation exercises. Accordingly, an awareness of Japanese students' learning styles can help increase conversational output in a Japanese context. Students don't always know how to openly express themselves in the classroom, so some classroom activities may be met with resistance if they are not scaffolded properly. As Ashcroft (2012, p.657-8) further states, "It follows that furthering understanding of cultural differences, in terms of their origins and influence, will help foreign language teachers to develop strategies to minimize any potential ill effects, which these differences might cause." This doesn't mean that certain activities should be ignored in the Japanese CLIL classroom (like debates, for instance), but the CLIL teacher will need to consider how to structure particular activities so that they will suit Japanese students.

Cognition

Approaches for introducing more (or better) thinking opportunities in the classroom need to be investigated by teachers. In our situation, CLIL classroom teachers are sometimes so engaged in teaching content that it is easy to rely on only fact checking when questioning students for understanding. The critical thinking elements of the CLIL lesson may be forgotten. One way this can be improved is by changing the kind of questioning techniques used by the CLIL classroom teacher. Teachers can challenge their students with 'fat questions' as opposed to factual 'skinny questions' (Dale, van der Es & Tanner, 2011). For example, "What is global warming?" vs. "What adaptations would you need to make if global warming caused the temperature to increase 5 degrees next summer?" Skinny questions or factual/knowledge questioning tends to produce 'one answer' results, in contrast to fat questions which can promote higher-level thinking processes like analysis, comparisons, summarizations, and in turn, support both complex language skills and cognition.

Culture/Community

As Coyle, Holmes & King (2009, p.9) summarize, "Successful CLIL fosters deeper intercultural communication and understanding, providing learners with meaningful contexts to explore and evaluate beliefs and attitudes. In this way CLIL can make a valid contribution to personal development and preparation for global citizenship." Students need not only an awareness of themselves and their classmates, but also how other people view life in other communities. Although many CLIL activities can easily focus on the student's home country, connections need to be built to other places around the world. An example of this was seen in my own lesson about building green. Students have some awareness about building green projects in Japan, but are surprised to see what other countries are doing in this field and how it differs from Japan in regard to the importation of wood and the use of building materials.

Implications and Conclusion

Although it is still in its developing stages, Saitama Medical University's CLIL program has had positive results which can have implications for other language learning classrooms. Classrooms that incorporate CLIL methods need to evaluate their program's teaching, especially in regard to the simultaneous integration of content and language, as well as the courses' learning outcomes. Training, discussion and the willingness to explore new territory by all CLIL members is necessary and is an ongoing process.

Despite the educational issues of balancing the 4Cs at Saitama Medical University, CLIL has motivated both students and teachers alike. How to introduce cognitively challenging content, promote better communication, present better critical-thinking activities, and broaden the cultural scope of a lesson could be potential ingredients to most any kind of EFL course. Hence, embracing CLIL means to offer richer learning for students by connecting language and content, by using language for learning.

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CLIL to what degree: a trial in English medium education at a Japanese university – Is it CLIL or not?

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Abstract

English medium teaching of subject areas at the university level in Japan is increasing due to both the encouragement of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) and the desire to attract both foreign and domestic students. Consequently, the question then arises as to how best to ensure that the content learning of the subject area is accomplished considering the linguistic limitations of the students. Language teaching faculty members in these contexts are becoming more aware of content and language integrated learning (CLIL) as a pedagogical practice that may prove effective in ensuring positive educational outcomes. Subject specialist faculty members may have less awareness of CLIL and may not apply it consciously to their teaching practice. However, this does not mean that the principles of CLIL are not existent in their classrooms. This study used the basic CLIL principles to reflect upon an English medium economics course currently being taught at a Japanese university. The aim of the reflection was to determine if the economics professor unconsciously applied any CLIL theories in the design and facilitation of the course even without the awareness of CLIL pedagogical principles, per se. Data was gathered through class observation, reflective discussions and

student surveys. The results suggest that there were clear areas where the theoretical beliefs and practices of the economics professor coincided closely with CLIL principles. At the same time, aspects of the CLIL framework, cognition and culture, were seen as challenging, highlighting some difficulties that may arise when trying to implement CLIL in undergraduate subject courses in Japan.

Introduction

Many Japanese universities now offer classes taught in English. An estimated 227 universities (approximately 1/3 of the total) offer content courses wholly in English (MEXT, 2006), 194 of those offer English medium instruction (EMI) at the undergraduate level. EMI is being promoted for the dual purposes of attracting foreign students to Japan and preparing Japanese students for international careers. Concurrently, using content for the base of lessons is common in language instruction, as seen in methodologies such as content-based instruction and the design of recent English for academic purposes textbooks being used in Japanese university classrooms (Sanabria, 2012). Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) is a pedagogical framework that combines the goals of these two trends of increased content learning in a foreign language and meaningful language classes based on content. Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010) explain that CLIL is "an innovative fusion" (p. 1) of language learning and content learning.

Awareness of CLIL is growing in Japan with programs being implemented at some leading Japanese universities. Sofia University has published about their efforts in promoting CLIL (Izumi, Ikeda & Watanabe, 2012; Watanabe, Ikeda & Izumi, 2012) and contribute to the CLIL Japan website along with the British Council. The possibilities of the CLIL classroom as a space that allows for more efficient learning of both content and language, as well as providing a smooth transitional path from typical high school English classes to English medium, university level classes makes it likely to be beneficial for the average Japanese student embarking on internationally focused studies.

This paper provides a description of an English medium economics course that is part of a curriculum in a public Japanese university where efforts to expand and institutionalize English medium instruction of subject courses are being made. We, an economics professor and an English language professor, chose to observe and uncover in what ways an existing course that the economics professor was teaching coincided with principles of CLIL. The economics professor had completed the course design before this project was suggested and was in charge of facilitating all parts of each lesson. The English language teacher's role in this project was to observe lessons and facilitate follow up discussions with the economics teacher after each class based on possible connections to CLIL pedagogy. The discussion topics included choice of materials, real-time decisions made in the lessons, and teacher expectations of learning outcomes and student abilities. The themes and emerging trends of the discussions were then compared to the CLIL framework. We were interested in finding out to what extent CLIL principles already existed without the economics professor having awareness of CLIL. This information could be critically reflected upon when designing subsequent courses and helpful in drawing a distinction between English medium instruction and CLIL.

We will first describe the observed course in terms of aims, participants, materials, classroom activities, and language choice. Second, we will reflect on the ways and to what degree this course coincided with CLIL theories and framework in its design and implementation. We will use the four Cs framework (Coyle et al., 2010) to analyze the course through a CLIL lens.

The Course

Aims

This paper focuses on an international economics course. The professor aimed to expose students to a holistic view of current trends in the world economy, for example shifting power differences, the rise of emerging economies, and trade globalization with some emphasis on China's specific position within these changes.

Course Participants

This course, titled Chinese Finance, is situated as an intermediate level course aimed at students who are beginning to consider topics for their graduation research. It is an elective class that four students chose to take during the term this class was being observed. All four students were male students, approximately 20 years old, in their third year at university. One student was focusing on East Asian studies while the others were studying international politics and economics. While there are no specific prerequisites, students had completed a few introductory economics courses delivered in Japanese, and a variety of English language courses aimed at improving students' abilities to use English for academic studies. Considering only four students were in the course, little statistical evidence can be derived from the surveys, however, at this particular university, this class size is not unusual for the third and fourth year classes and student comments in the survey provided important qualitative feedback.

Materials

Two textbooks were used in the course, *Perspectives on Global Development 2010* (OECD, 2010 in English) and *Economic Development in China* (Minami & Makino, 2012 in Japanese). Seven chapters were covered from the former and 5 chapters were covered from the latter. The English textbook used was chosen mainly for the level of difficulty. With each chapter less than 15 pages in length, it seemed acceptable to expect students to be able to handle reading one chapter a week. Besides these texts, there were no teacher-prepared materials. Each lesson comprised entirely of one student presentation that summarized one chapter from one of the textbooks. Classmates and the teacher interjected regularly.

Lesson Structure

This course was carried out in seminar style, meaning that the classes consisted of presentations from students based on various textbook chapters. One student was responsible for presenting one chapter in each lesson. Chapters were assigned alternately from the two textbooks and each student was responsible for at least one chapter from each book. All presenting students used power point as a guide to their presentation of the material and prepared handouts of the power point presentation for fellow classmates. The instructor and non-presenting students interjected discussion points and questions into the presentation. All students were to read and be familiar with the chapter to be presented that day and as their peer student's presentation progressed, students were encouraged to add information they felt was important but missing, ask for further explanation on points they did not fully understand, or give corrections on information that may have been misinterpreted by the presenter. The professor would elaborate on points, make connections to relevant topics studied in other classes or events that students experience in their lives, and explain complex issues that the presenter may have misunderstood or left out. With these additions to the presenter's own prepared content, one presentation lasted approximately the whole 90 minutes of the class.

Language Choice

The language choice for this course was rather unique in that it switched from Japanese one week to English the next. There was a conscious time-share type of language alternation that occurred from week to week. The readings were assigned from each textbook every other week and the language that the textbook was in determined the language of the presentation and discussion. From week to week the language changed, but within each lesson there was very little code switching. Both the instructor and students maintained use of either English or Japanese for the entirety of each lesson. Therefore, the English-medium component of the course happened every other week. This translanguaging is consistent with the desire of faculty members in the department working in English medium, that students be able to switch between and synthesize ideas from sources in both languages (Brown & Adamson, 2011).

Analysis

Following Wiesemes' (2009) suggestion that the four Cs curriculum framework (Coyle et al., 2010), can be used as a planning guide that allows theory as well as practicality to be incorporated, we decided to reflect on to what extent the English medium portion of this economics class aligned with each category of the four Cs. Such comparison will highlight the classroom choices and practices of this economics professor, and to what extent they reflect an alignment with concepts of CLIL.

The CLIL four Cs components are content, communication, cognition and culture. A short summary of each is given in Table 1.

Table 1. Summary of four Cs of CLIL

The 4 Cs	**Description of each from Coyle, Hood & Marsh (2010)**
Content	Progression in new knowledge, skills and understanding.
Communication	Interaction, progression in language using and learning.
Cognition	Engagement in higher-order thinking and understanding, problem solving, and accepting challenges and reflecting on them.
Culture	"Self" and "other" awareness, identity, citizenship, and progression towards pluricultural understanding.

We will look at our English medium economics course through each of these categories adding discussion on important considerations or changes that could be made if it was decided to apply CLIL practice in this course.

Content

"CLIL is content-driven" (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 1). Content learning in CLIL extends beyond the acquisition of knowledge. It emphasizes not only learning of new information, but also the furthering of understanding and abilities to apply the new knowledge. Making connections with other knowledge and experiences will lead to a developed ability for retaining the information and skills, which can then be used and applied later in education or life (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, 2008).

The position of this class in the curriculum and the fact that the professor teaching the class specializes in economics, indicate that the content of the course was undoubtedly the leading factor of course design and material selection. The content determined what skills and language were necessary to understand and make presentations on the material. The professor expected students to realize, learn and produce such language in their personal preparations, without explicit instruction.

Considering these points, it would seem the content portion of the four Cs framework was satisfactorily realized, even possibly over emphasized if a balance of the four Cs is an ideal goal.

Communication

Another C in the four Cs framework is communication. Coyle et al. (2010) explain that communication and language are used interchangeably in the four Cs framework. The focus on language in CLIL is less about traditional language lessons, where attention will be given to grammatical sequences, and more about connecting language learning to the educational demands of the moment, such as content to be comprehended or tasks to be completed. In this way, the integration of the content and the language happens with the result being that both are indispensible for the learning of the other (Coyle et al., 2010).

The professor of this economics class is acutely aware of the benefits of this integration and expressed her belief that skills are communal. Improvement of one skill is both necessary for, and dependent upon, the improvement of other skills being learned in tandem. As skills and understanding in content increase, so should linguistic abilities. This belief originates from her experiences of language learning. As a native Chinese speaker, she learned both English and Japanese through her personal endeavors as well as formal education. In her opinion, the language-focused lessons did not provide as much opportunity for language learning as did the actual use of those languages to gain knowledge or express ideas in other subject areas. Therefore, while the lesson structure of this English medium economics course did not provide any explicit language instruction, the teacher had expectations that language learning would occur. One student seemed to agree that his abilities did improve commenting in a post-term survey that, “my english (sic.) ability was trained by this class.” While both teacher expectations and student self-evaluation suggest language learning was perceived to have taken place, further study and more precise data collection in this area~~,~~ would be necessary to record more exactly how much and what aspects of language were actually learned. However, the existence of a language learning aim in the teacher’s mind suggests definite connections with the communication category of the four Cs framework.

Cognition

While the cognitive demands of this class did not fall among high-order thinking skills, there was a significant challenge for the students involved. The students were asked to individually reconstruct the content of one whole chapter of a textbook that consisted of information almost entirely new to the learners. They were challenged by not only the theories and principles put forward, but also the historical and real world examples provided, of which they lacked awareness. Considering the difficult content, it was a challenge to bring the ideas together in preparation for an in-class presentation. Yet, these skills of summarizing, inferring and explaining fall into the lower-order cognitive processing dimensions. In the CLIL framework it is suggested that the cognitive demands should be of the higher-order thinking skills.

Considering the intense linguistic demands of the material, coupled with the abstract nature of the material, we might suggest that lower-level cognitive processing tasks were appropriate and that with more pressure in this area it would be questionable how much effective learning could have taken place. Possibly with more strategic linguistic support, coupled with less linguistically challenging material, activities demanding more cognitive involvement would have enhanced learning of the material. This is one prospect to consider for improvements to this course if it is to be taught with a conscious emphasis on CLIL principles in the future.

Culture

The cultural component of the four Cs was least visible in observations and conversations post-lesson. Some explanations of the cultural component tie the concept to issues of citizenship and community (Bentley, 2010, Mehisto et al., 2008). Even so, it is still unclear to what extent these ideas were realized in this course. The economics professor considers that it is important for students to have an understanding of how Japan fits into the world economy and how its position is shifting. However, both teachers doubt if this is enough to qualify as cultural or community awareness. The descriptions in this area seem more attainable at the university level in courses focusing on studies in the humanities or in language classes that are still connecting language learning to the cultural studies of the areas it is associated with. Clearly, this English medium economics course did not incorporate culture as is described in four Cs framework.

Conclusion

In retrospect, it would seem that this English medium economics course, seen through the lens of the four Cs framework, encompassed the theoretical principles of CLIL in significant ways. The course was driven by and structured around content, and it incorporated activities in the lessons that encouraged communication between students and the professors in the target language. Since this course did not initially set out to follow or accomplish a CLIL style course design, it is unfair to judge it as a successful or unsuccessful attempt. However, by looking at the course through a CLIL framework, specific pedagogical differences between the design of this English medium course and CLIL became apparent. Two areas, cognition and culture, stood out as portions of course design that could be given more consideration if, in the future, it became desirable to consciously incorporate a CLIL approach.

As for cognition, the balance between cognitive challenge and language difficulty emerged as an area that the economics professor had so far not considered. More deliberation about the type of cognitive processing being asked of students, and if it would be more beneficial to lessen the linguistic burden in order to allow for more cognitively demanding activities should be considered. While content and language considerations played and active role in the course design, the professor relied on her own learning experiences when deciding task types. It was not a conscious choice to ask students to engage in lower-order thinking processes rather than higher-order thinking, but rather a lack of options that led to this decision. Since the lesson structure was not a considered, principled choice but rather an example of Lortie's apprenticeship of observation (1975), where a teacher's own school experiences shape and guide their later pedagogical decision making, it is possible that other subject-teaching faculty members across Japan share these same learning experiences and are likely to facilitate their classrooms in similar ways. This could be a challenge for CLIL in Japan.

Culture, as an integral part of CLIL, may also pose some challenges to the spread of CLIL in Japan. Since English is moving towards being taught as an international language at the university level in Japan, there are doubts as to the relevance of including cultural aspects of the language, or regions from which it originates, into the learning process. Furthermore, with field specific subject matter driving the courses, it would be challenging in terms of time and relevance to incorporate the raising of cultural awareness. It is possible that this is a major difference between straight English medium studies and CLIL that should be considered carefully in each local context. It could be that this aspect of CLIL will be hard to maintain in university level subject-specific classrooms in Japan. More consideration is needed in this area.

It is hoped that the lessons learned though the CLIL-based reflections on this English medium economics course will be further explored by, and subsequently communicated to, other university educators in Japan who are considering the option of using CLIL principles in their teaching.

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Snapshot of a lower secondary CLIL program in Japan

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Introduction

Over the past twenty years, especially in countries in the European Union, there has been a growing interest in content and language integrated learning (CLIL), an ELT methodology in which content-based themes are taught in English, integrate scaffolding, and pinpoint language support. According to Muñoz (2007, p. 23), positive attributes of CLIL programs are as follows:

a. [they provide] plenty of input beyond the limits of the language class
b. [they provide] real and relevant input for the learner...
c. [they motivate] the processing of meaning, because [the content] is interesting in itself...

These strengths outweigh the weaknesses of strictly content-focused programs (such as an immersion program) where a focus on form may be completely ignored (Muñoz, 2007, p. 22). In conjunction with this theoretical support, positive outcomes in both content and language knowledge have been measured (for example: Dalton-Puffer, 2008; Xanthou, 2011). Given these encouraging results, therefore, it is not surprising that CLIL programs are also surfacing in Asia. In Japan, following a directive from the Ministry of Education, 227 universities (approximately 1/3 of the total) have instituted English-medium

Instruction (EMI) courses (MEXT, 2006). Furthermore, the effects of such programs reverberate at the secondary level as schools are beginning to offer content-based English instruction as well. This paper describes a home economics CLIL program instituted at a private lower secondary school in central Japan from spring 2005 - spring 2012.

General overview

The program was embedded within the home economics curriculum, not as a stand-alone language course, with the aim to provide learners with greater English exposure. Inspiration for the program originated amongst school administrators while the actual day-to-day execution was handled by a native English-speaking language teacher (the author) and a native Japanese content teacher. Specifically, I was responsible for syllabus design, lesson planning, material creation and instruction. The home economics teacher acted as content advisor and assisted with classroom management during actual lessons.

Participation in the program was mandatory, so all students in the first and second grades took part. From 2005-2010, the students were divided into two courses: a lower academic ability course and a higher academic ability course. A third English-focused course was introduced at the school in 2010. These students participated in the program for two years until its conclusion in the spring of 2012. Homeroom class sizes ranged from ten students to approximately thirty.

Over the course of one school year, two different curriculums were taught, one semester to first grade students which dealt with maintaining positive relationships with one's family, community and environment, and one semester to second grade students which concerned healthy living and nutrition (see *Appendix A* for a translation of the two syllabi). While one grade took the home economics CLIL module, the other grade would take shop class in Japanese with a different teacher. Both grade levels used a standard Ministry of Education issued textbook and its accompanying workbook from the *New Shop Class/Home Economics* series (Kaneko *et al.*, 2004a; Kaneko *et al.*, 2004b).

To account for the possibility that some students were complete beginners and possibly had no prior experience with English, the first grade students took the shop class module in Japanese during the first semester and then the home economics module during the second semester. The second grade students who were considered ‘veteran’ English learners took the home economics module in the first semester and shop class during the second semester. During the CLIL course, for approximately 16 weeks, the students attended two back-to-back home economics lessons a week: one 50-minute lesson in Japanese followed by a subsequent CLIL lesson in English for a total of approximately 32 hours of instruction per course. The Japanese-language textbook was utilized during the Japanese-only lessons while materials used in CLIL were either originals or adapted from the course book, Cambridge *English for Schools: Book 1* (Hicks and Littlejohn, 1996).

Pedagogical details

I used what seems to be the most widely used CLIL model, Coyle’s 4Cs Framework to retrospectively analyze the program described in this paper (2005). It combines the 4Cs: ‘content’, ‘communication’, ‘cognition’ and ‘culture’ (Coyle, 2005).

Content

‘Content’ describes aims and objectives of the home economics-related themes taught in the program. These were derived and adapted from the content in the textbook, *New Shop Class/Home Economics.* Specific details about the content covered in both the first and second grade curriculums are described in *Appendix A*. The themes taught in English are indicated by red font.

Communication

‘Communication’ refers to the language needed to tackle the content. To allow for minimal L1 use, every effort was made to grade language to the level at or below what is prescribed by the lower secondary school English curriculum. For this reason, for both grade levels, the language taught involved simply the study of relevant lexis and the basic verb form: ‘present simple’.

Cognition

‘Cognition’ refers to the levels of lower and higher order thinking involved to understand a topic. Coyle utilized Bloom’s taxonomy of thinking to categorize appropriate activities for a CLIL program (2006). Forehand (2005) describes a revised version authored by Anderson and Krathwohl in 2001. I used this version because it includes a sixth level, 'creating' which was an element of this particular CLIL program. Under 'creating' lie 'evaluating', 'analyzing', 'applying', 'understanding' and 'remembering'. Lower order thinking skills (LOTS), such as 'remembering' and 'understanding' are cognitively less complex than higher order thinking skills (HOTS) such as 'evaluating' and 'creating' (Forehand, 2005).

For the CLIL program described in this paper, the main focus was on the bottom two tiers: 'remembering' and 'understanding'. I taught very basic lexis and verb forms to make the learning more manageable for lower level students with little to no experience with English. These were practiced and solidified with handouts and games such as bingo or 'partner interview' activities. As the learners became more experienced and comfortable with learning the content in English, some activities requiring students to develop higher order cognitive skills were introduced. One example that encouraged the 'analyzing' HOTS was a lesson in which students examined the ingredients for the dish they made ~~in~~ during the cooking practicum, pizza, and discussed the food groups and nutrients represented. In a subsequent lesson, students devised a poster illustrating a balanced healthy meal with menu items from all food groups and using all nutrients. This particular activity promoted the 'creating' HOTS. Other specific activities are described in the chart in *Appendix B.*

Culture

The final 'C', 'Culture', introduces a possible global perspective to the classroom activities (Coyle, 2005). Where possible, I attempted this. For example, for the lesson on how to save energy at home, an image of a Western house rather than a Japanese one was used for a discussion on energy conservation and the structural differences between the two houses.

Evaluation

The students were evaluated with an end of term written exam. Sixty to seventy percent of test items measured knowledge of content learned during the Japanese-only classes and the remaining items measured knowledge of a mixture of CLIL content and language. The

Japanese content teacher compiled test items for her portion of the exam and the author was responsible for the CLIL content and language. For the CLIL portion, some year's exam items were more heavily language-based (and therefore more LOTS focused) than others, depending on number of classes in session. Class was intermittently canceled due to proficiency testing or school events. With limited class time, LOTS activities took precedence to allow for a larger pool of material from which to draw test material. See *Figure 1* for a chart detailing the percentage of LOTS-focused test times included on the exams for the first grade and *Figure 2* for the second grade.

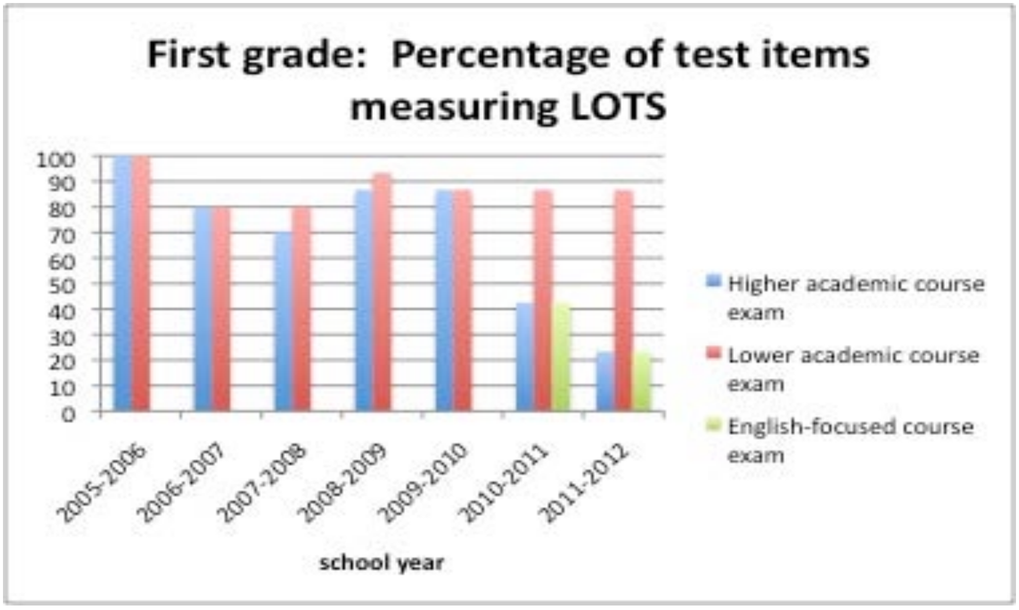

Figure 1: First grade: Percentage of test items measuring LOTS

As illustrated in *Figure 1*, the amount of test items measuring LOTS remained steady for the lower academic ability students. More class time was used to consolidate the LOT skills of 'remembering' and 'understanding' language content such as vocabulary and grammar. The higher academic ability students and eventually the English-focused course students as well, handled the LOT skills more quickly and thus more content-based activities that encourage HOTS were introduced.

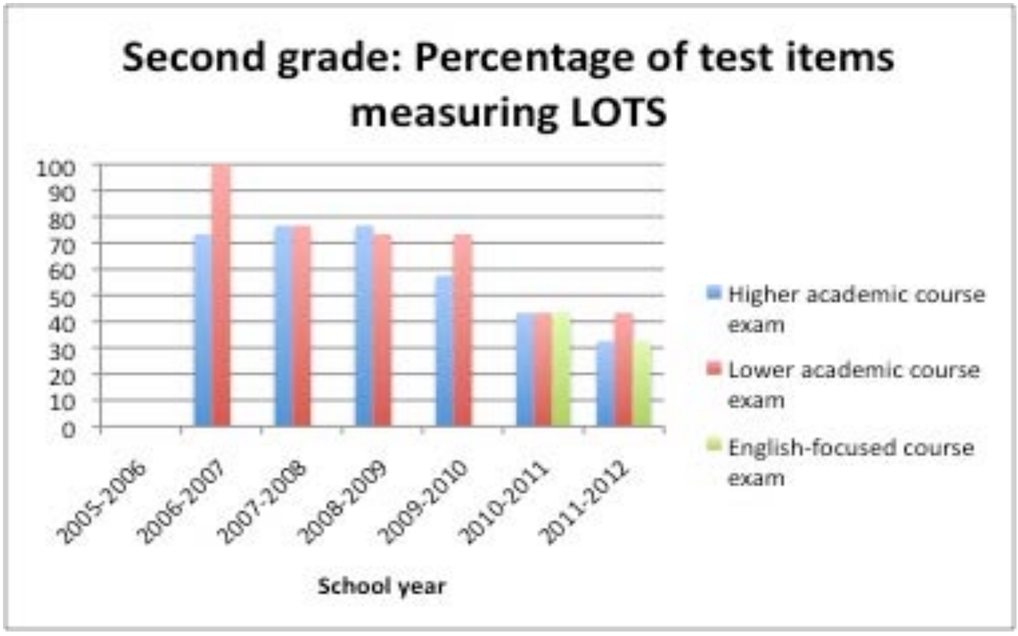

Figure 2: Second grade: Percentage of test items measuring LOTS

As illustrated in *Figure 2*, for the second grade students, the vocabulary and grammar needed to process the LOT skills of ‘remembering’ and ‘understanding’ seemed to be more accessible for students. Thus, the amount of material devoted to measuring these was slightly less for their exams in comparison to the first grade exams. This figure also decreased steadily over the course of the seven-year program as matriculating student academic ability improved and more and more content was introduced in class. Here, it should be noted that activities that encouraged the HOTS ‘creating’ such as the aforementioned poster making activity, require more class time than was often available and were sometimes abandoned in favor of lower order HOTS activities.

Results

For the CLIL portion of the exam, mean scores (see *Table 1*) fluctuated widely over the seven years the program was in operation. This may be due to complications concerning how the course was presented and/or perceived by students. For example, first, as the class is embedded within the home economics curriculum, it is possible the learners prioritized study for the Japanese content portion of the exam and did not concentrate on CLIL content and language. Second, it is also possible that learners misconstrued the goal of the course and studied only for the language-related content not the CLIL content. I also taught the same students in oral communication classes, so it is feasible that students may have viewed the course as a ‘language’ course and not as a ‘content’ course~~.~~ Compounding the above, it should be noted that the students were not provided with a syllabus outlining the language and content aims and objectives of the course in the early years of the program. This became a school-wide requirement starting in 2010.

Author reflections

Over its seven-year run, the quality of the program greatly improved. First, the overall CLIL flavor of the program improved considerably as the balance of both language and content-focused activities was calibrated. Also, through trial and error the needs of students was assessed and aims and objectives were also adjusted. Communication of course goals was also improved with the introduction of a bilingual syllabus. In spite of these positive attributes, one limitation remains: Gains in knowledge of content and language were not appropriately measured through control and experimental groups so the data presented in *Table 2* is not statistically significant or applicable to other CLIL programs. This area of study may prove to be useful for the improvement of this program before it can serve as a positive model for other CLIL programs.

Table 1: Mean scores for each course for the years 2005-2012

	First grade			**Second grade**		
School year	Lower academic ability course	Higher academic ability course	English-focused course	Lower academic ability course	Higher academic ability course	English-focused course
2005-2006	no data	no data				
2006-2007	49.7	63.53		60.4	75.85	
2007-2008	no data	no data		40.27	43.5	
2008-2009	50.43	60		57.37	45.2	
2009-2010	57.9	73.96		57.38	59.98	
2010-2011	37.62	70.4	72.75	40.23	50	
2011-2012	61.1	46.3	56.47	32.1	60.23	58.25

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Appendices:

Appendix A: ***Content themes, aims and objectives for first and second year CLIL programs*** (themes taught in English indicated by red font)

	First Grade	Second Grade
Theme 1	***Living together (our family, community and us)***	***Taking care of ourselves***
Aims (objectives)	Consider how to improve your relationship with your family members (understand the importance of cooperation and acknowledgement of each family member's point of view and role within the family; Be able to apply this knowledge to your unique family situation)	Our dietary habits (Think about what we eat/food intake. What is the relationship between food we eat and our lifestyle?)
	Consider how to improve your relationship with the community (Make a positive contribution to the community; bridging family and community life; Make connections between the community and family; understand your individual role in the community; Empower Ss to contribute actively in the community	Understand food and nutrition (Understand nutrients and food groups)
		Understand how the food group chart works
		What and how much should we eat? (focus on what and how much JHS students should eat)
		Healthy diet planning (Eating a balanced healthy diet)
Theme 2	***Taking care of ourselves***	***Choosing food and cooking it***
Aims (objectives)	Our relationship with clothing (choosing appropriate clothing for a purpose; understand the functions of clothing)	Choosing food wisely (understand the different types of raw and prepared foods; being aware of food safety)

	Repairing clothing (Understand what materials clothing is made of and how to repair it)	Food preparation technique, tools and heating implements
	Storing and reusing clothing (Consider the relationship with clothing and natural resources)	Towards a better diet (understanding the relationship between our diet and environment; having an interest in food safety; practicing frugalness)
Theme 3	***Sewing practicum (learn how to use a sewing machine)***	***Measures to improve mealtime***
Aims (objectives)	Sew an apron; parts of the sewing machine	How to eat dinner
		How to communicate well during dinner
Theme 4	***Living together: consumption***	***Cooking practicum (understand cooking basics)***
Aims (objectives)	Consumption and environment: understanding consumer lifestyle. (Know how goods are sold, how to choose appropriate services)	Making pizza and potato salad
	Consumer awareness (Know problems associated with consumerism, know your rights as a consumer, and how to solve problems related to these issues)	Making hamburger steak, green bean sauté
	Our relationship with the environment (Understand the impact of your personal lifestyle /consumer lifestyle on the environment)	

(Translated from the Japanese language syllabi; Hirose, 2005a, 2005b)

Appendix B: ***CLIL classroom activities mapped against Anderson and Krathwohl's updated version of Bloom's taxonomy*** (2001; reproduced in Forehand, 2005)

Bloom's	First Grade	Second Grade

Taxonomy revised (Anderson and Krathwohl in Forehand, 2005)	Theme 1: Relationships with family members	Theme 2: Household duties	Theme 3: Me and the environment	Theme 1: Healthy living	Theme 2: Healthy eating
Creating					Create a ‘healthy menu’ poster for one meal that contains all food groups and a healthy balance of nutrients; poster presentations; cultural extension: make the poster ethnically themed e.g. Korean menu
Evaluating				Discuss how much sleep, how much exercise and what type of diet contributes to a healthy lifestyle.	Evaluate Peter’s menu: What is healthy about his diet and what could be improved? (adapted from Hicks and Littlejohn, 1996)
Analyzing	Think about how you spend time with family members		Think about your impact on the environment.	Analyze Bob’s daily schedule & your own typical day: pay attention to how much exercise you do, how much sleep you get and what you	Using 2 models, analyze which food groups are represented and which nutrients are eaten •Peter’s menu for one day (adapted from Hicks and

				typically eat.	Littlejohn, 1996) •Pizza (cooking practicum menu)
Applying	Draw a picture of your family and label it using the terms.	Think about which family member regularly does each chore		Write your own daily typical schedule using the daily activity verbs	
Understanding	Through pictorial depictions of four popular cartoon families, understand family relationships and terms		•Classify which measure saves energy, gasoline, and water •Classify which measure can be executed in which room of a house		Through a short graded reading, understand how the 7 nutrients support our bodies (adapted from Hicks and Littlejohn, 1996)
	•Family member terms (e.g. mother, sister) •Verbs concerning how you might spend time with family members (e.g. doing homework, eating dinner)	Verbs concerning household duties (e.g. take out the trash, clean my room)	•Verbs that describe energy saving measures (e.g. turn off the water, unplug appliances, recycle) •Rooms in a house	Verbs concerning daily activities (e.g. get up, go to school, eat dinner, go to sleep)	•Healthy food vocabulary (e.g. fruit, grain, meat) •7 important nutrients: protein, water, fiber, carbohydrates, fats, vitamins, minerals •Body parts (e.g. hair, eyes)

(*Unless otherwise noted, all activities are originals, designed by the author*)

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Development of academic competencies as the learning objectives of an English-medicine integrated common-core module

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Biodata

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Abstract

A common-core module intended to bridge the general English course and medical English course in an EFL context was developed by specifying medical students' academic competencies in communicative skills, critical thinking and information management as the core learning objectives that integrate linguistic goals with content goals. These are essential academic competencies that all physicians must possess to prepare themselves for a 'global profession of physicians'. The contexts and framework of the curricular design are introduced to provide practical and theoretical rationale, followed by a brief introduction of classroom practices and evaluation methods.

Keywords: Common-core module, academic competencies for medical professionals, critical thinking, communicative skills, information management

Contexts of the Common-Core Module

Content-based language instruction (CBI) has stimulated global interest since the end of the 1990s and has been translated into practice in various instructional settings (Stoller, 2004), especially in foreign language teaching (Stryker & Leaver, 1997). The internationalization in education leads to more concern in CBI to cultivate talented students who are proficient in both English and specialized subjects. In Southeast Asia, the rise in popularity of CBI approaches is attributed to the development of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses in the tertiary settings (Chapple & Curtis, 2000). Such is the case in China. A general English course termed College English in China (CE), usually lasting for two years, is compulsory for all non-English majors at the tertiary level. Ever since 2000, there have been discussions of making the CE courses more ESP-oriented (Cai, 2004; Wang, 2010). A common practice is to offer ESP courses for students at higher learning levels (e.g. Tang, 2010). But this is seldom done to really integrate the CE course with academic content in a coherent curricular system.

Medical English (ME) is an ESP course offered for medical students in some medical colleges in China, which has also become popular by the end of 1990s in the trend of reforming the CE curriculum. The course is usually taught by medical subject teachers, using textbooks that introduce basic medical knowledge in English and focus on medical terminology. So far, few attempts have been made to inquire into the curriculum design in ME education (Yang, 2010).

In Shantou University Medical College, CE has been condensed into a one-semester intensive course for freshmen, and followed by the study of medical subjects in both English and Chinese. Simultaneously, these students take the ME course. This is different from the ESP courses in other Chinese contexts which are offered at more advanced learning stages. A previous study in this context indicates that the ME course mainly uses English as the medium of instruction in teaching basic medical terms and knowledge rather than focusing on developing students' academic English proficiency (Yang, 2010). Though ME is offered as one part of the English curriculum, there is no connection between ME and CE in terms of curriculum objectives, teaching materials and methods, and learning assessment. A recent survey of curricular evaluation conducted by the Medical College reveals problems in students' learning motivation and language development and retention because of the lack of connection between the two courses. Theoretical bases and justifications for CBI have pointed out the effectiveness of content-language integrated instruction in motivating students and improving the students' linguistic skills and subject-matter learning (Brinton et al., 1989; Stryker and Leaver, 1997; Stoller, 2004). Therefore, the integration of the two courses is both necessary in reality and feasible in theory.

Curriculum Framework

As Met (1998) and Davison and Williams (2001) point out, different CBI models constitute a continuum showcasing the shifting emphasis on content and language. In the current curricular context, the CE course is on the "language" end with strong commitments to language learning objectives, while the ME course is more on the "content" end with strong commitments to content-learning objectives. That CBI approaches can help to develop students' academic competencies have been discussed in some studies (e.g. Adamson, 1993; Kasper, 1997), but seldom have made the development of academic competencies the core objectives of a CBI program. Based on the current development of medical education and language education, this curricular design proposes medical students' academic competencies as the common-core objectives with the intent to bridge the two originally separate courses and integrate English instruction with medical instruction.

With the growing globalization of medicine and the emerging concept of a 'global profession of physicians,' the issue of the essential competences that all physicians must possess becomes sharply focused (Schwarz & Wojtczak, 2002). The 'minimum essential competences' for all medical graduates are identified and grouped under seven broad educational domains by the Institute for International Medical Education (IIME):

(1) Professional Values, Attitudes, Behavior and Ethics

(2) Scientific Foundation of Medicine

(3) Clinical Skills

(4) Communication Skills

(5) Population Health and Health Systems

(6) Management of Information

(7) Critical Thinking and Research

As shown in *Figure 1* provided by IIME, among the seven domains, critical thinking, information management, and communicative skills are the core and should be the base for other domains. The learning objectives in these areas of academic competencies are consistent with the current objectives of language education.

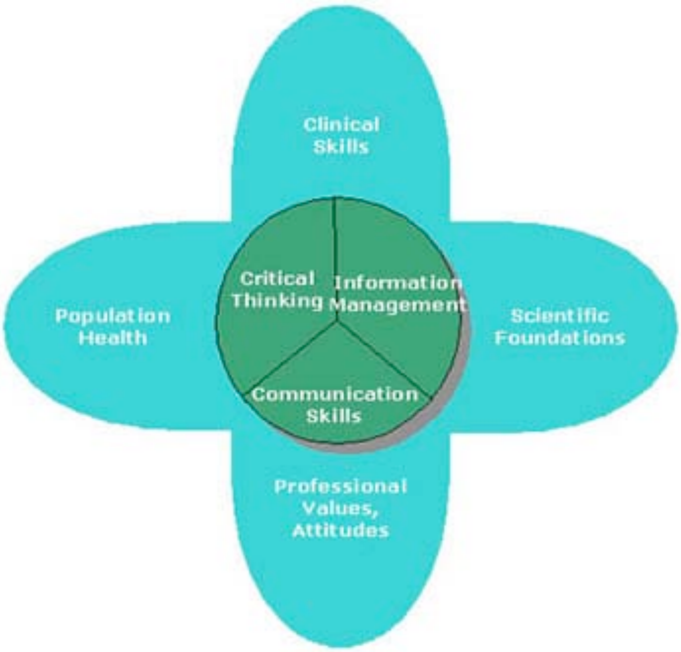

Figure 1. Domains of global essential requirements for medical education (IIME, 2002, p.131)

Medical graduates are expected to be able to communicate effectively with the patients, the patients' families, colleagues or other professionals both orally and in writing through cooperation and interaction. These skills can be greatly developed in the language classroom where communicative language teaching approaches are applied to emphasize the meaningful use of language in appropriate contexts in various group tasks (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). In CBI in particular, the subject matters of academic learning provides a meaningful basis for communication in the language class (Davison & Williams, 2001). Also, there are studies that point out the language classroom as an important place to develop the students' critical thinking skills (Norton & Toohey, 2004; Ramanathan, 2002). Similar learning results are found in CBI class as well (Chapple & Curtis, 2000; Pally, 2001). More importantly, because "language, knowledge and culture form a complex tangle that cannot be avoided" (Pennycook, 1997, p.266), language is no longer simply a means of expression and communication; rather, it comprises "an understanding of the ways in which our lives are discursively construed through language (ibid)"; it offers opportunities for learners to look at different versions of how the world is and should be. Therefore, language education should surpass simple impartment of linguistic skills and stress the abilities of dealing with multiple textualities and discourse through critical analysis (Canagarajah, 2005).

Therefore, the sharing of objectives in developing medical students' communicative skills, critical thinking skills and management information skills becomes the cornerstone of the common-core module. Four basic curricular development steps, i.e. setting learning objective, designing teaching contents and materials, organizing classroom learning, and assessing learning, are presented below (See Appendix for specification of the module). As shown in Figure 2, the CE course and ME course are still separately run, but teachers in both teams refer to the common-core module and conduct changes in their areas of teaching. Hopefully, the curricular elements in the common-core module will infiltrate into the two courses and eventually “contextualize” the CE course and bring language-consciousness into the ME course, drawing the originally unconnected courses closer to the middle of the language-content continuum where Davison & Williams (2001) suggest “simultaneous” integrated language content teaching can be achieved.

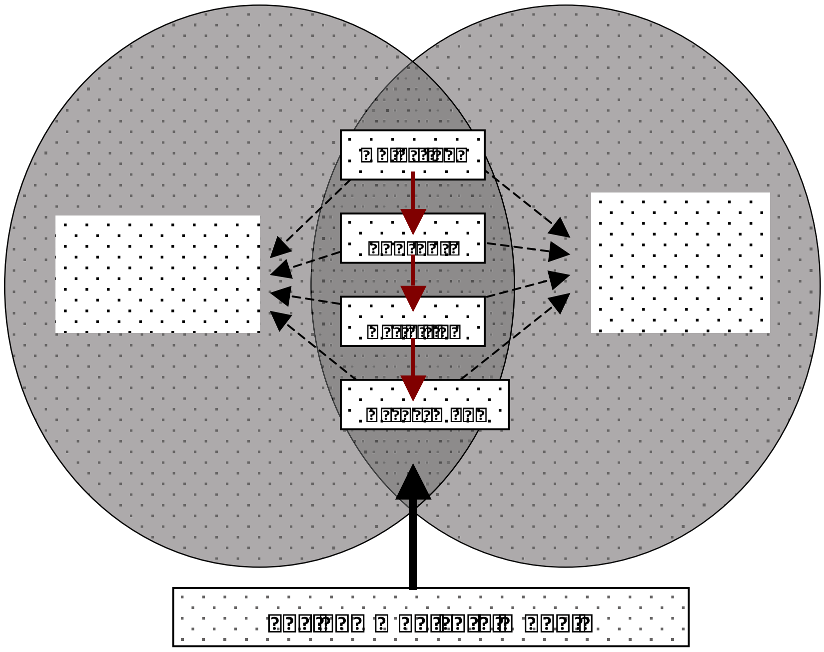

Figure 2. The Design of the Common-Core Module

Classroom Practice

The CE course, intended as an intensive course, has three branch courses that teach reading, listening/speaking, and writing with a total of 8 hours every week, while the ME course is only given 2 hours each week. This imbalance in teaching schedules leads to more classroom practice of the common-core module in the CE class than the MC class.

Besides the content-based activities that are carried out in both courses (see Appendix) to meet the demand of the common-core module, theme-based workshops are held to emphasize important linguistic skills and academic competencies needed in medical study and professional development. The themes include reading, note-taking, critical thinking and academic writing. The first three workshops are held in both the MC class and the CE reading class. Workshops in the MC class take place one week before those in the CE class. Teachers from both teams discuss and design the workshops together so that the workshops in both classes have corresponding contents and activities. The workshop on academic writing is co-hosted by the CE writing teacher and the ME teacher, each focusing on the professional insights from their own disciplines.

Another activity that highly displays the integration of linguistic skills with academic competencies is the reading journal. A piece of popular medical science reading is required every week, based on which students write about it to not only define medical terms in the reading, but also to answer open questions that may require them to search for information and develop critical analysis. For instance, a typical question for the students to answer is: *Do you agree with the author of this text or not? Please find evidences from other sources to support your opinions*.

The activities and materials discussed above share the highlights of this language-content integrated module in the following ways:

- The integration of linguistic skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) with academic competencies (critical thinking, information management, and communicative skills)
- The integration of language training with medical content by introducing topics of popular medical science, basic medical knowledge, and health systems into the English class and increasing language activities in the medical English class.

- The emphasis on contexts of medical study and professional development (lectures, seminars, conference presentations, etc.) in which both English language proficiency and medical content knowledge are required.

Evaluation Procedures

Systematic assessment to demonstrate students' language and content learning and program effectiveness is one of a common set of challenges confronted by the content-language curriculum development efforts (Stoller, 2004). The current effort tries to assess the students' learning and evaluate the common-core module's effectiveness, using various formative and summative evaluation methods.

Pretest and posttest of questionnaire surveys of students' self-perceived communication skills, information management skills, and critical thinking dispositions are conducted to investigate possible development in academic competencies. Reading and writing tests that evaluate the students' critical thinking skills are carried out at the beginning and the end of the program as well. Oral presentations and reading journals are video-taped or copied to keep track of students' progress. Besides, three students from each class (total N=18) are selected as case study subjects for regular interviews. Other evaluation methods include a final oral test co-judged by English teachers and medical teachers and two separate written tests. Hopefully, these methods will help to evaluate student learning and program effectiveness. Because of the length limit of this paper, details of various methods are not discussed here.

Coda

As Stoller (2004) points out, curricular models are most often a response to the exigencies of the instructional settings in which they are implemented. Restraints from administration (e.g. the prescribed course length) and student learning level (i.e. the ME course for freshmen rather than seniors) in the immediate educational context have led to compromises in designing and implementing the module as part of the existent courses rather than an independent curricular entity, hence there are many operational difficulties. But its advantage in carrying out content-based learning in a specific discipline offers a useful framework for CBI among homogeneous groups of students. And the designation of academic competencies rather than linguistic skills or content knowledge as the learning objectives displays a higher level of language-content integration in response to current educational development.

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Appendix: Specification of the Common-Core Module

Teaching 0bjectives	1) To develop the students' communicative skills: the students will be able to communicate fluently and appropriately in social and academic contexts and be able to express themselves effectively for personal or professional purposes; 2) To develop the students' ability in information management: the students will be able to extensively read English materials related to academic study and professional development and be able to analyze the information and come to appropriate conclusions for oral or written presentation. 3) To develop the students' critical thinking: the students will be able to critically analyze and evaluate the information obtained through English and apply the results of thinking to solve language- or academic-relevant problems.
Teaching content	1) Basic knowledge about the medical science; 2) Basic knowledge about the health system; 3) The values and ethics of the medical profession
Teaching activities	1) *Intensive and extensive listening activities* to inform the students of the latest medical development, obtain basic medical knowledge and practice pronunciation; 2) *Intensive and extensive reading activities* to learn medical terms, to develop fast reading abilities and critical academic reading abilities and the abilities of searching and analyzing relevant and reliable information. 3) *Role plays and oral presentations* on concepts learnt in the ME course, on topics of general medical knowledge (e.g. first aid, health eating) and the health system. 4) *Group discussions and debates* on common issues in the process of hospitalization (e.g. the relationships between patients and doctors and backhander in medication) and values and ethics of medical profession. 5) *Summary writing and abstract writing* as a way to introduce students to basic academic writing
Learning assessment	Coherent formative and summative learning assessment that include: 1) classroom performance (e.g. group discussions, debates, role-plays and oral presentations) 2) homework 3) Final written tests 4) Final oral tests judged by both teams of teachers
Teacher collaboration	1) Co-lesson-planning and team-teaching in the class 2) Co-lesson-planning and co-evaluation after class while teaching in the class separatively 3) Co-hosting workshops or other kinds of activities

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English for law at the University of Malaya

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Biodata

Stefanie Pillai is an associate professor at the Faculty of Languages and Linguistics, University of Malaya (UM). She started her teaching career at UM teaching English for Law. Her main areas of research are the pronunciation of Malaysian English and the documentation of Malaccan Portuguese Creole.

Angela Kajita is a visiting language teacher of Portuguese at the Faculty of Languages and Linguistics, University of Malaya. She also teaches English for Law. Her areas of interest include language documentation, historical linguistics and the phonology of Portuguese.

Introduction

A common complaint among Malaysian employers is the lack of English proficiency and communication skills among graduates (Pillai et al., 2012). The same finding was also reported by the Malaysian Bar Council based on a survey of a group of law graduates, chambering pupils and newly appointed lawyers (Cheng, 2012; Devaraj, 2012). For graduates intending to enter the legal fraternity whether as a lawyer or in other law-related capacities, English language proficiency is paramount given this fraternity largely operates in English, despite requirements to use the Malay language for court-related matters (Powell & Hashim, 2011). With the passing of the Legal Profession (Amendment) Bill 2012 (Anis, 2012), local graduates will find themselves having to compete with non-Malaysian lawyers, and thus, they need to ensure that they are equipped with the relevant skills, which include being competent in English, to face such competition.

In a bid to address the lack of English proficiency and communication skills among law graduates, and also to ensure that graduates are equipped with relevant employability skills, public universities in Malaysia incorporate compulsory English language courses in many of their undergraduate courses (Pillai et al., 2012). These courses comprise general English language proficiency and subject- or content-specific English language courses depending on the level of proficiency of the students and the degree programmes they are undertaking. One such subject-specific course is the English for Law course offered to law students at the University of Malaya.

Learning Outcomes

The learning outcomes of the course state that at the end of the course students should be able to do the following:

1. Demonstrate their speaking competency.
2. Demonstrate their writing competency.
3. Demonstrate an understanding of written English texts.
4. Demonstrate an understanding of spoken discourse in English which is of advanced level of difficulty.

(Course Learning Outcomes, Advanced English for Law,
Faculty of Languages and Linguistics, University of Malaya).

The course aims to develop all four language skills (speaking, writing, reading and listening), whilst incorporating content that is relevant for future law graduates. Specifically, in relation to the students' area of study, analytical, argumentative and persuasive skills, the ability to speak and write in a cohesive and coherent manner are also focused upon.

Organisation

Classes are held once a week for two hours over a 14 week semester. The course is organised based on the four language skills where one or a combination of more than one skill is focused upon in a particular week. Attention is also given to vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. Thus, for example, in one particular week, one hour of class time is dedicated to reading and writing, and one hour on pronunciation practice. In another week, the focus is on writing (one hour) and grammar (one hour). Among the items of grammar that are covered in the course is the use of tenses, while pronunciation practice mainly encompasses segments (vowels and consonants) and word stress. Nevertheless, there is an attempt to incorporate the teaching and learning of grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation with that of the language skills. Examples of this are focusing on the vocabulary encountered in a reading text, and editing a written text for grammar and style.

Content

While the course concentrates on developing the English language skills of the students, the materials that are used integrate content that is subject-specific such as legal texts or law-related newspaper and magazine articles (e.g. Shipler, 2012; Thomas & Schmidt, 2012). These are used as reading texts where students are asked, among other things, to look for the main ideas of the texts, and to paraphrase and summarise the texts. However, other texts are also used to expose them to the types of discourse they need to be familiar with in the legal field, such as persuasive texts. The materials act as examples of how to organise a particular type of discourse and also as a platform to stimulate discussion and develop skills that are relevant for their subject area such as analytical, argumentative and persuasive skills.

The integration of subject specific or subject related content and language learning is also known as content and language integrated learning or CLIL. Mehisto et al. (2008, p. 9) describe CLIL as “a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language". The notion of integration implies that there is no distinction between language and content in CLIC, but as Gajo (2007) points out, in reality, there tends to be a leaning towards either language or content. Although the combination of language and content is not a new phenomenon, CLIL is different because, as Coyle (2007, p. 545) explains, "both language and content are conceptualised on a continuum", where it "exists in different guises … with content-based ELT at the softer end and bilingual education, focusing exclusively on learning subject matter through the medium of a foreign language, at the harder end" (Spratt, 2012, p.10).

Examples of this soft variety of CLIL are the use of Professor Randy Pausch's "Last Lecture" (Pausch, 2007) and President Obama's remarks at Cairo University (Obama, 2009). These two videos allow students to compare both types of speech, and observe the use of paralinguistic markers. Students also discuss the reasons why the two speeches are considered inspiring, to analyse what makes the speakers persuasive. By working with both the videos and the transcripts of the videos, students get a chance to see how two different kinds of speakers perform in front of an audience, and how a speech is in fact a well-structured text with a series of ideas and arguments logically connected. The rationale for this activity is to expose students to the elements of a good persuasive speech so that they may replicate these when they prepare for their own speech (see section on assessment). Further, the ability to be persuasive, both in the written and spoken form, is an important one for legal practitioners, whether they are in court or participating in negotiations with clients and other lawyers.

Teaching and Learning Activities

A variety of activities are carried out in this course to develop different learning styles of the students and to focus on particular language skills. The activities include individual activities where students read and respond to texts on their own and also engage in pair work and collective edit their own law-related essays in terms of spelling, syntax, and style. They are also expected to work on their own to prepare their speech for their oral assessment due at the end of the semester.

Assessment

The students are evaluated equally on all four skills through continuous assessment. There is no final written examination for this course. For the listening assessment, the students have to listen to and interpret a recorded video or audio recording, and actively take notes of the salient points in the recording. They are then assessed on their written summary of the recording. For the reading assessment, the students are given a magazine article to read and they have to answer a series of questions on the text. For their written assessment, the students have to write a persuasive and rhetorical essay based on current events, preferably in the fields of politics or economics (e.g. sustainability and development in Malaysia). The students are assessed on an oral presentation, where they have to prepare and present an inspiring speech displaying persuasive and rhetorical skills. Although the topics for the presentation may not be directly related to law, both the written and oral assessments are aimed at testing if the students possess persuasive skills. These are skills which are used by legal practitioners in areas like contract negotiations, dispute resolutions and in courts proceedings.

Summary

The English for Law course at the University of Malaya attempts to integrate elements of legal-related content into what is essentially an advanced language proficiency course. However, in order to develop the language and thinking skills required of law students, the course also incorporates non-legal texts, such as political speeches. In general, the course is designed to enhance the English language proficiency of the law students so that they are able to cope with their course which is largely conducted in English, with most of the reading materials being in English. In addition, the course also aims to equip students with the language proficiency required by employers in Malaysia.

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Doing CLIL in Abu Dhabi

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Biodata

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Abstract

This article briefly describes the current situation regarding CLIL in local primary schools and how CLIL is addressed in the curriculum of a new teacher training college in Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates. The history of English language education in the region is also addressed.

Keywords: CLIL, English, education reform, Abu Dhabi, UAE, teacher training

Introduction

Abu Dhabi Education Council (ADEC) is the entity responsible for overseeing schools and curricula in the emirate of Abu Dhabi. Since the founding of the United Arab Emirates, the emirates have undergone rapid development in all areas including education. Educational development in Abu Dhabi has had many iterations, the most recent of which is the New School Model (NSM) (ADEC, 2010a). (For a historical overview of English education in the Gulf, the UAE, and Abu Dhabi, see Weber, 2011; Davidson, 2010; and Gallagher, 2011, respectively.)

The NSM effectively created a "hard" content and language integrated (CLIL) curriculum (Bentley, 2010, p. 6), although ADEC does not use that term. It is a dual-language bilingual system in KG (kindergarten, which consists of two years) and *cycle one* (grades 1-5) schools, in which math, science and English language are taught through the medium of English while other subjects are taught in Arabic. The NSM was initiated in grades KG-3 starting in September 2010 (ADEC, 2010a), adding grade 4 in 2011 and grade 5 in 2012. Full implementation was originally scheduled to be completed by 2016; this has since been changed to 2018 (Zaman, 2012).

To realize this model, ADEC has hired thousands of expatriate, native English-speaking teachers (NESTs), primarily from the US, UK, Canada, and Australia (Ahmed, 2012a; El Ajou, 2009), to serve as English medium teachers (EMTs). This is in contrast to the previous practice of hiring native Arabic speakers (Emirati and expatriate) to teach English language in government schools (Raven, 2010). However, as in all of the UAE, Emiratization is a major social goal in Abu Dhabi (Mashood, Verhoeven, and Chansarkar, 2009). This is essentially a nationalization scheme by which the government is attempting to increase Emirati citizens' employment opportunities and thus decrease the country's reliance on expatriate workers

(Davidson, 2005, pp. 144-145) – expatriates who currently make up approximately 80% of the UAE's population (Randeree, 2012, p. 3). In line with this policy of Emiratization, ADEC hopes to augment and ultimately perhaps replace the expatriate teachers with Emiratis who have been trained to teach in the medium of English (Ahmed, 2012a; Al Subaihi, 2012).

In order to bring more Emiratis into the classroom, in 2007 ADEC established Emirates College for Advanced Education (ECAE), a teacher training institute, to deliver a bachelor of education (B.Ed.) degree to Emirati nationals. The program of study originally followed the curriculum of Singapore's National Institute of Education (Galey, 2009). However, over time the program has changed to relate more closely to the latest curriculum innovations in the emirate, i.e., the New School Model. Other higher education (HE) institutions in the UAE are also responding to the changing school curriculum and adjusting their own teacher training programs to match the NSM (Ahmed, 2012a). In addition, ADEC plans to offer sabbaticals for further training of in-service Emirati teachers, as well as expanding professional development for all government school teachers (Ahmed, 2012b).

The New School Model

The New School Model is an example of dual language education in that it develops additive bilingualism/biliteracy using a standard curriculum, sustained through the primary grades (with a gradual roll-out for secondary grades), with approximately 50% of instructional time being spent teaching in English and 50% in Arabic (Christian, 2011, p. 8). However, one of the factors Christian identifies as key to dual language implementation is attention to cross-cultural awareness. This does not appear to be important in the Abu Dhabi context, and in fact, may be discouraged due to a perceived threat posed by English to the Arabic language and Emirati culture and identity (Ahmed, 2012c; Charise, 2007; Salama, 2009). The NSM clearly states that the program's intent is to "develop strong Arabic and English literacy and numeracy, critical thinking, problem solving and creativity, while continuing to *emphasize cultural and national identity* among Abu Dhabi students" (emphasis added) (ADEC, 2010b, p. 2). There is no mention of developing cross-cultural awareness in the NSM guide for teachers.

While the NSM model as a whole is a dual language program, there is one distinction between the KG and *cycle one* schools. In KG, the NSM calls for side-by-side immersion, in which two teachers are together in the classroom: one an Arabic medium teacher (AMT), the other an EMT (Gallagher, 2011). These teachers are expected to plan and work collaboratively. However, in *cycle one* schools, AMTs and EMTs teach specific subjects separately. Arabic, Islamic studies and social studies are taught by AMTs, while English, math and science are taught by EMTs. Other subjects such as art, music and physical education may in principle be taught in either language (in practice, they are currently taught almost exclusively in Arabic). AMTs and EMTs may plan together when it is appropriate (ADEC, 2012).

In contrast to previous, traditional models of education that tended to emphasize rote learning (Raven, 2010), the NSM establishes a student-centered, technology-rich, integrated learning environment that encourages integration, differentiation, on-going assessment, and parental and community involvement in the schools (ADEC, 2010b). The NSM also sets out benchmarked standards that include learning outcomes for subject knowledge and understanding, learning behaviors, and learning skills (Pierson, 2011). These standards are divided into subject area (i.e., math, science, and English) learning outcomes, with some overlap. For example, in grade two, science students are expected to describe observations using details which correlate to English language outcomes such as supporting ideas with details in writing and providing sufficient details in oral recounts.

Teacher Training

The language of instruction at Emirates College for Advanced Education (ECAE) is English; the exceptions are Arabic language classes which are taught in Arabic only. Many students study for one or sometimes two years in ECAE's foundation course, which is the norm in the UAE (Ahmed, 2012c). This course includes intensive English language study, as well as math, science, and technology courses, all taught in the medium of English. Once they have completed the foundation requirements, students matriculate into the B.Ed. program, which is closely aligned to the NSM. Because of the NSM's focus on English as a medium of instruction for content-area learning in mathematics and science as well as English language, ECAE incorporates the principles of CLIL from the perspective of Coyle's 4Cs Framework (Coyle, Hood, and Marsh, 2010, pp. 53-55) throughout its four-year course of study. Specifically, *content*, *communication* and *cognition* are all stressed throughout the curriculum, which integrates subject courses, communicative language use, and higher-order thinking, as well as the development of reflective learners and, ultimately, teachers. And while the fourth C – *culture* – may not be realized in this context as the fostering of multiculturalism, the importance of maintaining the local Emirati culture, language, and identity is constantly emphasized. This may not be surprising if the local-to-expatriate population balance is taken into account (Randeree, 2012).

In order to prepare pre-service teachers to work within the NSM, ECAE has set up a four-pronged program of study that includes general English skills, subject knowledge courses (in English, math, science), pedagogically-based courses (in English, math, science, general education, and technology), and teaching practicum courses. The English subject knowledge courses could be characterized as introductory linguistics courses and include phonology, morphology, grammar, and genre studies. The English pedagogy courses are divided by skills, with one course covering the teaching of speaking and listening, one reading, and one writing. Other subject area courses have their own areas of specialization.

The subject knowledge and practical skills that are studied in these classes are then consolidated and honed in two courses taught in the third and fourth years of the program. They are unofficially known as the “CLIL course” and the “integrated course.” Both have been designed specifically to develop the skills needed to teach effectively in the NSM. To achieve this goal, they emphasize the practical application of CLIL principles to develop lesson plans, materials, communication plans, classroom environments, and collaborative teaching models.

Among other activities in these courses, students develop integrated units based on NSM learning outcomes. They write lesson plans and develop and/or adapt materials to fit into these integrated units. They evaluate and design classroom environments that optimize CLIL, and develop communication plans to involve the wider school community and parents in the implementation of subject and language integration. In the “integrated” course, students explore teaching using thematic units, usually based on science themes or topics, along with developing strategies for team teaching and planning. Students have the opportunity to actually practice using these plans, units, and materials via micro-teaching and student teaching (practicum) experiences.

The Future

Emirates College for Advanced Education is young; the New School Model is younger still. The results of these new models of education and teaching training remain to be seen. However, there are already positive signs. ADEC has employed several of ECAE’s first graduating class to teach as EMTs. This along with a recent increase of Emirati staff in ADEC schools (Ahmed, 2012a) may be taken as evidence of movement away from the trend of hiring expatriate teachers and towards Emiratization of government schools.

More good news comes from the fact that standardized tests taken by students in Abu Dhabi schools in March 2012 show an average gain of five points over the previous year's scores (Ahmed, 2012d). Though much research is needed, it appears that doing CLIL in Abu Dhabi via the New School Model is building steam and beginning to provide the anticipated positive results.

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Academic English and content development thorough ethnographic research projects

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Abstract

The following curriculum context article describes a recently introduced academic English project-based learning (PBL) course designed to help prepare Japanese students for English content undergraduate courses at an international university in Japan. This article describes: the theoretical underpinnings of the course; the setting of the project-based course within the larger university environment and within the English language program; the content of the course; and a brief discussion on the effectiveness of the course in fulfilling its learning goals.

Keywords: Project-based learning, culture, course

Theoretical Justification

Project-based learning courses not only allow students to learn content through the medium of the target language, but also complement any content learning with synthesis and production of knowledge in many different learning contexts; such as, EAP, ESL, ESP, and so on (Stoller, 2001). In addition to dealing with existing content, PBL is seen as a way to engender students' ability to create their own content – Beckett describes how project-based learning is considered to be "*one of the best teaching and learning activities*" (2005, pp. 196) to help students develop skills necessary for coping with academic content; such as, gathering, organizing, and analyzing content knowledge; additionally, hypothesizing, predicting, and synthesizing new information; and ultimately presenting information orally, diagrammatically, and in writing. Thus, with PBL students can develop academic skills while studying existing content and developing their own original content.

Setting of the Course

The university currently has 3,208 domestic (Japanese) students and 2,526 international students from 83 different countries. Students can matriculate into the university along two streams – English-basis (usually international students) and Japanese-basis (usually domestic students). The university thus provides students with a multicultural, multilingual environment so students become competent and confident communicators in multiple languages.

Japanese-basis students begin their first year general education lectures in Japanese, while undertaking mandatory English language courses. Majors are offered in two specializations: Asia Pacific Studies and International Management. Japanese-basis students must complete intermediate level English before they are eligible to take major subjects in English language medium. While Japanese-basis students are able to complete the majority of their major courses in either language, they must complete a minimum of 20 major credits out of the 62 required in English language medium courses. For non-native Japanese, matriculation into the program is dependent on Japanese Language Proficiency Test (JLPT) level 1 score of 90 + points; or JLPT level 2 score of 100 + points; or Examination for Japanese University Admissions (EJU) Certificate Score of 220 + points. The PBL course is an elective open to Japanese students who have completed their mandatory English language study, but who wish to gain further credits in English language study and/or wish to progress to advanced English courses (non-mandatory).

With the goal of preparing students for English medium lectures, the course outline is for students to work together in groups to: coordinate, plan and complete an academic project about culture using English; and report their work in academic written and oral formats. As the table below indicates, the project courses completion requirements reflect the intention to have students improve their English reading, writing, listening and speaking proficiency from the standard track. Students are also expected to further familiarize themselves with academic processes, existing academic content, and the procedures for developing original content. Students are also expected to develop autonomous learning habits and critical thinking behaviors.

Table 1.

Standards of completion for pre- and post- project-based learning courses

Completion requirements	Standard track	Project-based elective	Advanced English optional course
Reading	Read a range of 350 – 450 word texts on academic topics.	Read quickly and comprehend the general contents / and summarize key details of various sources for project purposes.	Read a range of 400 – 520 word academic texts related to undergraduate courses. Read the texts in 20 – 25 minutes.

Writing	Write two well-structured research essays of 800 – 1000 words.	Write notes from various written and oral texts. Write accurately and concisely in English. Write project-related documents; such as, essays, agendas, proposals, summaries, minutes, and reports.	Write summaries of up to 300 words from academic texts; write two well-structured essays of 1000 – 1500 words relating to the Asia pacific region using primary and secondary research.
Listening	Listen to 2 minute workplace and classroom discussions, 4 minute academic lectures.	Listen to instructions, ideas, advice and opinions from team discussions; listen to and act on experts' advice; listen to and summarize key information from multiple sources.	Listen to 3 minute discussions on topics from lectures; listen to 3 to 4 minute lectures on various themes.
Speaking	Do two 5 minute research presentations, two 5 minute group discussions.	Use appropriate discourse strategies to complete project-related tasks; such as, briefings, meetings, discussions, presentations, interviews, and surveys.	Take part in a 15 minute discussion on academic research; give a 12 minutes individual presentation on an academic topic related to the Asia Pacific region.

The Course

The criteria for the project are to study the local environment, find a problem area to study under the umbrella of culture, use English to communicate with stakeholders, study the problem from an academic viewpoint, and then create a product that benefits and is accessible to the community. The large body of international students at the university, including large numbers who live in campus dormitories; the large number of non-Japanese faculty; and large body of bi-lingual administrative staff required to help run an international university all provide a rich source of cultural and linguistic diversity that the students are able to source for projects.

Projects include: a study of Chinese exchange students' attitudes towards Japan, cultural difficulties for international students in the part-time job workplace in

Japan, an investigation into Japanese silence in club meetings with international students, a study of multi-cultural groups of friends to understand how the participants were able to successfully integrate, difficulties in daily life for Muslim students living in Japan.

The course of study is comprised of the following steps:

- Forming a project group to work with for 15 weeks
- Find problem areas to study, selecting a single project, writing a research question
- Planning the steps of the project; including reading plans
- Academic reading; including an analysis of the validity of sources
- First hand data collection informed by academic reading
- Developing a product (such as a web site)
- Presenting the project and product
- Evaluating the project

Lessons follow the format of: a short lecture; team work to discuss, make decisions, and divide up work to be completed; a short oral report to the teacher. Writing reports, research activities, and materials preparation are completed as homework. The lesson schedule is included below:

Table 2.

Lesson overview

Week / Lesson	Module focus	Lesson 1 (95 minutes)	Lesson 2 (95 minutes)
1	Approach to learning, understanding projects, understanding themes, team work, meeting skills	Approach to learning, introduction to project and themes	Basic academic and critical thinking skills, introduction to meetings, setting agendas, and keeping minutes
2		Critical thinking: decision making criteria, charts, timetables Choosing a group	Critical thinking: mind maps, question development, charts (e.g. KWH*) Observing a subject
3	Problematizing and planning,	Select a project, write guiding and research questions, narrow the	Critical thinking: future projections, and scheduling.

	choosing a project, writing	field of study, create the research plan	SWOT** analysis
4		Formal communication practice: plan, prepare and rehearsal	Briefing: discuss research area with another project group
5	Secondary research narrowing the parameters	Evaluate sources of information, plan reading, get help, ask the right questions	Writing summaries
6		Adjust plans	Rhetorical devices and influencing the audience
7		Formal communication practice: plan, prepare and rehearsal	Briefing: discuss secondary data collection with another project group
Break			
8	Primary data collection	Planning: decide the data collection goals, choose the methodology, write questions,	Check instruments, test procedures, trial questions
9		Data collection	Data collection
10		Formal communication practice: plan, prepare and rehearsal	Briefing: discuss primary data collection with another project group
11	Product creation, presentation	Plan product, revisit rhetoric	Plan product, storyboard, division of tasks
12		Presentation practice	Presentation practice
13		Final presentations of product	Final presentations of product
14	Evaluation and review	Product benchmarking	Review of team work and processes
15		Reflective essay	

* KWH is a decision making chart, based on: “*what we Know*”, “*Want to know*”, *and* “*How we can find out*”.

** SWOT is a decision making chart, based on: *Strength of our team, Weaknesses of our team, Opportunities for advancement of our project, Threats to the completion of our project*

Method of grading

Participation (20%): Students are evaluated by the teacher on the quality and quantity of their contributions to the project through monitoring of teams in-class discussion, and through the minutes of any group meetings that are held, as well as by reviewing students’ input to the group portfolio.

Group portfolio (30%): The portfolio is used as a way to encourage evaluated but un-graded ongoing practice of various writing formats, and oral genres and functions. Students gather materials that they use in the project in three sections: evidence of writing practice (practice essays, summaries of reading, reports of activities); evidence of treatment of data/critical examination of materials (data charts, decision making tools such as Venn diagrams); evidence of participation in group work (through the minutes of group meetings).

Individual weekly journal (15%): Reflecting the course objectives of language improvement, critical thinking and autonomous development, the journal serves as a way to encourage student reflection on individual self-development progress. The journal is graded on the following criteria: (description of activity or learning experience, description of student reaction to the learning experience, evaluation of successful or non-successful completion of the learning activity, analysis of reasons for the success or lack of success, and pro-active response to the results of the learning experience (as per Nix, 2003).

Final product and presentation (20%): As one of the goals of the course is to create a product, it is a pre-requisite of the presentation that teams have completed the product and it is ready to showcase during the presentation. The final presentation lasts 20 minutes including Q and A and should report on the whole project from inception through to realization of a product.

Student self-evaluation (15%): From (a) a benchmarking activity where students develop the criteria for evaluating a product and then compare another group's product to their own, respectively suggesting ways to improve a weaker area of either product using examples from the other product's stronger areas; (b) a review of their work process where students look back and discuss how each activity they carried out helped contribute to the final product; (c) a questionnaire directed at reviewing learning points from the course from which students choose three areas that they are most interested in to write a learning review essay.

Course Appraisal

The course is now in its second semester. In the first semester, 19 students took the course in one class. One student failed to complete it, one reported dissatisfaction with the learning content, and the remainder reported high levels of satisfaction with the course. There are currently two classes with an initial class size of 24 and 23 respectively. Based on teacher observations and student comments, future challenges for the course designers are to help students reach a high standard of written academic work, and to reduce the amount of homework required within the course. Given the levels of student satisfaction with the learning content, the course will remain in its current format for the foreseeable future.

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An in-service programme in Hong Kong for integrating language and content at the post-secondary level

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Biodata

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The Need for an In-Service Programme

Hong Kong's special status as a former British colony and now a globally competitive Chinese special administrative region (SAR) where "English continues to be the default medium of written communication in the workplace" (Santandreu et al., 2009, p. 1452) are the two major factors explaining why English as the medium of instruction (EMI) policy dominates higher education in Hong Kong. Sharing the same pedagogical phylum as content and language integrated learning (CLIL), EMI as pedagogy could be considered like CLIL when it seeks to integrate content with the second language of students, although not strictly adhering to the 4Cs CLIL framework articulated by Coyle, Hood, and Marsh (2010). In Hong Kong, EMI is found in the universities and institutes which are funded publicly on the advice of the

University Grants Committee as well as in the post-secondary college system. Already well-established in Hong Kong's publicly funded universities before their huge expansion in the 1990's, EMI is also well-established in the post-secondary sector, where enrollment doubled between 2000 and 2006 due to government policy (Education and Manpower Bureau, 2007). Post-secondary programmes using EMI include many associate degrees and 'top up degrees' for those associate degree graduates wishing to spend two more years to obtain a bachelor's degree. In this article I describe and discuss an in-service programme for post-secondary teachers which was funded through the Education Bureau in Hong Kong. The curriculum of this programme covered knowledge and pedagogical skills development for integrating language and content.

In recent years, CLIL research has addressed the integration of language and content in areas such as medicine and science (Mungra, 2010; Kiraz et al. 2010); mathematics (Jäppinen, 2005); engineering (Zeidmane & Cernajeva; 2011); legal education (Leibenberg, 2010); and history and geography (Zangrando, et al., 2010). It has also discussed CLIL in relation to applied linguistics (Smit, 2007; Ringbom, 2012) and teachers' and students' perceptions (Aguilar & Rodriguez, 2012) as well as reviewed existing CLIL research itself (Bruton, 2011; Perez-Candao, 2011). The need for teacher education for CLIL in an EMI higher education environment has been identified by several European researchers, including Klaassen (2008) and Hellekjaer (2007), concurrent with many European universities moving towards EMI programmes. In Hong Kong, the expansion of the post-secondary sector has meant a dramatic increase in student enrollment, faculty hires, and new programmes using EMI and therefore has created a need for both pre-service and in-service teacher education programmes.

Four Courses, Two Weeks, One Programme

The in-service, post-secondary teacher education programme described in this article was part of a project entitled "*Promoting Teaching Effectiveness in English as the Medium of Instruction in Hong Kong's Self-financing, Post-Secondary Sector*". When planning the programme, EMI existed not so much as a pedagogy for integrating content and language in institutions in Hong Kong's post-secondary sector as it existed as a policy in those institutions. A coherent, theory-enriched approach for addressing both students' needs for learning in a second language and teachers' needs for integrating content and language in an EMI environment was lacking. This was especially true for the many new teachers hired during the rapid expansion of the post-secondary sector. A programme was needed to raise awareness about both learning in a second language and curriculum design which would empower teachers to develop subject materials and pedagogy which could integrate content and language in their individual subjects according to the demands imposed by an EMI policy. The point of integration of content and language was in the different subjects taught by individual teachers in the post-secondary sectors: the programme described here framed important linguistic, SLA, and curricular issues for teachers which they would need to address in order to effectively integrate language and content.

I specifically focus on the four courses which comprised the programme which was offered during the summer terms in 2010 and 2011 at a university in Hong Kong. Each course was 15 classroom hours spread over a week, with the entire programme therefore being two weeks in duration. Besides explicit presentation of content in EMI, implicit modeling of teaching methods and techniques such as teacher-fronted presentation of material, pair work, debates, clozes, participant-led presentations, surveys, pair reflections, small and large group discussion, think/pair/share, process writing, peer-review, redrafting summaries of material, etc. were also integrated into the four courses.

Course One: *Second Language Learning and the Classroom*

The first course aimed to help participants gain a better understanding of how students learn, and learn in, a second language. The programme began with the participants examining their current beliefs about those aspects of learners. In the first session of the first course, they completed a survey developed for that course about their beliefs regarding how languages are learned and they discussed the results with each other. Elements of second language acquisition (SLA) theory and practice were then integrated into the other four sessions of the course. These elements included: acquisition and learning; input, intake, and interlanguage; competence and performance; approaches, methods, and techniques; understanding and evaluating specific SLA theories; and student learning strategies.

Course Two: *Communicative Methods and Techniques*

The second course aimed to help participants develop skills in EMI for the subjects which they teach in their post-secondary institutions by examining communicative methods and techniques in TESOL. First, they identified their current practices by completing a survey on such practices. The survey had been developed for the course and the participants discussed the results with each other. The content for the course included: communicative approach; task-based approach; CLIL; and methods and techniques for reading, writing, listening, and speaking.

Course Three: *Language Awareness*

Language Awareness was offered during the second week of the programme to raise consciousness among the participants of features of English, common grammatical errors, and sociolinguistic appropriateness. Varieties of English, including Hong Kong English, were covered as well as vocabulary skills, problems in L2 grammar, and improving coherence and cohesion in discourse. Processes in listening comprehension as well as spoken language features like stress and intonation were also included.

Course Four: *Designing Curriculum and Materials in English*

Participants completed a capstone course, developing a lesson which incorporated the knowledge and skills from the other courses. First, general considerations in curriculum and lesson planning were presented. Other content included defining learner outcomes for content and language by the participants for their own subject teaching; choosing, developing and applying methods; designing lessons within a communicative approach; action research; and executing, assessing, and modifying lesson plans.

Discussion

The adoption of a pedagogical innovation depends on several factors, including the innovation itself, teachers' attitudes towards adopting it, and the feasibility of adopting it within the context of the institution and the broader education system. Ferreira-Barcelos' (2003) assertion that beliefs influence teaching was taken as a given in the design of this programme. The programme provided cognitive input for teachers through a series of four connected courses to help them more fully understand ways to integrate content with English. Participants also examined their own attitudes, beliefs, and practices and discussed them with peers. The input and their own self-reflection informed their thinking as they considered ways that they could apply the material presented in the courses to their own subject teaching. This kind of change can be challenging as it usually requires changes in teaching behavior and can be inhibited by the institution and broader education system.

Arrangements were made to accommodate 100 teachers from post-secondary institutions over a period of two summers. In total, 68 participants enrolled in the programme during that period and not all of the participants attended all the classes. Feedback was obtained from 38 participants through a simple questionnaire at the end of the programme. In the questionnaire, participants were asked to rank the materials, on the one hand, and the teaching on the other. In both cases, a score of “1” indicated “poor”, “4” indicated “satisfactory” and “7” indicated “excellent”. Overall, feedback on the programme was good on both teaching (5.46) and materials (4.92). Fourteen teachers also responded to a simple questionnaire administered during their first semester of teaching after the programme ended, asking them if they were implementing what they learned in the programme or did they plan to do so in the future: “1” indicated “none” and “5” indicated “all/almost all”. The mean score of 2.6 respondents indicated that they were implementing some of the techniques, methods or principles from the programme into their own teaching.

Inconsistent attendance during the programme was an issue and probably due to competing demands on busy teachers’ schedules and the challenge of assimilating and adopting novel ideas into one’s teaching. Several options might address that issue. First, the programme could be reduced from two weeks to one, especially if *Language Awareness* was omitted. The fourth course (*Designing Curriculum and Materials in English*) could then be integrated into the two remaining courses, *Second Language Learning and the Classroom* and *Communicative Methods and Techniques.* Another option would be to keep the programme intact and offer it over a longer period of time so that participants would not have to devote two uninterrupted weeks during their summers. For example, the programme could be held on evenings or weekends during the regular academic year. The surveys could be completed before the programme began, reducing the total programme hours. Besides, participants could design lessons based on what they learned and offer them as part of their regular teaching at their institutions, enabling a reduction in the total number of hours they would need to be present in class. By implementing the lesson plans in their actual classrooms, teachers could see how the students respond, which may encourage them to try out more of the knowledge and skills they gained from the programme.

Conclusion

To conclude, this in-service, teacher education programme was one step towards addressing a need in Hong Kong's post-secondary sector for education for teachers in integrating content and language. The programme could also be offered with adaptions in other education systems. Programme feedback was generally positive among those who evaluated the programme. Post-programme follow-up was also encouraging. More post-programme follow-up would give a better idea of its long term effectiveness and point to new areas of research.

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Problem Solving in a Foreign Language: A Study in Content and Language Integrated Learning

Lena Heine, Berlin: De Gruyter, 2010, Pp. xii + 217.

Reviewed by **Greg Rouault**, Konan University, Hirao School of Management, Japan

The aim of the book, 11 chapters based on Lena Heine's PhD thesis, is to investigate how learners mentally deal with content-focused activities in a foreign language by using the concept of problem solving tasks for which subjects do not have any immediate solutions. Through empirical evidence, this valuable contribution provides readers with a better understanding of the role foreign language plays in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) which will be of interest to researchers and instructors in cognitive learning, task-based language teaching, and content-focused courses.

In chapter 1, Heine outlines the CLIL paradox where learners have to acquire the subject content while lacking linguistic competence. Since few studies have focused on the role that second language (L2) plays in mental processes for content learning in CLIL settings, the research presented here seeks to explore that gap. The chapters that follow shed light on the interrelationship between the subject and language side of CLIL learning for better implementation in curriculum, materials, and teaching methods.

Chapter 2 provides an overview of theoretical frameworks, models of linguistic knowledge, and the relationship between language and thought in general and more specifically in problem solving situations. This brief historical look at semantic knowledge, conceptual knowledge, cognitive psychology, and social experiences situates the study in the literature and foreshadows the approach used in analyzing the empirical data presented later in chapter 9. The author concludes that although the coding of thought is not bound to language, there is a role for language in building abstract knowledge categories.

In chapter 3, Heine introduces problem solving on a continuum for information processing. Cognitive activity is outlined as neurological processes and in a decomposition of the sub-processes the author defines thinking as “situation-specific activation and construction of different semantic relationships between pieces of information in memory” (p. 26). Solving meaning-focused tasks involves a cumulative sequence of cognitive processes, using more complex, abstract, situation-specific thinking in activating and constructing relations between the reconstruction of knowledge stored in memory and the construction of new knowledge. Content-focused tasks are said to elicit problem solving since specific information, which is not available at the beginning of the process, needs to be constructed.

The relationship to CLIL is made more evident in chapter 4 where Heine argues for a distinction between cognitive processes focused on form (language specific processes) and those focused on meaning (content-specific). She evaluates previous linguistic conceptualizations to arrive at her own model featuring content and language dimensions equally. Chapter 5 introduces Heine’s model of conceptual-linguistic task solving also used in coding her empirical data as shown in chapter 8. The implementation of this model is clarified in chapter 6 which outlines the set of six elicitation tasks designed to answer if and how the foreign language impacts on the cognitive processing of content by being applicable to both bilingual and monolingual learners.

Chapter 7 introduces the think-aloud method used to get at the mental processes involved in the task-solving activities. Chapter 8 features the coding of the empirical data. Chapter 9 provides transcriptions which present the cognitive patterns manifested in the think-aloud data. In this chapter, the analysis of and critical thoughts on the data lead to the author’s hypotheses about the role of the L2 in problem solving on linguistic-rhetorical and conceptual dimensions In chapter 10, the protocols are triangulated with students’ written answers and interview data collected from each student as part of the validation process of the think-aloud method. Chapter 11 summarizes the theoretical model and validation of the think-aloud method. The author also provides implications for the design of learning with CLIL and its content complexity with L2.

Across these chapters, the author does more than a competent job of delineating the steps taken in her research to arrive at the effects of foreign language use in the process of problem solving, making this an approachable and readable monograph. The structure of the volume outlined in Chapter 1 and the useful summaries at the end of each chapter provide access to dip into and review the theoretical underpinnings, empirical methods, or results without needing to digest the well-laid out sequence of the document cover to cover. In a volume largely on cognitive processes, the author is mindful to not overlook how these are embedded in social contexts. In her provocative final remarks, Heine also notes the challenge for research to identify causal relationships between teaching methods and learning.

Given the sub-title, the publication would have done well to make the link between problem solving tasks in the L2 and CLIL more retrievable. Aside from the overview in the first chapter, the index shows only five mentions of CLIL with pages 185-187 on the implications for the design of learning contexts of most significant interest to readers of this Special Edition of the *Asian EFL Journal*. Unfortunately, not accounted for in the index under CLIL are (a) Table 7 (p. 147) on the deeper semantic processing of CLIL learners, (b) the hypotheses drawn on pages 153 and 159, (c) the assertion on page 157 that "the decoding difficulties of the CLIL learners do not lead to larger problems in processing the content" (all repeated in the summary of empirical results on pages 183-184), or (d) the interview questions and response excerpts on pages 170-171. Further, given the author's assumption on p. 62 that "automatic activation of linguistic knowledge is not to be regarded as problem solving … [because it does not] tie up cognitive capacities," the absence of Skehan (1998) as a reference with his analysis of task in terms of code complexity, cognitive complexity (familiarity and processing), and communicative stress is a curious omission. Also the missing reference on page 2 to Garcia (2009) for an international perspective on bilingual education is rather unfortunate as are some non-word spelling mistakes on pages 89 and 178, and a word form error on p. 51.

These shortcomings aside, classroom practitioners and researchers in cognition and tasks alike can find merit in the approach Heine has taken in her in-depth research into the effects of foreign language use on the cognitive processes of meaning-focused problem solving.

The volume successfully meets the aim of contributing to the understanding of how learners deal with content-focused activities while using a foreign language.

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Greg Rouault is a lecturer at Konan University in the Hirao School of Management, Nishinomiya, Japan. He has taught in Japan for over 14 years in a variety of contexts, most recently working with content-based instruction, academic skills, and English for Specific Purposes. His research interests include language and literacy development through brain-based learning, extensive reading, and genre-based writing tasks.