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Editorial

We might have been naively believed our life in the 21st century would be healthier, safer and more peaceful than before. But in reality, we have lived under the pervasive fear of the COVID for more than two years, along with other serious diseases. Approximately 29,000 wildfires erupted in the States in 2021 (Kamal, 2021), while heavy rain has brought catastrophic floods in India, Europe, Canada, Australia and many other regions (cf. United Nations, 2022). The closure of the war in Afghanistan left confusion, uncertainty, and violence (Taliban are back, 2021), and we have now witnessed another war in Ukraine at the moment we are writing this editorial.

Even in this difficult time, however, we can always find bright sides. One is the remarkable achievement of teams of scientists who have developed vaccines and medication in record time based on their restless effort to build up basic medicine in previous decades (Ball, 2020). Another example is a father whose house was submerged under a flood in Australia rescued his family and neighbours (and their dogs) with his boat (Tondorf, 2022). News has also been broadcasting the anti-war demonstrations in every corner of the world, even inside Russia, letting people's voices be heard.

This must be what a philosopher Hannah Arendt calls *action*, which she distinguishes from *labour* (biological processes) and *work* (making artificial materials) (1958/1998., p.7). She then continues, *human plurality* is “the basic condition” of human action (ibid., p.175), which is the notion that “we are all the same, that is, human, in such a way that nobody is ever the same as anyone else who ever lived, lives or will live” (ibid., p.8). When the condition is not satisfied, people stop to act, and society is filled with ferocity and despair.

CLIL practitioners are also the ones who *act* in many ways by making a bridge between the real world and their classroom for students to explore and act on those issues in society, science, and politics. For such CLIL teachers, J-CLIL would be a comfortable nest where we can cuddle each other from time to time, and the nest of J-CLIL was formed by a busy and passionate parent bird, who was flying here and there, collecting bits and pieces, to form the association. That is Sasa.

This volume is dedicated to Professor Shigeru Sasajima, the founding father of J-CLIL, on his retirement. Prof Sasajima is full of surprises. He is multitalented: travelling everywhere to observe many different models of CLIL all over the world, publishing numerous CLIL textbooks with his colleagues (cf. CLIL SDGS, Sasajima et al., 2021) and theoretical books on CLIL (cf. Sasajima, 2021) (see the bookshelf on the J-CLIL websites for more publications by Prof Sasajima), while meticulously organising J-CLIL seminars and the annual conferences. He has recently shown us another aspect of his talent as an entrepreneur. As readers may be well aware, his current primary interest is CLIL teacher education, and his enthusiasm on the project has surprised us again. Literally, the retirement for Prof Sasajima is just a milestone, and his adventure continues, inspiring many people around him.

The volume starts with two featured articles, one is written by Prof Sasajima, and the other complies felicitations for Prof Sasajim's retirement from Prof Richard Johnstone (Prof Sasajima's PhD supervisor), and the three Vice Chairs of J-CLIL, Profs Makoto Ikeda, Kazuko Kashiwagi and Barry Kavanagh. The sections of Practical Report and Research Article follow, the former of which includes four articles and the latter six. Tatsuma Shirai's article focuses on the issue of assessment in CLIL. In his practical report, he discussed what kind of assessment

can be effective and useful for CLIL teaching and showed some suggestions for better CLIL assessment. The second article by Andy Roomy provides the detail descriptions of the processes the author took to develop a CLIL curriculum for university students in the Department of Sports and Leisure Management, sharing the useful checklist for curriculum evaluation. Omori and Kuroda's study conducted a task in which foreign learners of Japanese language were to learn about Japanese culture through creating media content. A questionnaire survey was used to confirm whether or not the aims of the project were being carried out. Caroline Hatchinson's article explores the benefits of using visual texts in the CLIL history classroom. The paper introduces the core concepts underpinning an undergraduate CLIL Japanese History course, and it then applies these concepts to visual image analysis, and outlines practical activities for each.

The section of Research Article starts with the article by Anna Savinykh, who explores the perspectives and potential issues of implementing CLIL into Russian heritage language education from the teachers' point of view. The study showed that teachers are confident that CLIL positively answers the pedagogical needs of learners. Nate Olson describes how the soft CLIL approach has not been widely applied or examined in terms of its potential in the team-teaching context of secondary schools and offers evidence for the potential of soft CLIL in such contexts. Kate Elwood examines how a student presentation's main goal should be on conveying meaningful content. To help student's focus their attention on the significance of presentations for an audience of peers as well as to allow the instructor to gauge peer comprehension of student presentations, the author implemented quizzes based on the presentation content, related to behavioral economics, in a CLIL upper-intermediate university presentation course. The fourth article by Barry Kavanagh examines how a university CLIL class on Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) was conducted through the online platform Zoom and gives insights into student perceptions of the course with respect to language and content learning outcomes. The fifth paper written by Narumi Yokono investigates the role that translanguaging plays as a type of verbal scaffolding in facilitating content and language integrated learning (CLIL). The author suggests the students produced better outcomes when L1 was used as a scaffolding in this research. The last article is a theoretical paper written by Mark DeBoer. It first provides an overview of CLIL and English education at tertiary level, highlights problems of soft CLIL approach in Japan, and ends with proposing a shift from soft CLIL to an alternative CLIL approach, which emphasises competences and knowledge-building through interaction and cognitive functional processes, fostering learners' agency.

In 2022, J-CLIL has begun anew with Sasa's legacy and the leadership of the new chair of the association, Prof Makoto Ikeda. J-CLIL keeps on evolving slowly and steadily for providing necessary education to discern problems we currently face and its solutions for making the world a better place.

JJCLIL Editorial Team

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Featured Article

Above and beyond CLIL

Shigeru Sasajima

Toyo Eiwa University, Founder of J-CLIL

Since J-CLIL was established in 2017, it has so far conducted a number of events and activities such as research meetings, lesson study meetings, conferences, seminars, publications of journals and newsletters. They have covered issues ranging from pre-primary to adult education, and the themes and topics that have been discussed include not just learning and teaching but also business and global issues. Even during the current two-year COVID-19 pandemic, J-CLIL has been 'diverse' to the extent that CLIL pedagogy could become part of the mainstream of education in Japan. I have really appreciated all the work done by J-CLIL colleagues and supporters for the past four years or more. If you do not know much about these events and activities, please see the website archives.

Through taking a glance at the J-CLIL website, you can realize how J-CLIL has contributed to CLIL implementation in Japan. I am really satisfied with the good practice of community we have built up so far. I do hope there will be more development for integrated learning based on the current CLIL pedagogy. When I started a CLIL study group with Professor Katsuhiko Muto and other colleagues at Toyo Eiwa University seven years ago, I did not expect J-CLIL to be developed. I was especially thankful to them for supporting it. Since then, I have had a very fruitful time committing myself to CLIL in Japan until now.

Time and memory are true artists; they remould reality nearer to the heart's desire.
— John Dewey (1920, p. 59)

Time flies and the memories come and go like the tidal waves. As Dewey said above, time and memory might be able to transform reality like you imagined. Your grasp of reality could be fragile and perishable, and you cannot maintain it as it was, so it would be constructed and reconstructed in your brain. Certainly, I have really enjoyed the past five years carrying out wonderful events in the J-CLIL activities. All are good memories.

Constructivism or social constructivism is influential to CLIL methodology. Simply speaking, its concept is that the knowledge we have is not merely acquired but constructed. Constructivism highlights personal experiences, while social constructivism focuses more on social factors, saying that social interaction is the key to constructing knowledge. As a language teacher researcher, I agree that schools or classrooms are essential communities for students to prepare for good social interaction with others. However, it seems to be hard for most Japanese students to create spontaneous interaction with each other in English.

Dewey as well as Vygotsky and Piaget is referred to as a founder of constructivism in psychology and education. He is also famous for pragmatism, which could simply mean a practical approach to the reality: e.g., what works is true and what doesn't work is false. His such philosophy is sometimes very helpful for my CLIL practices and closely related to CLIL pedagogy. Dewey's interactive (or social) constructivism has influenced the current fundamental principles of CLIL as with other learning theories. His philosophy is relevant for a constructivist interpretation of pragmatism, which to my understanding includes some

educational, practical and scientific ideas: e.g., learning by doing, collaborative community of learning, interactive learning contexts between learners, and actual experiences.

We can have facts without thinking but we cannot have thinking without facts.
— John Dewey (unsourced)¹

Facts are essential to understand what you see and how to think about them, and they are required to assess your thought and create your idea. Interactive constructivism is then useful and helpful to teach CLIL. That is because learning requires interactive social activities and pragmatic experiences are significant to deeply learn something.

However, many English classrooms in Japan seem to lack such situations. There could be few interactions among students in English. CLIL, on the other hand, has different approaches, learning some content in English, thinking about some facts and ideas, and communicating them with others in English and Japanese. Students try to understand others in their interactive and social activities, embracing intercultural awareness and global views.

I might remould reality nearer to *my* heart's desire. Although I may not be so pragmatic like Dewey, I have tried to produce *my* CLIL as a teacher artist, thinking with facts. As a "lad o'pairs" in Scotland, I still would like to educate and support CLIL practitioners from now on, and I hope J-CLIL will *mould* a new integrated learning approach above and beyond CLIL in future.

Reference

Dewey, J. (1920). *Reconstruction in Philosophy*. New York: H. Holt and Company.

¹ This quote is shown on the Internet, but the source is not found.

Tributes to Prof Sasajima

Sasa: Japan in Scotland

Richard Johnstone

Professor Emeritus, OBE

Two of the most distinguishing features of Sasa that I came to admire during his visits to Scotland to meet me as his PhD Supervisor were his outstanding ‘punctuality and preparedness’ and his amazing ‘initiative in making excellent use of time and place’. He never missed a planned meeting and was always ready to report on the agreed tasks, but in addition he would use his own initiative to get ‘out and about’ across the country by visiting places of educational, cultural, social, linguistic, and historical interest and to make his own contacts.

In fact, even before beginning his studies with me, he had already done a research project comparing Japanese teachers of EFL with Scottish teachers of Modern Languages, and this proved extremely useful for his doctoral work. At times during our discussions, I might mention a particular person from another Scottish university, and he would reply: “Oh yes, I’ve spoken with her”, and I remember being told in a phone conversation with a CLIL colleague in a distant country in Europe: “By the way, a Japanese man came to see me who said he is your PhD Student”. It had to be Sasa! Maybe this was because he was a mature student taking his PhD and already occupying an important professional position in Japan, with good links to national structures there such as MEXT, so he already possessed lots of ‘know how’ and ‘self-confidence’ that enabled him to use his initiative in ways that were enriching.

The topic of his doctoral thesis was ‘Teacher cognition’ in the case of Japanese teachers of English at secondary school. At the same time, however, another theme not in his thesis was attracting interest across the world: ‘CLIL’. So, on his many travels, Sasa was intent on becoming as ‘CLIL-conversant’ as possible. From the start, he saw great possibilities in it, but at the same time was aware that to help embed it in Japanese education and culture as these were at the time would pose a significant challenge. This is where his doctoral theme of ‘Language teacher cognition’ might come in. It could only help if research could provide insight into the kinds of believing, thinking, feeling, knowing, and doing that were characteristic of Japanese EFL teachers. This might provide some initial awareness of how these characteristics might be understood and possibly point to directions in which they might be further developed in order to meet new challenges such as ‘CLIL’.

One aspect of his thesis in which Sasa became very interested and which might hold significance for subsequent work on CLIL was ‘complexity theory’. Zoltan Dörnyei had claimed that the most common paradigm for research in the social sciences had been based on examining variables in relative isolation from each other, with a view to predicting their effects in a linear direction. By contrast, in complex self-organizing dynamic systems, elements were not isolated but inter-connected and non-linear, and outcomes emerged in largely unpredictable ways. As such it might make sense to view research not as ‘predictive’ but as ‘retrodictive’ (looking backwards) into the system in an attempt to understand what was happening. Hence, two beautiful phrases for which Sasa developed a great liking: ‘retrodictive qualitative modelling’ to describe the research process, and ‘the signature dynamics’ to identify any underlying principles that might be detected within the system that might reveal insight into its

working. They made a significant contribution to the conceptualization and the methodology of Sasa's thesis on Japanese ELT cognition.

It was a source of great pleasure and pride that at an early stage in its development, Japan-CLIL held a residential conference at the University of Stirling in Scotland, where I had been a member of the academic staff for over 35 years. I had of course done my best to keep up with Japan-CLIL online, but the residential conference enabled me to meet delegates from Japan and other countries. It became clearer to me then, and even more so subsequently, that Japan-CLIL is itself a dynamic self-organizing system which is moved forward by a combination of researchers and teachers forming a community of practice and developing their own cognitions and directions. Bravo!

At the Stirling conference Sasa was the central organizer and I was delighted but not at all surprised that at the end of the conference he received an enormous round of applause. *Sasa, please accept my best wishes – and do come back to Scotland. Richard.*

On Professor Sasajima's Retirement

Makoto Ikeda

J-CLIL Vice President, Sophia University

First and foremost, I would like to express my utmost gratitude for Professor Sasajima's tremendous contribution to CLIL in Japan in general and J-CLIL in particular. Over the past decade, he has published numerous CLIL methodology books and textbooks, and delivered talks and workshops nationally and internationally. In addition, as president of J-CLIL, he started up the academic and pedagogical association from scratch in 2017, and the number of members has risen to 450 within five years. In a nutshell, without his vision, inexhaustible energy, and vigorous leadership, CLIL in Japan would not be what it is now. Although Professor Sasajima has retired from his university professorship and the J-CLIL presidency, we know that he is maintaining his service to CLIL, focusing mainly on teacher education. This is good news. I hope CLIL in Japan further advances to the next stage with Professor Sasajima's continuous help.

Professor Sasajima's Practice and Management

Kazuko Kashiwagi

J-CLIL Vice President, J-CLIL Kansai Chapter Chair, Shitennoji University

More than 10 years ago, I was introduced to CLIL in Finland, guided by an encounter with a book on CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning: *Atarashii hassou no jugyo*) written by Professor Shigeru Sasajima. He then founded the Japan CLIL Pedagogy Association (J-CLIL), which grew into a nationwide organization with chapters all over Japan. Today, thanks to Professor Sasajima's efforts, education in Japan has been able to engage in CLIL and be deeply connected with the introduction of the new *Courses of Study* in 2018 and 2019. He always said, "Let's take it easy and work on it." Supported by his words, I would like to continue to create classes through CLIL that encourage students to think independently and contribute to society by gaining student agency.

In order to connect J-CLIL with the worldwide research, he traveled around the world collaborating with international researchers at AILA and other international conferences and inviting them to Japan so that Japanese CLIL researchers could encounter CLIL with authentic resources. When he flew to Finland, I remember how he strongly encouraged young Japanese people studying in Finland in the corner of a bar on a freezing night. They may now be the key players in innovating education in Japan.

I believe that CLIL can be a catalyst for educational innovation. As I have been incorporating CLIL into my daily classes and university department management, the following things have proven to be possible to change around me: First, it provides opportunities for interactive task performance. Second, it develops multi-faceted thinking. Third, it encourages analytical design thinking. At J-CLIL, learning crosses the boundaries of disciplines, whether it is history, economics, human rights, or science. Inheriting his eye for observing and encouraging new endeavors, I hope that J-CLIL will continue to be a community space where innovative proposals can be generated in the future. As members of J-CLIL, we cannot fully express our gratitude for President Sasajima's outstanding leadership.

The Legacy of Professor Sasajima

Barry Kavanagh

J-CLIL Vice President, J-CLIL Tohoku Chair,

I first met Professor Sasajima in 2017 when I invited him to headline a workshop that I arranged at my university on CLIL theory and practice in Japan. I had created a CLIL course at my university, and I wanted to introduce CLIL to my fellow educators as a viable application in the teaching of content through the medium of English. His presentation really inspired the audience. Many educators at my university had heard of CLIL but were not aware of its intricacies and complexities and Professor Sasajima's talk led to some teachers employing CLIL within their own classes, becoming J-CLIL members and presenting about their classroom practice at J-CLIL events.

My first impression on meeting Professor Sasajima was his passion for teaching and CLIL, and I was taken by his charming and friendly nature. I felt at ease in his company and in awe of his knowledge of CLIL and his experience in teaching it. After the workshop he asked me to create and be the chair of J-CLIL Tohoku which I gladly took him up on. It was an incredible honor for me. Our first J-CLIL Tohoku conference was a wonderful success, and he kindly gave the opening keynote address.

His kindness and support since the day we first met has been immense and working with him has been an absolute pleasure. His energy and enthusiasm have no bounds and even after retirement he continues to inspire and be a driving force within CLIL. He reminds me of a Duracell battery, he keeps going and going and going. It is a joy to watch.

His work as the founder of J-CLIL has been phenomenal and its influence on the implementation of CLIL within the classrooms across Japan is second to none. He has created a community of CLIL practitioners who work, teach and research together and of course grow together in the sharing of knowledge and good classroom practice. This community is wide reaching from pre-primary to adult education, at the local, national and even global level.

William Arthur Ward wrote, "The mediocre teacher tells. The good teacher explains. The superior teacher demonstrates. The great teacher inspires." Professor Sasajima is truly a great teacher who has certainly inspired us all and he leaves behind a legacy that will be incredibly important for future CLIL practitioners. I wish him all the luck in the world after his retirement and continue to look forward to working with, and learning from him, on a variety of projects and endeavors.

Good luck Sasa!

Practical Reports

The Effect of Assessment as Learning in CLIL Lessons

Tatsuma Shirai

Yokohama Jogakuin Junior and Senior High School

Abstract

As the national guideline for secondary education has been revised, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) gets more and more attention in Japan. The guideline aims to promote “proactive, interactive, and authentic learning” to foster competencies, which can be realized by utilizing the 4Cs framework of CLIL. There are some previous studies that support this idea, but most of them lack any approach to assessment, which is regarded as important by some research focusing on learners’ autonomy or competencies. The purpose of this paper is to report how self- and peer- assessment (assessment-as-learning) approaches were conducted in CLIL lessons and how these practices affected students’ learning in the lessons. By doing so, this paper aims to promote an assessment approach that can be integrated into CLIL lessons for better learning. Relevant data was collected through students’ self-feedback, an analysis on their improvement on accuracy of writing, and the Ed-tech tool for quantifying students’ competencies, which is called ‘Ai-GROW.’ Although the sample size is too small to generalize the outcome of this practice, the data collected in this practical report show some positive effects of assessment-as-learning approach on students’ learning in CLIL lessons.

Keywords: CLIL, assessment approach, assessment as learning, competency

1. Research Overview

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is becoming increasingly popular and common in English lessons in Japan, possibly due to the revision of Japan's educational guideline for secondary education in 2010. In accordance with the growing popularity of CLIL, more research papers on the effect of CLIL in Japanese educational contexts can be seen. Kudo (2018, p. 48) showed that his students could acquire higher order thinking skills and higher English proficiency through CLIL lessons. Takasago (2020, p. 95) said that students could think deeply by looking upon their learning content as being related to their everyday life in CLIL lessons.

However, this research does not analyze desirable assessment approaches for CLIL education. The International Baccalaureate Organization (IBO) (2018, p. 67) states that:

Students become effective, self-regulated learners when they are actively engaged in assessment and act on constructive feedback. This helps them reflect on their progress, set goals for their learning and engages them in making decisions about what they need to do to achieve these goals.

Therefore, research on effective assessment approaches in CLIL lessons in Japanese educational contexts will help students to be effective, self-regulated learners, leading to better CLIL education.

IBO (2018, p. 83) also suggests that “By encouraging students to actively design, manage and measure their own learning, they develop the skills to use assessments to self-assess, to reflect on and to make adjustments in future learning.” Since CLIL is an active learning method, this assessment approach, which is defined as assessment as learning in the IBO program, is expected to contribute to better students’ learning. However, Sukemune et al. (1985, p. 79) suggests that decisions made on a false sense of self-efficacy bring about undesirable outcomes, so accurate assessment on self has highly functional values. One of the means to realize accurate self-assessment is to get feedback from others. Therefore, an assessment approach should involve not only self-regulation of students’ learning but also peer-assessment and feedback from teachers, to avoid having a false negative assessment on self. Based on this idea, assessment as learning through self-regulation of students’ learning is defined as involving assessment from others. This paper reports on a study on how the assessment approach was used in CLIL lessons in the context of Japanese secondary education.

2. Literature review

Japan's educational guideline for secondary schools was revised in 2018 by The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), which emphasizes “proactive, interactive, and authentic learning” (2020, p.8). MEXT published a pamphlet written in English to introduce the overview of the Ministry, which (2020, p.8) states “MEXT has been endeavoring to surely foster competencies that will be required in the future through lesson improvement from the perspective of proactive, interactive and authentic learning”. As it suggests, MEXT emphasizes “proactive, interactive, and authentic learning” to help students acquire competencies that will be useful in the future. This educational goal is compatible with the concept of CLIL. Ikeda (2021, pp.154 - 155) mentions that CLIL can be expected to foster competencies, which he defined as general abilities required in current society such as utilizing knowledge, thinking critically and logically, communicating and collaborating with others well, or being aware of personal, social, and international responsibility. Therefore, MEXT's educational goal of fostering competencies can be expected to be achieved through CLIL implementation in English lessons in Japan.

This expectation is supported by the compatibility between the framework of CLIL and the concept of “proactive, interactive, and authentic learning.” Ikeda (2011) states that CLIL is characterized by the 4Cs framework, which is composed of Content, Communication, Cognition, and Community or Culture. This framework of the 4Cs promotes students’ active learning. For example, as for the component of ‘Content’, CLIL emphasizes the importance of using authentic material in order to help students be able to actively learn in class. Oddone (2011, p.1) writes, “CLIL employs authentic material and resources, which means creating more realistic learning opportunities but also designing specific tasks to boost students’ understanding. [...] Moreover, authentic material usually proves to be particularly motivating as people find it interesting to understand ‘real things’.” This function of authenticity that motivates students will lead to better active learning. Regarding the component of ‘Communication’, CLIL helps students to effectively interact with each other in a foreign language by giving linguistic scaffolding, which promotes interactive learning in class. The components of ‘Cognition’ and ‘Community and Culture’ encourage students to think deeply and globally, and act locally. In brief, the integration of these 4Cs components can be highly expected to be compatible with the concept of “proactive, interactive, and authentic learning.”

However, there should be careful consideration on whether CLIL really works in Japanese educational contexts. Takahashi (2016, p. 7) states, “Japanese schools regard how to control students as important, rather than the method of effectively teaching them” and “it is very

common that teachers give a lecture and students listen and take notes.” Sato (2001, pp. 58-59) criticized this point by saying, “the era of ‘studying’ is over [...] and children are wandering for ‘learning’ leaving out of the ‘studying’ world” and “the world of ‘studying’ requires children to be obedient rather than be critical”. Therefore, it may be expected that many teachers in Japan are not used to having lessons based on active learning or CLIL. Also, due to the system of entrance examinations for higher education, students in Japan tend to prefer lecture-based lessons because this system requires students to memorize a lot of subject knowledge. That means students in secondary schools may be discouraged to learn in active learning lessons, which is a serious problem because it would be highly difficult to realize “proactive, interactive, and authentic learning” in Japanese educational contexts.

There are some prior studies that could counter these critical ideas. Yamazaki (2016, p. 121) states from his teaching experience, “For high school students who have finished lessons of learning English in a lower grade and passed the test of EIKEN Pre-Second or Second Grade, it is easy to make a transition to the lessons of learning other subjects in English in an upper grade.” Watanabe (2021, p.186) supported this by stating, “The analysis on the result of a questionnaire conducted after my CLIL lessons showed that students felt that CLIL lessons, whose teaching content is integrated with other subjects, are good for them, and that they learned about both teaching content and language in CLIL lessons.” Based on these studies, it would be possible to expect some positive effects from CLIL in Japanese secondary educational contexts.

The shift from lecture-based and knowledge-based lessons to the ones in which students actively learn is supported by educational philosophers in the past. Freire (1972) called the one-way lecture-based education “banking education” (p. 47) and severely criticized it by saying, “The capacity of banking education to minimize or annul the students’ creative power and to stimulate their credulity serves the interests of the oppressors, who care neither to have the world revealed nor to see it transformed” and “In problem-posing education, men develop their power to perceive critically the way they exist in the world with which and in which they find themselves; they come to see the world not as a static reality, but as a reality in process, in transformation” (p.56). The concept of “problem-posing education”, as Freire mentions, is compatible with the 4Cs framework of CLIL because it mentions Cognition, Community or Culture, and Communication. Dewey (2009, pp.129-130 should only be one page as you are citing) says, “A society which makes provision for participation in its good of all its members on equal terms and which secures flexible readjustment of its institutions through interaction of the different forms of associated life is in so far democratic. Such a society must have a type of education which gives individuals a personal interest in social relationships and control, and the habits of mind which secure social changes without introducing disorder.” The concept of education leading to democracy is also compatible with the 4Cs framework, in which students interact with each other and deepen their understanding and ideas on authentic learning materials. Vygotsky (1978, p.86) introduced the theory of the zone of proximal development or ZPD as follows; “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”. He believes that children can learn social skills effectively through the interactions with others in ZPD, which can be achieved by emphasizing the 4Cs framework in class.

However, these positive effects of active learning may depend on how their learning is assessed in CLIL lessons. If teachers assess students’ learning by only focusing on knowledge or skills, they will be discouraged to consider subject topics deeply and to have their own opinions and

instead, will expect teachers to give lectures on specific knowledge or training that explicitly refer to particular skills, so that they can acquire them easily. This educational approach robs students of chances to improve their competencies because it lacks opportunities to interact with each other utilizing their own thoughts.

The importance of assessment approach in active learning lessons is mentioned by Brown et al. (2019), who said “Student-to-student feedback also provides the opportunity for students to control their own learning, to be freed from dependence on a teacher, and even to practice what may later be important communication life skills” (p.314).

The concept of “important communication life skills” are compatible with the definition of competencies that MEXT mentioned above. In addition, Brown et al. (2019) also said some researchers agree that self- and peer assessment has educational benefits such as “encouragement of autonomy” and “increased motivation because of their engagement” (p.314). These are essential in active learning lessons such as CLIL because students do not learn proactively without autonomy and motivation. Therefore, an assessment-as-learning approach such as self- and peer assessment is expected to boost students’ learning in CLIL lessons.

In addition, the use of a rubric for assessment-as- learning approach seems to have a positive effect in foreign language lessons. Wang (2016, p.1) conducted research in a Chinese school and reported the result as follows, “the rubric was perceived as useful for fostering the students’ self-regulation by guiding them through the stages of goal-setting, planning, self-monitoring and self-reflection.” That means students’ learning in CLIL lesson could be boosted by using a rubric that promotes students’ self-regulation of learning.

Having said that, taking Japanese educational contexts into consideration is essential before assuming that the assessment-as-learning approach will work well in Japanese secondary schools. Brown et al. (2019, p.298) writes, “it is important for teachers to understand the context in which they are teaching.” As Takahashi (2016) and Sato (2001) mention above, lecture-based lessons were, or are still, common in Japan. Although Kage (1997, p.146) mention the possible benefits of assessment-as-learning approach in Japanese educational contexts, it could make students confused and upset because the assessment approach is expected to be vastly different from lecture-based lessons. Brown et al. (2019, pp.319 - 320) state that “Self-assessment is a process that many students - especially those in traditional educational systems - may initially find uncomfortable.” In addition, the word ‘assessment’ is usually translated into ‘hyouka’ in Japanese, which could also mean ‘evaluation’ or even ‘valuing’ in Japanese. That means if a teacher asks students to do peer-assessment on their learning with each other, it could sound like asking them to evaluate or value each other's learning. In fact, the author saw students' confusion when asking them to do peer-assessment on their learning. They felt it was upsetting and meaningless to do peer-assessment. Therefore, the research on and practical report of what kind of assessment approach works well in CLIL lessons in Japanese secondary educational contexts is worthwhile.

3. The purpose of this paper and how the relevant data were collected

This paper is a practical report which aims to show how the assessment-as-learning approach can be integrated into CLIL lessons and how the approach could affect students’ learning in CLIL lessons in the Japanese secondary school where this research was conducted. By doing so, this report intends to encourage more CLIL teachers in Japan to conduct an assessment-as-learning approach to promote students’ “proactive, interactive, and authentic learning” in class.

The data related to the purpose of this paper are collected in the following three ways:

- (1) Analyze the students' art appreciation essays to see how their English accuracy is affected before and after the assessment-as-learning approach is implemented. The number of grammatical errors that the students made in the first and last art appreciation essays is counted to show how much progress they had made through CLIL lessons involving the assessment-as-learning approach.
- (2) Analyze the result of the questionnaire with questions that the students answered after the CLIL lessons. The questions were mainly about how much progress the students felt they had made through the CLIL lessons in terms of English proficiency and competencies.
- (3) Analyze the result of Ai-GROW, which is an assessment tool for quantifying students' competencies, to see how the assessment-as-learning approach affects students' competencies.

The Institution of Global Society or IGS (2021, p.1) states, "Ai GROW is an assessment tool for educational institutions to quantify the ability, qualities of the students, and the effect of education." and "Bias-free algorithms and assessment methodology ensures a clean, reliable set of data, free of intrinsic human bias or faking responses." In order to quantify competencies, they "collect[s] self assessment data and external assessment data to calculate an objective score on a candidate's competency strengths across four fundamental domains: cognitive, intrapersonal, interpersonal and community domains." They define competencies as follows: "25 behavioral characteristics that are unique to each individual such as creativity and task setting for succeeding in Society 5.0." Many of competency items that IGS says they can assess through Ai-GROW are compatible with what CLIL aims to foster, so the author has decided to use it as an assessment tool for quantifying students' competencies.

4. Research Setting

The setting of this practical report was in the English lessons for the third graders of the junior high school in Japan for which the author works. The number of students was 26. Most of them began to study English when they were 1st graders at junior high school. The CLIL approach has been implemented for them since the beginning of the 2021 school year, which means this was their first time to learn in CLIL lessons. The author, and his co-worker, who is a native speaker of English, were in charge of the lessons. In the lessons, CLIL focused on art as a teaching content with the following tasks:

- (1) The teachers taught the students how to appreciate artwork with the syntax of 'there is/are-' and the passive voice.
- (2) The teachers and students appreciated some Chagall's artwork together and shared ideas with each other.
- (3) The students made their own artwork, creatively utilizing Chagall's ways of drawing artwork.
- (4) The students appreciated each other's artwork in the way of (2).
- (5) The students gave a speech on their favorite artwork that their classmates created.

In between the task (2) and (3), the students made their own learning goals that they wanted to realize and did self-feedback and peer-review according to the learning goals. This practice of allowing students to make their own criteria is based on some previous studies such as Andrade et al. (2008, p.2) saying, "using a model to generate criteria for an assignment and using a rubric for self-assessment can help elementary school students produce more effective writing." The students were allowed to change the learning goals whenever they like so that they could adjust their learning easily by themselves. Figure 1 is the worksheet that the students used to

make their own learning goals. On the worksheet, the students wrote down their learning goals, self-assessment, and peer-assessment according to their own learning goals. Because the space for self-assessment and peer-assessment were too small, students were asked to write down summative self-assessment and peer-assessment on the worksheet at the end of the Art CLIL lessons, and other self-assessment and peer-assessment were typed out to record them on their own computers.

Table 1 shows how often and when they did self-assessment and peer-assessment. Each day had two lessons, and each lesson was 45 minutes long. Students did self-assessment and peer-assessment for about 10 minutes at the end of the two successive lessons. At the end of Day 5, 6, and 7, the author showed the students what kind of common grammar errors they made as feedback to their writing. The author did not correct individual art appreciation essays on Day 5, 6, and 7. At the end of the last day, the author and his co-worker gave overall feedback to the students. They did not give individual feedback, except when students had difficulty making their learning goals or giving feedback to themselves or their peers. On each day for art appreciation, the students wrote three essays on three different pieces of artwork that their classmates created. After writing each of the essays, students read them out to the classmate who created the artwork they wrote an essay on. The essay in Table 2 below is an example of an art appreciation essay shown to students by the author. Students wrote an essay like this example piece.

Figure 1. Assessment Worksheet

評価観点の説明 ⁴²	自分で考えた評価項目 ⁴³	自己評価 ⁴⁴	他者の評価 ⁴⁵
内容 (美術) ⁴² 今回は「自分のユニークさ」を表現するというのが課題になっています。あなたは自分のユニークさをどのように表したいと考えていますか。シャガールの表現技法 (幻想的な配色や雰囲気、キュビズム、コラージュ) をどのように活かしたいかを考えながら評価項目を設定してみてください。 ⁴³			
言語 (英語) ⁴² 今回は「There is」構文と英語で意見を言うときのフレーズワークを使って、他人の絵画を鑑賞する「自分が描いた絵についてプレゼンする」というのが課題になっています。どのような点に注意してこれらのタスクに取り組みたいと考えますか。あくまでも英語の観点から評価項目を設定してみてください。 ⁴³			
思考 ⁴² 下の「思考の分類」の図をみながら、どういうときにどんな思考を使ってみたいと思いますか。できるだけ具体的に書いてみてください。 ⁴³			
協働 ⁴² クラスメイトの作品に対して鑑賞文を書く際に、英語以外のどのようなことに注意しながら書きたいと考えていますか。できるだけ具体的に書いてみてください。 ⁴³			

(思考の分類の図)⁴²

① シャガールの絵を参考にしながら自分なりのユニークな作品をつくる⁴⁴

② ①をたがいに鑑賞しあう⁴⁴

③ (できれば) NZ の生徒に作品をみせ、感想をもらう⁴⁴

④ 自分の絵について発表する⁴⁴

Name (→ → → → → → → → → →)⁴⁴

Table 1. When students conducted self-assessment and peer-assessment

	*D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6	D7	D8	D9	D10	D11
★ Made students' own learning goals											
(3) Created students' own artwork											
(4) Appreciated each other's artwork											
★ Self-assessment											
★ Peer-assessment											
(5)-1 Wrote a speech script for task 5 in class											
(5)-2 Gave a speech on their favorite artwork											
★ Summative self and peer assessment											
★ Feedback from teachers											

*D1 stands for Day 1

Table 2. An exemplar piece of art appreciation essay on Chagall's artwork entitled "Cello"

I think that the man in the middle likes to play the cello, but he feels sad. There is a man in the middle. His body is a cello. This shows that he likes a cello very much. There is a goat in the bottom right. He plays the violin with the man. I think the goat is the only friend that the man has, so he feels sad. He wants many people to listen to his cello, but he can't. There is a river behind the man. The river is drawn with deep blue. This shows the man's sad feeling. Therefore, this artwork is about a sad story of a lonely man who loves the cello.

5. Data Collection and Analysis

First, the author shows the number of grammatical errors that the students made in their art appreciation essay to see how much progress they made in class in terms of English accuracy. This time, the author focuses on the accuracy of the usage of the passive voice and the 'there is/are-' syntax, because they are language focuses of this series of CLIL lessons. Table 3 shows the total number and percentage of grammar mistakes related to the passive voice and the 'there is/are-' syntax shown in their first art appreciation essays and the last ones. Grammar mistakes related to those grammar points in this paper are defined as follows:

(1) Passive voice

Case1. Inconsistency between subject and be-verb

e.g., Black birds is drawn in the top right of the drawing.

Case2. Omission of be-verb

e.g., Black birds drawn in the top right of the drawing.

Case3. Mistake on past participle

e.g., Black birds are drawing in the top right of the drawing

(2) 'There is/are-' syntax

Case1. Inconsistency between subject and be-verb

e.g., There is some children in the park.

Case2. Omission of be-verb

e.g., There some children in the park.

Case3. Omission of, or mistake on the usage of, pronoun in sentences with 'there is/are-' syntax

e.g., There are some children the park.

Table 3. Number of Grammar mistakes on language focus

		*1st essay	**last essay
There is/are-syntax	Total number of trials to use the target grammar	58	78
	Total number of mistakes	15	11
	***Percentage of mistakes	25%	14%
Passive voice	Total number of trials to use the target grammar	25	52
	Total number of mistakes	11	11
	***Percentage of mistakes	44%	21%

*n = 26, **n=24(two students were absent), *** Round down after the decimal point

As Table 3 shows, their grammatical accuracy and frequency of those two language focuses had improved through the CLIL lessons involving assessment-as-learning approach. However, this is not enough data to support the opinion that students improved their English accuracy by themselves reflexively through the assessment-as-learning approach because it would be possible to also say that students improved their English through the repetition of the same writing tasks with language focus in mind. In order to see how much students improved their accuracy reflexively by themselves, a different approach of gathering data is essential. Therefore, the author focused on the accuracy of the usage of ‘third person singular s’ because this point was not a language focus of the CLIL lessons, but some students set a goal of not making grammar mistakes on this grammar point. By gathering data on the frequency of the mistakes and dividing them into the one of students with the goal and without the goal, the author tried to see how much reflexive learning affects students learning of a foreign language. If the accuracy of the grammar point has improved among those with the goal, but has not among those without, that means students set a goal, adjusted their ways of writing English, and improved their accuracy by themselves without almost any help from teachers. Table 4 is the result of the data gathering.

Table 4. Number of Grammar mistakes on ‘third person singular s’

		*1st essay	**last essay
Students with the goal	Total number of students with the goal	10	10
	Total number of trials to use the target grammar	45	87
	Total number of mistakes	19	9
	***Percentage of mistakes	42%	10%
Students without the goal	Total number of students with the goal	25	52
	Total number of trials to use the target grammar	16	14
	Total number of mistakes	64	105
	***Percentage of mistakes	39%	15%

*n = 26, **n=24(two students were absent), *** Round down after the decimal point

As Table 4 shows, those with the learning goal related to ‘third person singular s’ improved their accuracy on the grammar usage more than those without such goals. This could be viewed as evidence that assessment-as-learning approach, which encourages students to reflexively adjust their ways of learning by themselves, leads to better learning of students in CLIL lessons.

This idea can be criticized by saying that this improvement on accuracy was brought about due to the combination of an assessment-as-learning approach and the repetition of the same task of writing an art appreciation essay. However, the mere repetition of the task might not be enough to cause the improvement. Students with learning goals related to accuracy had broader learning goals related to language usage, such as “I will write an essay that is easy for my

classmates to understand” or “I will write an essay that can convey my ideas on the artworks as precisely as possible”. Because of these learning goals, students cared more about grammar usage and improving their accuracy, and it was an authentic learning experience, which is regarded as highly important in CLIL lessons, that made them really feel like realizing their learning goals. Therefore, it could be said that the quality of authentic learning experience included in CLIL lessons can be boosted by an assessment-as-learning approach, which has led students to learn more reflexively.

Secondly, the author shows the result of the questionnaire with questions that the students answered after the CLIL lessons. Students did a self-evaluation according to the following questions with a scale of 1-5 (5 is the best and 1 is the worst). They also wrote the reason why they chose the number from the scale after each of the questions. Table 5 summarizes the average scores of their self-evaluation.

Table 5. Analysis on the result of the questionnaire (n=26)

Question item	Mean* (1 - 5)	Median (1 - 5)	SD**
(1) I could improve my writing skills through this Art CLIL class.	4.2	4	0.74
(2) I could improve my speaking skills through this Art CLIL class.	4.0	4	0.59
(3) I could improve my reading skills through this Art CLIL class.	3.8	4	0.71
(4) I could improve my listening skills through this Art CLIL class.	4.2	4	0.86
(5) I can appreciate artworks more deeply than before.	4.6	5	0.56
(6) I could express my feelings and ideas in my artwork.	4.3	4	0.67
(7) I could enjoy learning a different subject in English.	4.5	5	0.75
(8) I could try to improve my competencies while learning in class.	3.7	4	1.10
(9) I could learn actively by making my learning goals, reflecting my process of learning, and assessing my learning by myself.	3.7	4	1.11

*Rounded down to the second decimal place **Rounded down to the third decimal place

The result shown in Table 5 could be viewed as evidence that students in the art CLIL class felt that they could improve their English proficiency and competencies. The author analyzed their comments on assessment-as-learning approach to see whether they felt uncomfortable with self-assessment or peer-assessment. There were three negative comments on the assessment approach, but they were about the unfamiliarity of doing self-assessment based on the learning goals that they made by themselves. This was a surprising result because when the author asked students to do a peer-assessment, many of them expressed surprise, possibly because of the linguistic confusion written above. However, after the author carefully explained why peer-assessment is important for their learning, they seemed to understand and carefully assess their peers’ learning according to their peers’ learning goals. Therefore, it could be said that the assessment-as-learning approach can be conducted without making students upset or confused in CLIL lessons in Japan, as long as teachers clearly explain why the assessment

approach is important.

In addition, some positive comments on peer-assessment were seen in their comments, such as “I felt happy when I got a positive comment on my learning from my peer.” or “I felt that I could not achieve some of my learning goals, but my peer assessed that I did. That was good to know.” This positive feedback from their peers would have a good washback on their future learning. Wollenschläger et al. (2015, p.1) said, “Students who received improvement information showed a significantly better performance in planning scientific experiments, perceived themselves as being more competent, and were also more accurate in their self-evaluative performance judgments.” Although this research focused on science lessons, perceiving themselves as being more competent could be expected to have a good positive washback on their future learning.

Thirdly, the author analyzes the results of Ai-GROW, which were conducted in January 2021 and July 2021, when the last Art CLIL lesson was finished. By comparing the results, the improvements on their competencies can be quantified. The competencies items assessed through Ai-GROW are Logical Thinking, Individual Execution Ability, Creativity, Resilience, Self-efficacy, Self-Expression, Empathy & Listening Skills, Extroversion, Flexibility, and Generosity; all of these proved not to improve at all. The quantified scores of their competencies in January are almost the same with the ones in July, which could mean that students did not improve their competencies at all through the Art CLIL lessons, or any other educational practice during the six months, although most of them self-assessed in the questionnaire that they could improve competencies in the Art CLIL lessons.

6. Limitations of This Practice and Expectations of Further Research

This practice was conducted in a private junior high school in Japan. In order to be admitted to the school, students needed to pass the entrance examination. That means students in the school may be highly intelligent and are motivated to learn. This setting could influence the effect of the assessment-as-learning approach on the CLIL lessons because students would be less likely to learn reflexively if they do not have enough motivation. Further practical reports in more various research settings will also be necessary to see how assessment-as-learning approach will work in the context of Japanese secondary education.

This report shows how the assessment-as-learning approach could affect students’ improvement of grammatical accuracy and competencies. Although competencies seem not to have been improved through the CLIL lessons according to the result of Ai-GROW, students’ grammatical accuracy was improved more through the assessment-as-learning approach. However, the author feels that students’ improvement in English proficiency is not just about grammatical accuracy, but also about broader linguistic skills such as “being able to write a longer and better essay with accuracy” or “being able to express a deeper idea in an essay”, which are even more important. The author feels that students have made such improvements through the CLIL lessons, but they could not be quantified because English proficiency test assessing such improvements had not been conducted before and after the CLIL lessons. In order to quantify broader improvements of students on English proficiency, further research with such testing should be conducted.

The fact that improvement on students’ competencies was not seen in Ai-GROW results means that it should be studied by conducting further research. It could mean that the combination of CLIL and assessment-as-learning approach does not foster students’ competencies in Japanese educational contexts. However, from the perspective of Freire's idea quoted above that

banking-concept education diminishes some of students' competencies such as "creative power", it would be difficult to see the individual effects of CLIL and assessment approach on the growth of students' competencies through Ai-GROW because too many variables in school could affect the growth, both positively and negatively. Alternatively, the period of this research could have been too short to see the improvement on students' competencies. Brown et al. (2019, p.315) state that "Assessment of competence may encompass a lesson over several days, a module, or even a whole term of course work," which could mean that Ai-GROW should be used in a longer time perspective. Careful research settings, such as control groups or a longer period of research, will be necessary in further studies regarding this topic.

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A Lesson on Athleisure: An exercise in CLIL curriculum design

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Abstract

One of the issues with education at the tertiary level in Japan is that traditional teaching methodologies or approaches often do not appear to foster the skills that students need to compete in the global economy. As an associate professor in the department of sport and leisure management at a Japanese university, one of my primary responsibilities is creating an English curriculum that will develop these skills. And, as I often tell my students, the first thing you should do when planning something such as a sporting event, or in my case, a new curriculum, is to check whether there is a demand or a need for it. In addition, just like with an event, this input can come from a variety of stakeholders. Similarly, once enough data has been collected, it can be used to establish the vision, mission, goals, and objectives of the event or the philosophy, methodology, goals, and objectives of the curriculum. With these guidelines in mind, you can begin preparing for the event or developing materials for the curriculum. Next, just like when you hold an event, the curriculum has to be implemented. Finally, the event or the curriculum needs to be evaluated in terms of whether it is successful or not. This evaluation can be used to improve future events or improve the curriculum. With this analogy in mind, this paper describes the various steps that have been taken to plan, develop, implement, and evaluate the effectiveness of a content and language integrated learning (CLIL) curriculum for the EFL (English as a foreign language). English component of a sport and leisure management program and does this by looking at specific materials that were developed for our curriculum that focus on athleisure. Recommendations on how to better implement the CLIL program will be based on data derived from student evaluations and feedback.

Keywords: Sports, leisure, CLIL, curriculum design, athleisure

1. Introduction

Most of the public is probably familiar with the Japanese tennis player, Naomi Osaka, especially since she has been in the news a lot recently. For students studying sport and leisure management, she is an excellent case study on the intersection between sports, marketing, and fashion. One reason is because she became the highest-paid female athlete in the world in 2020 (Badenhausen, 2020). According to Forbes Magazine (2020), “Osaka earned \$37.4 million [over] the last 12 months from prize money and endorsements” (Badenhausen, 2020, para. 2). You might ask yourself, “where does all this money come from?”. Well, in terms of endorsements, Naomi Osaka was able to sign an annual endorsement contract with Nike for more than \$10 million in 2019 shortly after winning two Grand Slams back-to-back (Badenhausen, 2020, para. 11). Other endorsements and collaborations include famous fashion brands such as Louis Vuitton, Comme des Garçons, Adeam (Haskell, 2020) and Sacai (Badenhausen, 2019). You may wonder why a tennis star would attract so much investment from the fashion industry. It all comes down to demographics. Tennis sporting events are one of the few sporting events that are favored by women (Badenhausen, 2020) with some sources putting the breakdown somewhere around 55/45 for U.S. Open attendees (Badenhausen, 2020). In addition, attendees have a lot of money to spend with an “average household income of \$216,000” for the 2019 U.S. Open attendees (Badenhausen, 2020, para. 11). Of course, most tennis fans do not have such a high level of income, but it is probably safe to say that many tennis fans enjoy a higher-than average level of income with about 30% making “at least

\$75,000 in household income” (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2014, p.120).

One of the reasons why I chose Naomi Osaka as my lead-in was because I have been studying about tennis and fashion with one of my seminar students. This was a wonderful experience for me because I was able to learn a lot from my sessions with my seminar student and then pass on what we learned together to other students in our department. For example, through our seminar sessions, I could learn more about the impact famous tennis players like Naomi Osaka have had on fashion and how this relates to sport and leisure management. I then incorporated this into our curriculum by following the standard curriculum design stages outlined by Richards (1990) in *The Language Teaching Matrix*. These stages are very similar to the steps we use in the *Event Management Course* to plan events. In this course, I tell students that the first thing you should do when planning something such as a sporting event, or in my case, a new curriculum, is to check whether there is a demand or a need for it. In my case, demand, or a need for a CLIL (content and language integrated learning) EFL (English as a foreign language) program can be seen from input from a variety of stakeholders, such as the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), the university, the Department of Sport and Leisure Management, parents, students, and experts in the fields of SLA and pedagogy. For example, MEXT outlined in the *4. Viewpoints to be considered, particularly in the forthcoming implementation of educational policies* (1990), a shift to a teaching approach that emphasizes problem-solving, lifelong learning skills, independent thought, and self-directed learning to prepare students for globalization. The university where I work, in line with MEXT’s recommendations, has also called on faculty members to shift to more student-centered learning (SCL) approaches such as CLIL and active learning. The university even provides CLIL workshops for faculty. Our department’s mission statement also mirrors these needs along with parent and student feedback. And as with a sporting event, once enough data or input has been collected, it can be used to establish the vision, mission, goals, and objectives of the event or the philosophy, methodology, goals, and objectives of the curriculum. Based upon input from stakeholders, our curriculum stresses a focus on current principles and best practices as the teaching philosophy with CLIL as the teaching methodology. Our mission statement is “to provide students with the knowledge, skills, and experience to be effective and efficient sport/recreation/leisure managers both domestically and internationally”. In the athleisure lesson, the following goals were defined as; Goal #1: To do this through the Sport, Recreation, and Leisure management Framework ©, and Goal #2: To show the relationship between sport, recreation, and leisure management and athleisure. The following are objectives;

- Objective 1: To show the relationship between athleisure and athletes,
- Objective 2: To show the relationship between athleisure and fashion brands,
- Objective 3: To show the relationship between athleisure and musicians,
- Objective 4: To show the relationship between athleisure and social media figures,
- Objective 5: To show the relationship between athleisure and movie stars,
- Objective 6: To show the relationship between athleisure and gangs, and
- Objective 7: To show how these relationships connect to sport, recreation, and leisure management.

And as with a sporting event, with these guidelines in mind, you can begin preparing for the event or developing materials for the curriculum. With the athleisure lesson, I did this by connecting a variety of sport and leisure management elements through the use of frameworks and checklists. Next, just like when you hold an event, the curriculum has to be implemented. In our program this is done through the courses and special hands-on workshops. Finally, the

event or the curriculum needs to be evaluated in terms of whether it is successful or not. This evaluation can be used to improve future events or improve the curriculum. In our program, we use students' work, feedback, and evaluations to evaluate and revise the curriculum. With these stages in mind, I outline how the athleisure lesson has been used to plan, develop, implement, and evaluate the effectiveness of our CLIL EFL curriculum. However, first, I provide some background on the CLIL approach, the rationale for this program, and guidelines for a CLIL curriculum.

2. Background on the CLIL Approach

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is “a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of content and language with the objective of promoting both content and language mastery to predefined levels” (Martin, Marsh, Mehisto, & Wolf, 2014, p.11). With regard to our program, it could be defined more specifically as an approach for teaching sport and leisure management through English with the dual goals of facilitating both content and second language acquisition (SLA). In addition, CLIL core features include multiple focuses, such as a focus on content and a focus on language, “safe and enriching learning environments, authenticity, active learning, scaffolding, and cooperation” (Martin et al., 2014, p.32). With regard to our program, these core features could be defined as the multiple focuses of sport and leisure management and English as a foreign language, safe and enriching environments that encourage students to actively engage in communicative learning, the use of authentic materials tailored to our students' needs that focus on real-world cases and provide opportunities for the use and development of problem-solving skills, scaffolding through language support, and cooperation between students through task-based activities.

Along with these core features, the CLIL approach is based upon four driving principles known as the 4Cs: content, communication, cognition, and culture (Martin et al., 2014). The CLIL concept of “content refers to the subject-specific content of curricular subjects taught through the target language” (Cambridge Assessment English, 2019, p.6). In our program, this content primarily focuses on core areas of sport and leisure management such as leadership, management, HR, finance, marketing, PR, and risk management. The CLIL concept of communication refers to the process by which students “are encouraged to produce subject-specific language orally as well as in writing, and to participate in meaningful interaction” (Cambridge Assessment English, p.4). In our program, communication is achieved through CLIL and task-based learning (TBL) activities primarily involving pair work and group work. The CLIL concept of “cognition involves cognitive processes ... such as remembering, understanding and applying, analyzing, evaluating and creative thinking” (Cambridge Assessment English, 2019, p.5). This concept is derived from Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives (Bloom, 1956) and is often referred to in CLIL as higher-order-thinking skills (HOTS) and lower-order-thinking skills (LOTS) (Cambridge Assessment English, 2019). In our program, this is mainly achieved through task-based activities that focus on collecting data, summarizing the data, analyzing the data, and then using this analysis to engage in creative problem-solving. Finally, according to Coyle (2005), the CLIL concept of culture involves providing opportunities for students to become more self-aware and more aware of others in “our pluricultural and plurilingual world” (p.4). In terms of our program, we could define culture as the goal of realizing our students' full potential by building upon their international understanding of the world, especially in the fields of sports and leisure. This can be done through content that highlights the similarities and differences in the management of sports and leisure around the world.

3. Rationale for a CLIL Curriculum

As stated in the introduction, the rationale for this CLIL EFL curriculum is based upon input from stakeholders. Experts in the field of SLA and pedagogy also constitute an important source of input in the curriculum design process. Coyle, Holmes, and King (2009) provides the following rationale for the use of a CLIL approach in curriculum design: First, the CLIL approach “can improve teacher and learner motivation and raise the quality of teaching and learning (p.11). This rationale is supported by research (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2011) that suggests that CLIL students are generally more motivated than EFL students because of the use of the CLIL approach. In addition, the CLIL approach can facilitate SLA through “increased contact time with the” second language (L2) and increases the quality of interaction in the L2 (Urmeneta, 2019, p.10). These two qualities of CLIL are why CLIL is favored by the European Union language policymakers (Urmeneta, 2019). Secondly, according to Coyle et al. (2009), the CLIL curriculum offers several “benefits to teachers and students in relation to” the 4Cs (p.12). In terms of content, it allows for “integrating content from across the curriculum through high quality language integration” (p.12). In terms of cognition, it engages “learners through creativity, higher order thinking and knowledge processing” (p.12). In terms of communication, it allows students to use “language to learn and mediate ideas, thoughts, and values” (p.12). And, in terms of culture, it allows students to interpret and understand “the significance of content and language and their contributions to identity” (p.12). With these benefits in mind, I created a checklist for designing, implementing, and evaluating the sport and leisure management curriculum (See Appendix A).

4. Guidelines for a CLIL Curriculum

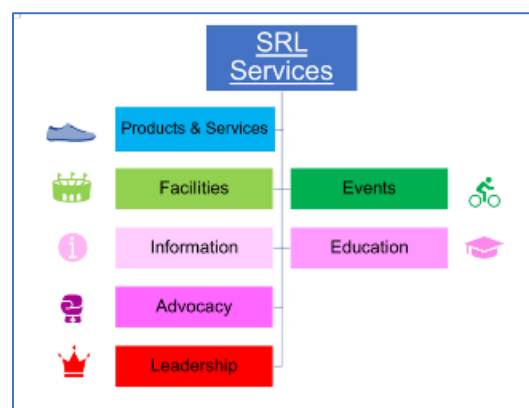
For the guidelines on CLIL curriculum design, I would like to combine two sources: Urmeneta’s *An Introduction to Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) for Teachers and Educators* (2019) and Coyle, Holmes, and King’s *Toward an Integrated Curriculum – CLIL National Statement and Guidelines* (2019) to create the *Sport, Recreation, Leisure Management (SRLM) CLIL Curriculum Checklist* ©. Urmeneta provides six general guidelines that teachers should follow when using the CLIL approach in curriculum design. First, making the language comprehensible (Urmeneta, 2019) is a guiding principle in my own personal teaching philosophy. This principle is based in part on the work of Krashen and the importance of comprehensible input (Krashen, 2009). In our program, I do this by simplifying the language as much as possible, the use of charts, and by providing students with various strategies that aid in making the input more comprehensible. This guideline takes precedence over all other guidelines in curriculum design for our program since without comprehensible input, real acquisition cannot occur (Krashen, 1982). The second, scaffolding concepts (Urmeneta, 2019), is another way that I make the input comprehensible both in terms of language and content. In our program, I do this through visual cues, case studies, and language support. The third, shaping the learner’s language, is done through a focus on form, drills, and vocabulary-building exercises. The fourth, reassuring students, is also connected to Krashen’s work and his concept of the affective filter (Krashen, 1982). In our program, I lower the affective filter through creating a fun, interesting, interactive, and non-threatening learning environment. I do this through music videos, image-based vocabulary, games, and creative tasks. Finally, the fifth, “creating a community of learners” (Urmeneta, 2019, p.13), requires shifting from teacher-centered learning (TCL) to student-centered learning (SCL). In our program, I do this through TBL and SCL activities such as group projects, group work, and pair work.

While Urmeneta’s guidelines (2019) provide general guidelines with a focus on SLA, Coyle et al.’s guidelines (2009) provide a more detailed list of best practices with a focus on the CLIL

approach. They separate these best practices into four categories: Choosing appropriate content, developing intercultural understanding, “using language to learn/learning to use language” (p.15), making meanings exchanges that matter, and progression. Each of these best practices involves several recommendations. For example, with the sport and leisure management program, one of the most time-consuming aspects of developing a curriculum from scratch is the research that goes into finding interesting, useful, current, relevant, authentic, and applicable source materials that can be incorporated into our curriculum. Coyle et al. (2009) provides several recommendations under the heading choosing appropriate content. First, “lessons must integrate subject area content and language content” (p.14). Since, sport and leisure management does not have an established school of study yet, deciding what content should be used in our curriculum requires establishing a framework for the field that can be used as a guide when determining curriculum design and which source materials should be incorporated into the curriculum. In an attempt to establish both a guide for the sport and leisure management curriculum and a conceptual definition of the field of sport and leisure management, I created the Sport, Recreation, and Leisure Framework or SRL Framework © (See Figure 1). This framework is derived in part from *10 Major Elements in the Modern Leisure-Service Delivery System* (McLean & Hurd, 2015).

In our program, I also use the SRL Framework © to establish the teaching goals and objectives of our program. For example, I am currently collecting and building a library of source materials from a variety of sources, the *Harvard Business Review* in particular, to create the content for a course on leadership in sport and leisure management. Once enough source materials have been collected through this research, I plan to use the *Sport, Recreation, and Leisure Management (SRLM) CLIL Curriculum Checklist* © (See Appendix A) by synthesizing several of my checklists based upon literature in the field, to determine which source materials to incorporate into our program. Coyle et al. (2009) also recommends “choosing relevant contexts for learning [sic] which are appropriate to the learner’s age, ability and interests and provide meaningful interactions with and through the language” under the same heading, choosing appropriate content (p.14). In our program, I do this by building a library of source materials, which are then simplified, adapted, and supplemented in order to provide the foundation for CLIL, TBL, SCL, and active learning activities.

Figure 1. SRL Services Framework



It should be noted that in curriculum design, one approach, just like in management, is to define the mission, then the teaching philosophy and methodology, then the goals and objectives, then the materials, and finally how these materials are integrated into classroom activities. In the case of our program, deciding on the materials for the program, required establishing a framework, then a body of source materials, and then adapting these materials to the learners’ current level of competence in both the field of sport and leisure management and in English. With our program, this is especially difficult to do because almost none of the students have studied about sport and leisure management before entering our program, and, on top of that, a vast majority of the students have only the most basic level of proficiency in the English language. This means that the source materials need to be simplified as much possible to aid comprehension. In addition, the source materials need to be connected to the students in a way

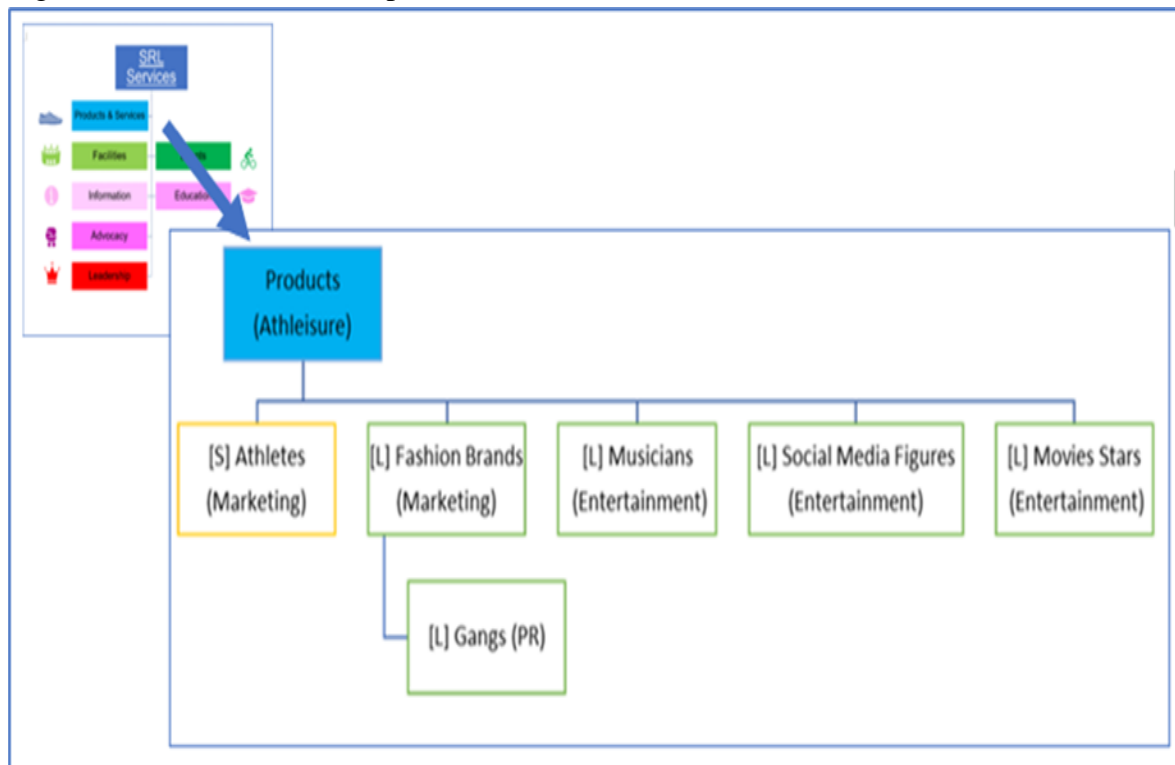
that they find interesting. Finally, the source materials need to be modified to provide opportunities for meaningful communication. It should be noted that when developing the curriculum for our program, deciding on the content comes before providing language contexts because the language contexts are built from the content later in the process of curriculum design.

5. A Lesson on Athleisure

In the previous sections, I provided some background on the use of CLIL, a rationale for the use of a CLIL curriculum, and guidelines that were used to create and implement a sport, recreation, and leisure CLIL curriculum at my university. In this section, I describe a two-day lesson created for this curriculum. First, athleisure is clothing that can be used for both exercise and everyday wear. As I mentioned at the beginning of this paper, much of the material in this case study was the result of research done in the process of conducting a seminar with a student who was writing their graduate report on the relationship between tennis and fashion. Before conducting this seminar, I had only the most rudimentary knowledge on this relationship, but through my work with this seminar student, I was able to develop an understanding of how the history of tennis and fashion could be used to illustrate the complex relationships between sports and leisure in sport and leisure management. Most of the research for this lesson sprung from my work with this seminar student. This research was done through materials found on the internet. With other projects, I try to incorporate academic and scholarly sources as much as possible, but because of the topic and its limited range, I decided that internet sources would suffice. Most of the sources were fashion magazines such as *Vogue* or *Allure*. However, when I expanded the topic from the relationship between tennis and fashion to athleisure and from there to the history of athleisure, and in particular, the track suit, I used internet sources that were generally connected with music or sports. As I learned more about these topics, I began to see how a lesson on athleisure could be used to address one of the most challenging aspects of teaching sport and leisure management, how to simplify the complex relations between sports and leisure so that they can be understood and managed in a systematic manner. Thus, a lesson plan was born that shows how these complex interactions can be easily understood through the SRL Framework © and other related frameworks.

This realization provided the impetus for a lesson on athleisure I now use in a course called *Freshman Seminar 1 (FS1)*. Since this is an omnibus course with each faculty member in our department in charge of one or more lessons, I did not create a textbook for this course. In addition, due to the Covid 19 pandemic, we are limited in the types of activities we can currently do in the classroom because of the risk of contagion. As you can see in the *Freshman Seminar 1 Athleisure Day 1 & Day 2 Lesson Plan* (See Appendix B), this lesson focuses on how different elements of sports and leisure intersect in athleisure. When planning this lesson, I created an idea map of the relationship between the SRL Framework © and athleisure in my mind (See Figure 2) and then did further research on the areas that I did not have sufficient material to complete the lesson plan. The idea map shows how athleisure connects to the SRL Framework ©, how athleisure is connected to various professional sports and aspects of leisure such as entertainment, and how this in turn is connected to aspects of entertainment such as fashion, music, movies, and social media. This shows how useful having an overarching framework to build your curriculum from can be in providing cohesiveness and continuity to the curriculum. It should also be noted that this kind of idea mapping could be used as a CLIL activity, too, if time suffices. In the design stage, I found, simplified, and modified source materials to make the materials and activities meet the *Sport, Recreation, and Leisure Management (SRLM) CLIL Curriculum Checklist* © criteria for the lesson.

Figure 2. Athleisure Idea Map



I also used the checklist to pinpoint criteria covered and whether criteria still needed to be covered. For example, in later versions of the curriculum, I incorporated TBL activities to provide opportunities for progression, meaningful communication, and HOTS because these criteria had not been met in the original version. In the design stage, I also focused on promoting SLA through the use of scaffolding to foster understanding and build cohesiveness. For example, I repeatedly used the sentence structure, “have made wearing tracksuits popular.” In order to cover key players in sports and leisure, I tried to find documented cases of key players such as influencers, famous athletes, movie stars, musicians, and fashion icons that played a role in making tracksuits popular and thus contributed to the rise of the athleisure industry. This approach allowed me to show students how sport and leisure management is often about connecting elements of sports and leisure together in order to create new management opportunities. For example, in the framework I have established, sport and leisure management can be broken down into three sectors: private, public, and nonprofit. The private sector can be broken down into three subsectors: media and entertainment, sport-related businesses, and tourism and hospitality. When I do this lesson with students, I have a poster of these breakdowns on the blackboard and point out where each stakeholder falls in this framework. For instance, influencers, musicians, movie stars, and fashion icons could be placed in the subsector of media and entertainment, and famous athletes in the subsector sport-related businesses. Tennis, athleisure, and tracksuits could all be placed in the sport-related business subsector. I hope this shows how by having developed a series of simple organizational charts or frameworks for sport and leisure management, I can simplify authentic source materials to the point where they are comprehensible for a majority of my students, provide cohesion and continuity through the use of unifying concepts, and show the connections and complex relationships in sport and leisure management through a variety of fun, interesting, and relevant real-world examples. Finally, in other courses in our program, we look at the marketing and management of athleisure in greater detail, thus providing cohesion and continuity to the program as a whole.

6. Evaluating the Athleisure Lesson

Next, the *Sport, Recreation, and Leisure Management (SRLM) CLIL Curriculum Checklist* © was used to evaluate the lesson plan, materials, and activities based upon my checklist and student feedback. To make the process as smooth as possible, students were provided with class notes (See Appendix C: *Freshman Seminar Day 1 & 2 Class Notes*).

6.1. Activity 1: YouTube Video – Canadian Streetwear (10 minutes)

This video features several young men showing off their streetwear and explaining how much each item cost. It provides students with a model for Activity 2. It is aimed at getting students interested in the lesson by using their peers and a subject they are interested in, streetwear.

Activity 1 Teacher Evaluation Using the *SRLM CLIL Curriculum Checklist* ©

SRLM CLIL Curriculum Checklist © 2021		Comments	√
1. SRLM Content	a. Leadership		
	b. Management		
	c. HR		
	d. Finance		
	e. Marketing		
	f. PR		
	g. Risk Management		
	h. Other	Leisure: Fashion	√
2. SLA	a. Comprehensible + 1 / Appropriate Level (SS Needs)	The images and prices are easy to understand	√
	b. Fun	Some crazy prices	√
	c. Interesting	Current streetwear trends	√
	d. Useful (Applicable)		
	e. Current	Current streetwear trends	√
	f. Relevant	Current streetwear trends	√
	g. Authentic	Current streetwear trends	√
	h. Applicable		
	i. 4 Skills (Reading, Writing, Listening, Speaking)	Listening	
3. CLIL/TBL/SCL	a. Scaffolding		
	b. Focus on Form		
	c. Promotes Progression		
	d. Promotes Meaningful Communication		
	e. Promotes Cognition (Summary, Analysis, Application)		
	f. Promotes Creativity		
	g. Promotes Intercultural Awareness		
Total			7/24

Activity 1 Student Feedback Using a Simplified SLA Checklist (20 Students)

2. SLA	Understandable	3.3
	Fun	3.5
	Interesting	3.7
	Useful	3.0
	Current	3.4
Total		3/5

From the limited student feedback that I have collected so far, Activity 1 appears to meet most of the SLA checklist criteria in the students' opinion and students found the activity fun and interesting. From this feedback, I feel that the video helped create a positive learning environment and generate interest in the topic.

6.2. Activity 2: Complimenting Others on Clothing (10 minutes)

Using the Canadian Streetwear Video as a model, students compliment each other on their outfits.

Activity 2 Teacher Evaluation Using the SRLM CLIL Curriculum Checklist ©

SRLM CLIL Curriculum Checklist © 2021		Comments	√
1. SRLM Content	a. Leadership		
	b. Management		
	c. HR		
	d. Finance		
	e. Marketing		
	f. PR		
	g. Risk Management		
	h. Other	Fashion / Leisure	√
2. SLA	a. Comprehensible + 1 / Appropriate Level (SS Needs)	Student generated vocabulary	√
	b. Fun	Fashion related	√
	c. Interesting	Personalized content	√
	d. Useful (Applicable)	High Frequency L2	√
	e. Current		
	f. Relevant		
	g. Authentic		
	h. Applicable		
	i. 4 Skills (Reading, Writing, Listening, Speaking)	Listening / Speaking	
3. CLIL/TBL/SCL	a. Scaffolding	Scripted Dialogue	√
	b. Focus on Form	Singular vs. Plural Forms	√
	c. Promotes Progression		
	d. Promotes Meaningful Communication		
	e. Promotes Cognition (Summary, Analysis, Application)		
	f. Promotes Creativity		
	g. Promotes Intercultural Awareness		
Total			7/24

Activity 2 Student Feedback Using a Simplified SLA Checklist (20 Students)

2. SLA	Understandable	4.0
	Fun	3.4
	Interesting	3.4
	Useful	3.8
	Current	3.2
Total		4/5

From the student feedback, Activity 2 appears to meet most of the SLA checklist criteria in the students' opinion and students found the activity understandable and useful. From this feedback, I feel that the activity provided a focus on form within the context of the lesson's topic.

6.3. Activity 3.1. Split Reading - The History of Athleisure (30 mins)

(See Appendix D: Split Reading - The History of Athleisure)

Students work in pairs to complete the split-reading.

Activity 3.1 Teacher Evaluation Using the SRLM CLIL Curriculum Checklist ©

SRLM CLIL Curriculum Checklist © 2021		Comments	√
1. SRLM Content	a. Leadership	Shows the connection between leadership and athleisure	√
	b. Management		
	c. HR		
	d. Finance	Shows the connection between finance and athleisure	√
	e. Marketing	Shows the connection between marketing and athleisure	√
	f. PR	Shows the connection between PR and athleisure	√
	g. Risk Management	Shows the connection between risk management and athleisure	√
	h. Other	Fashion / Leisure	√
2. SLA	a. Comprehensible + 1 / Appropriate Level (SS Needs)	Material is tailored to ss level	√
	b. Fun	Student Centered	√
	c. Interesting	Content is tailored to ss interests	√
	d. Useful (Applicable)	Shows the connection between shareholders and athleisure	√
	e. Current	Current streetwear trends	√
	f. Relevant	Current streetwear trends	√
	g. Authentic	Current streetwear trends	√
	h. Applicable		
	i. 4 Skills (Reading, Writing, Listening, Speaking)	4 skills	√
3. CLIL/TBL/SCL	a. Scaffolding	Scripted dialogues, scaffolded language	√
	b. Focus on Form	Singular vs. Plural	√
	c. Promotes Progression	Athleisure Timeline / Used to introduce other materials on athleisure in our program	√
	d. Promotes Meaningful Communication	Info-gap	√
	e. Promotes Cognition (Summary, Analysis, Application)		
	f. Promotes Creativity		
	g. Promotes Intercultural Awareness	Cross-cultural comparisons	√
Total			19/24

Activity 3.1 Student Feedback Using a Simplified SLA Checklist (20 Students)

2. SLA	Understandable	3.4
	Fun	3.6
	Interesting	3.5
	Useful	3.8
	Current	3.2
Total		3/5

From student feedback, Activity 3.1 appears to meet most of the SLA checklist criteria in the students' opinion and students found the activity fun and useful. From the student feedback, I feel that this activity helped students understand the vocabulary used in the lecture, but I also felt that some sort of comprehension exercise should be added here if time allowed.

6.4. Activity 3.2. Lecture: The History of Athleisure: Tracksuits (PowerPoint) (20 Minutes)

4-minute lecture by the teacher with breaks for student interviews (See Class Notes)

Activity 3.2 Teacher Evaluation Using the *SRLM CLIL Curriculum Checklist* ©

SRLM CLIL Curriculum Checklist © 2021		Comments	✓
1. SRLM Content	a. Leadership	Shows the connection between leadership and athleisure	✓
	b. Management		
	c. HR		
	d. Finance	Shows the connection between finance and athleisure	✓
	e. Marketing	Shows the connection between marketing and athleisure	✓
	f. PR	Shows the connection between PR and athleisure	✓
	g. Risk Management	Shows the connection between risk management and athleisure	✓
	h. Other	Fashion / Leisure	✓
2. SLA	a. Comprehensible + 1 / Appropriate Level (SS Needs)	Material is tailored to ss level	✓
	b. Fun	Student Centered	✓
	c. Interesting	Content is tailored to ss interests	✓
	d. Useful (Applicable)	Shows the connection between shareholders and athleisure	✓
	e. Current	Current streetwear trends	✓
	f. Relevant	Current streetwear trends	✓
	g. Authentic	Current streetwear trends	✓
	h. Applicable		
	i. 4 Skills (Reading, Writing, Listening, Speaking)	4 skills	✓
3. CLIL/TBL/SCL	a. Scaffolding	Scripted dialogues, scaffolded language	✓
	b. Focus on Form	Singular vs. Plural	✓
	c. Promotes Progression	Athleisure Timeline / Used to introduce other materials on athleisure in our program	✓
	d. Promotes Meaningful Communication	Info-gap	✓
	e. Promotes Cognition (Summary, Analysis, Application)		
	f. Promotes Creativity		
	g. Promotes Intercultural Awareness	Cross-cultural comparisons	✓
Total			19/24

Activity 3.2 Student Feedback Using a Simplified SLA Checklist (20 Students)

2. SLA	Understandable	4.3
	Fun	3.9
	Interesting	3.7
	Useful	3.5
	Current	3.5
Total		4/5

From student feedback, Activity 3.3 3.2? appears to meet most of the SLA checklist criteria in the students' opinion and students found the activity understandable, fun, interesting, useful, and current. From this feedback, I feel that the lesson was a success because I was able to make a teacher-centered learning activity, the lecture, which is the core of the lesson, more student-centered through scaffolding in the lesson and in the activity itself.

6.5. Activity 4: My adidas Music Video (15 mins)

Close using the song's chorus

Activity 4 Teacher Evaluation Using the SRLM CLIL Curriculum Checklist ©

SRLM CLIL Curriculum Checklist © 2021		Comments	√
1. SRLM Content	a. Leadership		
	b. Management		
	c. HR		
	d. Finance		
	e. Marketing		
	f. PR		
	g. Risk Management		
	h. Other	Music and Fashion	√
2. SLA	a. Comprehensible + 1 / Appropriate Level (SS Needs)	Visual and Audial Cues	√
	b. Fun	Hip Music Video	√
	c. Interesting	Hip Music Video	√
	d. Useful (Applicable)		
	e. Current		
	f. Relevant	Connected to Athleisure	√
	g. Authentic	Hip Music Video	√
	h. Applicable		
	i. 4 Skills (Reading, Writing, Listening, Speaking)	Listening	
3. CLIL/TBL/SCL	a. Scaffolding	Close	√
	b. Focus on Form		
	c. Promotes Progression		
	d. Promotes Meaningful Communication		
	e. Promotes Cognition (Summary, Analysis, Application)		
	f. Promotes Creativity		
	g. Promotes Intercultural Awareness		
Total			7/24

Activity 4 Student Feedback Using a Simplified SLA Checklist (20 Students)

2. SLA	Understandable	4.3
	Fun	4.4
	Interesting	4.2
	Useful	3.6
	Current	3.4
Total		4/5

From student feedback, Activity 4 appears to meet most of the SLA checklist criteria in the students' opinion and students found the activity understandable, fun, interesting, and useful. From this feedback, I feel that the music video helped end the lesson on an understandable and fun note, thus, creating a positive learning environment and motivating students to participate in the learning process.

In summary, through the *Sport, Recreation, and Leisure Management (SRLM) CLIL Curriculum Checklist* ©, I was able to show that the materials in the FS Day 1 lesson plan covered nineteen of twenty-four of the items on the checklist. FS Day 2 lesson plan brought the total to twenty-two of twenty-four points. Based upon the checklist, it seems that the two lessons combined meet the criteria I have establish for our CLIL EFL program. Student

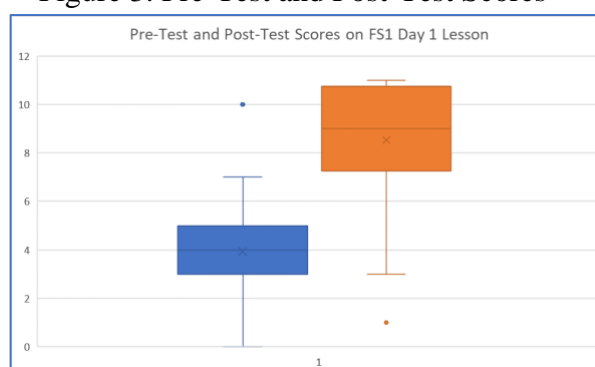
feedback also seems to suggest the two lessons combined meet the criteria I have established for the SLA component of our program.

SRLM CLIL Curriculum Checklist © 2021		Comments	√
1. SRLM Content	a. Leadership		√
	b. Management		
	c. HR		
	d. Finance		√
	e. Marketing		√
	f. PR		√
	g. Risk Management		√
	h. Other		√
2. SLA	a. Comprehensible + 1 / Appropriate Level (SS Needs)		√
	b. Fun		√
	c. Interesting		√
	d. Useful (Applicable)		√
	e. Current		√
	f. Relevant		√
	g. Authentic		√
	h. Applicable		
	i. 4 Skills (Reading, Writing, Listening, Speaking)		√
3. CLIL/TBL/SCL	a. Scaffolding		√
	b. Focus on Form		√
	c. Promotes Progression		√
	d. Promotes Meaningful Communication		√
	e. Promotes Cognition (Summary, Analysis, Application)		
	f. Promotes Creativity		
	g. Promotes Intercultural Awareness		√
Total			19/24

6.6. Student Scores on the FS Day 1 Lesson's Pre-Test and Post-Test

For the purpose of this paper and the development of our program, I had students complete a pre-test and a post-test on the contents of the lecture. The pre-test was administered at the beginning of the class and the post-test at the end. The results are as follows (see Figure 3): Using a T-Test for 2 dependent means with a significance level of 0.05 and a two-tailed hypothesis, with the value of t being 9.15784, the value of p being $<.00001$, the result is significant at $p <.05$.

Figure 3. Pre-Test and Post-Test Scores



In closing, I would like to mention that I hope to publish textbooks that I have created for two courses in our program in house this year. Once these textbooks are ready, I feel I will have created a consistent enough curriculum to begin the process of evaluating the curriculum and its contents in a more systematic manner through students' work, feedback, and evaluations. Up until now, I have been focusing on developing the curriculum in our program, but I finally

feel that the program has reached the point where we can evaluate its effectiveness in a more systematic manner such as I have shown in the evaluation of the lesson plans section of this paper.

7. Recommendations

As I have shown, the athleisure lesson has been incorporated into our curriculum by following the standard curriculum design stages: Stage (1) establish demand or a need for a curriculum; Stage (2) plan the curriculum; Stage (3) create materials for the curriculum; Stage (4) implement the curriculum; and Stage (5) evaluate and revise the curriculum. In Stage (1), I recommend establishing demand or a need for a CLIL EFL curriculum by collecting input from a variety of stakeholders such, as in my case, MEXT and the university. In addition, I recommend providing a rationale for the use of a CLIL curriculum based upon current research in the fields of SLA and pedagogy. In Stage (2), the planning stage, I recommend establishing the teaching philosophy (a focus on current principles and best practices), the teaching methodology or methodologies (CLIL, TBL, SCL, active learning, and communicative learning approaches), and the goals and objectives of the lesson. In addition, if it is a nascent field like sport and leisure management, I recommend creating a master framework for the content and then connecting it to other frameworks to provide cohesion and continuity. I recommend doing this to show the relationship between the lesson and the content. In my case, I accomplish this by connecting the lesson to the SRL Framework ©. I also recommend creating checklists based upon the work of experts in the fields of SLA and CLIL. These checklists can be used to provide cohesion and continuity to the curriculum by pinpointing criteria covered and by showing when criteria still need to be covered. In Stage (3), create the materials, I recommend using frameworks, checklists, and a variety of source materials to create materials that meet the criteria of the curriculum. In my case, I do this by using the *Sport, Recreation, and Leisure Management (SRLM) CLIL Curriculum Checklist* ©. I recommend tailoring these source materials to the students' levels of competency in English and level of mastery of content. In addition, I recommend creating materials to support the tailored materials in order to provide scaffolding and language support. I also recommend creating materials to provide opportunities for HOTS and application of the principles and practices upon which the materials are based. In Stage (4), the implementation stage, I recommend continuing to do research and generate new materials on the topic to keep the materials current and relevant. I also recommend monitoring the class to pinpoint areas for improvement. If the situation arises where there is something currently happening in the world that is connected to the lesson, I recommend incorporating it into the lesson through the use of the internet. In Stage (5), evaluate and revise the curriculum, I recommend using students' work, feedback, and evaluations to pinpoint aspects of the curriculum that needs to be revised. I also recommend incorporating any new materials that were created in the implementation stage if applicable. From these recommendations, I think it can be seen that for a nascent field like sport and leisure management, a CLIL curriculum is a never-ending process that requires many more man-hours than traditional approaches. However, that said, a CLIL curriculum offers teachers to the opportunity to tailor a curriculum to the specific needs of their students. It also provides the teacher with the opportunity to constantly build and improve upon the curriculum.

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Appendix A: SRLM CLIL Curriculum Checklist

SRLM CLIL Curriculum Checklist © 2021		Comments	√
1. SRLM Content	a. Leadership		
	b. Management		
	c. HR		
	d. Finance		
	e. Marketing		
	f. PR		
	g. Risk Management		
	h. Other		
2. SLA	a. Comprehensible + 1 / Appropriate Level (SS Needs)		
	b. Fun		
	c. Interesting		
	d. Useful (Applicable)		
	e. Current		
	f. Relevant		
	g. Authentic		
	h. Applicable		
	i. 4 Skills (Reading, Writing, Listening, Speaking)		
3. CLIL/TBI/SCL	a. Scaffolding		
	b. Focus on Form		
	c. Promotes Progression		
	d. Promotes Meaningful Communication		
	e. Promotes Cognition (Summary, Analysis, Application)		
	f. Promotes Creativity		
	g. Promotes Intercultural Awareness		
		Total	/24

Notes: Adapted from Martin et al. (2014), Cambridge Assessment English (2019), & Coyle et al. (2009)

Appendix B: Freshman Seminar 1 Athleisure Day 1 & 2 Lesson Plan

<i>Freshman Seminar 1 Athleisure Day 1 & 2 Lesson Plan</i>
Teaching Methodology: CLIL
Teaching Philosophy: Focus on current principles and best practices
Mission Statement: To provide students with the knowledge, skills, and experience to be effective and efficient sport/recreation/leisure managers both domestically and internationally.
Goal #1: To do this through the SRL Framework ©
Goal #2: To show the relationship between the SRLM and athleisure
Objective 1: To show the relationship between athleisure and athletes
Objective 2: To show the relationship between athleisure and fashion brands
Objective 3: To show the relationship between athleisure and musicians
Objective 4: To show the relationship between athleisure and social media figures
Objective 5: To show the relationship between athleisure and movie stars
Objective 6: To show the relationship between athleisure and gangs
Objective 7: To show how these relationships connect to SRLM
<p style="text-align: center;">Day 1 (100 mins)</p> <p>Activity 1: YouTube Video – Canadian Streetwear (10 mins) Materials: <i>Blackboard Sheet 1</i> (Objectives: Elicit Schema, Scaffolding - Preferences) Student rate the outfits.</p> <p>Activity 2: Complimenting Clothing (10 mins) Materials: <i>Class Notes</i> (Objectives: Elicit Schema, Focus on Form – Singular vs. Plural, Vocabulary)</p> <p>Activity 3.1: Vocabulary Sheet (5 minutes) Materials: <i>Vocabulary Sheet</i> (Vocabulary) I do this as a separate sheet from the class notes so that students can use it to build a word bank.</p> <p>Activity 3.2: Split Reading based on the lecture <i>The History of Athleisure</i> (30 mins) Materials: <i>Class Notes</i> (Objectives: Content, SLA, Scaffolding)</p> <p>Activity 3.3: Lecture: <i>The History of Athleisure with breaks for student interviews</i> (20 mins) Materials: <i>PowerPoint and Class Notes</i> (Objectives: Content, SLA, Scaffolding) The teacher gives the lecture but takes breaks in the lecture for student interviews based upon the contents of the lecture. I do this as a separate sheet from the class notes for info-gap purposes.</p> <p>Activity 4: My adidas Music Video (15 mins) Materials: <i>Class Notes</i> (Elicit Schema, Lessening the Affective Filter, SLA, Content) Close using the song's chorus</p> <p>Homework: Online Assignment – Quiz on the Lecture</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Day 2 (100 mins)</p> <p>Activity 1: Groupwork – Names of Clothing (15 mins) Materials: <i>Blackboard</i> (Objectives: Elicit Schema, Focus on Form, Vocabulary) GW - Game: Groups write down as many names of clothes as they can in 5 minutes. The group with the most correct names wins. [Teacher corrects mistakes at the end of 5 minutes]</p> <p>Activity 1: YouTube Video: The History of Workout Clothes (10 mins) Materials: <i>Class Notes</i> (Objectives: Elicit Schema, Focus on Form, Vocabulary) Students interview each other about exercise/working out</p> <p>Activity 3: Task-based Activity - Making a Sales Presentation (45 mins) Materials: <i>Sales Pitch Handout</i> (Objectives: Communication, Content, Scaffolding, HOTS)</p> <p>Activity 4: Wrap-up: Japanese Examples of Famous Athletes Promoting Athleisure (20 mins) Materials: <i>Class Notes</i> (Objectives: Culture)</p> <p>Homework: Online Assignment – Essay on Athleisure</p>

Appendix C: Freshman Seminar Day 1 & 2 Class Notes

FS1 Lesson Plan Day 1	ONLINE CHECKLIST FOR DAY 1					
<p>Activity 1: Canadian Streetwear Activity 2: Complimenting Activity 3: The History of Athleisure with a focus on tracksuits Activity 4: My adidas Music Video</p>	<p><input type="checkbox"/> Online Assignment 1</p>					
<p>Activity 1: YouTube Video – Canadian Streetwear</p> <p>In the video you can see people showing off their streetwear and talking about how much their outfits cost them.</p> <p>CW: Let's rate their outfits!</p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20%;">Love it!</td> <td style="width: 20%;">I like it.</td> <td style="width: 20%;">It's OK.</td> <td style="width: 20%;">I don't really like it!</td> <td style="width: 20%;">Hate it!</td> </tr> </table>		Love it!	I like it.	It's OK.	I don't really like it!	Hate it!
Love it!	I like it.	It's OK.	I don't really like it!	Hate it!		
<p>Activity 2: Complimenting</p> <p>Cultural Note: North Americans often start up a conversation by complimenting people on something (clothes, hair, etc.).</p> <p>Let's use the Canadian streetwear video to talk about our outfits!</p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 50%;">S1) I really like your outfit!</td> <td style="width: 50%;">S2) Thanks! The North Face jacket was 35,000 yen. The Gotcha sweatshirt was 1,000 yen. The Champion sweatpants were 3,000 yen. The Nike sneakers were 45,000 yen.</td> </tr> </table>		S1) I really like your outfit!	S2) Thanks! The North Face jacket was 35,000 yen. The Gotcha sweatshirt was 1,000 yen. The Champion sweatpants were 3,000 yen. The Nike sneakers were 45,000 yen.			
S1) I really like your outfit!	S2) Thanks! The North Face jacket was 35,000 yen. The Gotcha sweatshirt was 1,000 yen. The Champion sweatpants were 3,000 yen. The Nike sneakers were 45,000 yen.					
<p>Activity 3: The History of Athleisure with a focus on tracksuits</p> <p>3.1: CW: Translate the vocabulary</p> <p>See Vocabulary Sheet</p> <p>3.2: Split-Reading: PW: Complete the split reading with your partner!</p> <p>See Split-Reading Sheets</p>						

FS1 Lesson Plan Day 2	ONLINE CHECKLIST FOR DAY 2																						
<p>Activity 1: Names of Clothing Activity 2: Complimenting Activity 3: The History of Athleisure with a focus on tracksuits Activity 4: My adidas Music Video</p>	<p><input type="checkbox"/> Online Assignment 2</p>																						
<p>Activity 1: Groupwork – Names of Clothing (15 mins)</p> <p>CW: How many names of clothes can your group write down in 5 minutes. The group with the most correct wins.</p>																							
<p>Activity 2: YouTube Video: The History of Workout Clothes</p> <p>Interview your partner about exercising!</p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <th style="width: 50%;">Question</th> <th style="width: 50%;">Answer</th> </tr> <tr> <td>1. Do you like to exercise?</td> <td>Yes, I like to ...</td> </tr> <tr> <td>2. How often do you exercise?</td> <td>About ...</td> </tr> <tr> <td>3. Where do you exercise?</td> <td>Usually at the ...</td> </tr> <tr> <td>4. When do you exercise?</td> <td>Usually ...</td> </tr> <tr> <td>5. What do you usually wear when you exercise?</td> <td>Usually ...</td> </tr> <tr> <td>6. Do you ever use the school gym?</td> <td>Yes, I like to ...</td> </tr> <tr> <td>7. Do you ever use the school pool?</td> <td>Yes, I like to ...</td> </tr> <tr> <td>8. Do you ever use the school track?</td> <td>Yes, I like to ...</td> </tr> <tr> <td>9. Do you ever use campus rec?</td> <td>Yes, I like to ...</td> </tr> <tr> <td>10. Have you ever hurt yourself (while) exercising?</td> <td>Yes, I ...</td> </tr> </table>		Question	Answer	1. Do you like to exercise?	Yes, I like to ...	2. How often do you exercise?	About ...	3. Where do you exercise?	Usually at the ...	4. When do you exercise?	Usually ...	5. What do you usually wear when you exercise?	Usually ...	6. Do you ever use the school gym?	Yes, I like to ...	7. Do you ever use the school pool?	Yes, I like to ...	8. Do you ever use the school track?	Yes, I like to ...	9. Do you ever use campus rec?	Yes, I like to ...	10. Have you ever hurt yourself (while) exercising?	Yes, I ...
Question	Answer																						
1. Do you like to exercise?	Yes, I like to ...																						
2. How often do you exercise?	About ...																						
3. Where do you exercise?	Usually at the ...																						
4. When do you exercise?	Usually ...																						
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6. Do you ever use the school gym?	Yes, I like to ...																						
7. Do you ever use the school pool?	Yes, I like to ...																						
8. Do you ever use the school track?	Yes, I like to ...																						
9. Do you ever use campus rec?	Yes, I like to ...																						
10. Have you ever hurt yourself (while) exercising?	Yes, I ...																						
<p>Activity 3: Task-based Activity - Making an Athleisure Sales Presentation</p> <p>See Sales Presentation Sheet</p>																							

3.3: Athleisure Lecture: PW: While you listen to the PowerPoint lecture, interview your partner on my cue!	
1. What's your favorite sneaker?	
2. What's your favorite polo shirt?	
3. What's your favorite tracksuit? [US: Tracksuit / UK: Trainer]	
4. Are you into martial arts? Like why or why not?	
5. Are you into hip-hop? Like why or why not?	
6. Are you into Britpop? Like why or why not?	
7. Are you into soccer? Like why or why not?	
8. Are you into gangster rap? Like why or why not?	
9. Are you into social media personalities? Like why or why not?	
10. Are you into luxury brands? Like why or why not?	

Activity 4: My Adidas by Run DNC Music Video (15 mins)

Feel in the missing blanks!

"My Adidas, walk through (1) _____ doors
And roam all over coliseum floors
I stepped on (2) _____, at Live Aid
All the people gave, and the poor got paid
And out of (3) _____ I did speak
I wore my sneakers but I'm not a sneak
My Adidas touch the sand of a foreign land

With (4) _____ in hand, I cold took command
My Adidas and me close as can be
We make a mean (5) _____, my Adidas and me
We get around together, we down (6) _____
And we won't be mad when caught in bad weather"

concert	forever	mic	speakers	stage	team
---------	---------	-----	----------	-------	------

Homework: Online Assignment 1

Activity 4: Naomi Osaka and Fashion

Naomi Osaka is the highest paid female athlete ever¹. A lot of her income came from sponsorship and endorsement contracts. She is estimated to have earned over \$34m from sponsorship and endorsement contracts in 2020². [Sponsorship: Ex. Naomi wears the Nike logo at events. / Endorsement: Ex. Naomi tells people to buy the brand]

Louis Vuitton: Osaka is paid to endorse Louis Vuitton's brand and products. She is the first professional athlete for this role. Osaka said that she has gotten a Louis Vuitton bag for her birthday almost every year since she was 16³. The endorsement contract is over a million dollar⁴.

Nike: Osaka is sponsored by Nike. For example, she promotes their brand through clothing collaborations that feature her Japanese, Haitian, and American heritage, wears their logo at events, and appears in their commercials. Nike is Osaka's biggest sponsor and pays her about \$10m a year⁴.

Adem / Comme des Garçons / Strathberry: Osaka has also collaborated with various brands to produce her own line of clothing and accessories. Note: These are collaborations, not sponsorships or endorsements.

¹ [https://www.foxsports.com/story/naomi-osaka-2020-olympics-10-things-to-know-about-her-07282020](#)

² [https://www.foxsports.com/story/naomi-osaka-2020-olympics-10-things-to-know-about-her-07282020](#)

³ [https://www.foxsports.com/story/naomi-osaka-2020-olympics-10-things-to-know-about-her-07282020](#)

⁴ [https://www.foxsports.com/story/naomi-osaka-2020-olympics-10-things-to-know-about-her-07282020](#)

Q1) Who sponsors Osaka?	Q2) How much do they pay her?
Q3) Which brand does she endorse?	Q4) How much do they pay her?
Q5) What some of her current collaborations?	

Homework: Online Assignment 2

Appendix D: Split Reading - *The History of Athleisure*

Student 1: A Brief History of Athleisure: Tracksuits

Sneakers, Tracksuits, and Tennis

Like sneakers, and polo shirts, tracksuits probably became popular in part because of tennis fashion.

Sneakers and Tennis

Some experts believe that sneakers were first used in tennis (invention of galvanized rubber and the need for shoes that wouldn't damage the grass).

They were also called felony shoes because they let criminals **sneak** around.

Polo Shirts and Tennis

Some experts believe that polo shirts were basically popularized by Rene Lacoste, a tennis star.

The Lacoste Polo Shirt was a must have for many young people in the 1990s.

The Perry Polo Shirt (another famous tennis player's brand) became very popular with skinheads and now white power groups in the US.

In fact, the black Perry Polo shirt became so popular with white power groups, Perry stopped making it.

The Tracksuit and Famous Tennis Players

Some experts believe that athleisure was first popularized by Bjorn Borg and FILA in the 1970s.

He helped make athleisure popular and the Fila brand famous worldwide after he was photographed holding up the Wimbledon Trophy while wearing their tracksuit.

The Tracksuit and Movie Stars

Movie stars have also made wearing tracksuits as streetwear popular. Bruce Lee was an early fan of tracksuits, and many people copied his style in the 70s.

His yellow jumpsuit sold for \$100,000 in 2013.

The Tracksuit and Hip-Hop Artists

Hip hop artists have also made wearing tracksuits as streetwear popular. Run-DMC's hit song, *My Adidas* helped make Adidas popular because many people copied their hip hop streetwear style in the late 80s.

They were probably **the first band to sign a major endorsement contract with a fashion brand**.

It changed music and fashion forever.

The Tracksuit and Rock Stars

At the same time hip hop and rap were making tracksuits popular as streetwear in the US, Bands like Oasis and Blur were making wearing tracksuits as streetwear popular in the UK.

Because of these bands, streetwear became a must have for young people and especially (1) _____ around the world in the 90s.

The Tracksuit and Athletes

Athletes like Beckham have also made wearing tracksuits as streetwear popular. Many fans copied their (2) _____ tracksuits in the 90s.

Some fans copied their expensive tracksuits style and taste in Italian and French luxury tracksuits.

The Tracksuit and Gangs

Both in the US and UK gangs and gangster rap have made wearing tracksuits as streetwear popular.

Some people say companies like Adidas have (3) _____ on their hands for sponsoring gangster rap.

The Tracksuit and Influencers

Artists like Beyonce, Kanye West, and Kylie Jenner have all made wearing tracksuits at streetwear popular.

Most of the big-name influencers in the US have their own streetwear (4) _____ which feature tracksuits.

The Tracksuit and High Culture

Luxury brands like Gucci, Prada, and Boss have all made wearing the tracksuit as streetwear popular.

These tracksuits can cost (5) _____ of dollars.

The Tracksuit and Netflix

Interest in tracksuits has nearly doubled since the series debuted in mid-September.

Netflix now sells a (6) _____ collection on its online store.

And let's finish with the most expensive kicks!

Kanye West's Air Yeezy sold for (7) _____ million at Sotheby's in 2021.

Student 2: A Brief History of Athleisure: Tracksuits

Sneakers, Tracksuits, and Tennis

Like sneakers, and polo shirts, tracksuits probably became popular in part because of tennis fashion.

Sneakers and Tennis

Some experts believe that sneakers were (1) _____ used in tennis (invention of galvanized rubber and the need for shoes that wouldn't damage the grass).

They were also called felony shoes because they let criminals **sneak** around.

Polo Shirts and Tennis

Some experts believe that polo shirts were basically (2) _____ by Rene Lacoste, a tennis star.

The Lacoste Polo Shirt was a must have for many young people in the 1990s.

The Perry Polo Shirt (another famous tennis player's brand) became very popular with skinheads and now white (3) _____ groups in the US.

In fact, the black Perry Polo shirt became so popular with white power groups, Perry stopped making it.

The Tracksuit and Famous Tennis Players

Some experts believe that (4) _____ was first popularized by Bjorn Borg and FILA in the 1970s.

He helped make athleisure popular and the Fila brand famous worldwide after he was photographed holding up the (5) _____ Trophy while wearing their tracksuit.

The Tracksuit and Movie Stars

Movie stars have also made wearing tracksuits as streetwear popular. Bruce Lee was an early (6) _____ of tracksuits, and many people copied his style in the 70s.

His yellow jumpsuit sold for \$100,000 in 2013.

The Tracksuit and Hip-Hop Artists

Hip hop artists have also made wearing tracksuits as streetwear popular. Run-DMC's hit song, *My Adidas* helped make Adidas popular because many people copied their hip hop streetwear style in the late 80s.

They were probably **the first band to sign a major (7) _____ contract with a fashion brand**.

It changed music and fashion forever.

The Tracksuit and Rock Stars

At the same time hip hop and rap were making tracksuits popular as streetwear in the US, Bands like Oasis and Blur were making wearing tracksuits as streetwear popular in the UK.

Because of these bands, streetwear became a must have for young people and especially clubbers around the world in the 90s.

The Tracksuit and Athletes

Athletes like Beckham have also made wearing tracksuits as streetwear popular. Many fans copied their sporty tracksuits in the 90s.

The Tracksuit and Gangs

Both in the US and UK gangs and gangster rap have made wearing tracksuits as streetwear popular.

Some people say companies like Adidas have blood on their hands for sponsoring gangster rap.

The Tracksuit and Influencers

Artists like Beyonce, Kanye West, and Kylie Jenner have all made wearing tracksuits at streetwear popular.

Most of the big-name influencers in the US have their own streetwear lines which feature tracksuits.

The Tracksuit and High Culture

Luxury brands like Gucci, Prada, and Boss have all made wearing the tracksuit as streetwear popular.

These tracksuits can cost thousands of dollars.

The Tracksuit and Netflix

Interest in tracksuits has nearly doubled since the series debuted in mid-September.

Netflix now sells a *Squid Game* collection on its online store.

And let's finish with the most expensive kicks!

Kanye West's Air Yeezy sold for \$1.8 million at Sotheby's in 2021.

A Review of a Short-Term Japanese Language Program Focusing on Japanese Pop-Culture: From the Perspective of CLIL

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Abstract

This paper reports on the practice of a short-term Japanese language program under the theme of Japanese pop culture, and summarizes it from the perspective of the 4Cs emphasized in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). The program consists of four parts: an intermediate Japanese course, Japan studies, field trips, and project work. In the Japanese course, students learn related vocabulary through reading materials on pop culture and in-class activities. In Japan studies, students attend lectures by experts and practitioners in four fields related to pop culture. During field trips, students experience what they have learned in Japanese courses and in Japan studies. In project work, as an integrated activity, students worked in groups with similar interests to produce their creative content, planning in entirety from theme settings to methods of expression. Reviewing the program from the CLIL perspective, the structure embodies the 4Cs. In addition, each element of the 4Cs is incorporated in its four main components. Thus, it can be said that this is a multidimensional CLIL practice that embodies the 4Cs in a complex manner.

Keywords: Short-term Japanese language program, Japanese pop culture, Japan Studies, field trip, project work, CLIL, 4Cs

1. Introduction

Many universities offer short-term intensive programs to attract overseas students, and Tokyo Metropolitan University (TMU) has been offering programs from beginner to intermediate level of Japanese during the summer and winter vacations. However, in the past, short-term Japanese programs were limited to Japanese language studies and a superficial experience of Japanese culture that did not allow students to discuss their favorite topics in Japanese. In addition, the duration of short-term intensive programs did not support a rapid improvement in Japanese language skills (Kim et al., 2018).

Therefore, TMU designed a three-week program that aimed to help students learn about each other's interests, and to acquire and use the Japanese language skills necessary for that learning. The program consists of four parts: an intermediate Japanese course, Japan studies, field trips, and project work, where students learn and discuss information related to old and new pop cultures, such as Japanese manga, anime, J-Pop, and Kabuki, in which they are interested. The students absorbed and practiced Japanese. Through this, the goal was to have "international students learn about what they are interested in, authentically using Japanese." The main purpose of the program was not to acquire new language skills but to provide an opportunity for students to use their existing knowledge and be productive.

Okuno (2018, p.16) states that the goal of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is to nurture global citizens who have "content" knowledge to discuss, "reasoning" that is logical and flexible, "language skills" to communicate with each other effectively, and the

ability to “collaborate” with a diverse community to solve problems.

From the beginning, the Japanese language program in Winter 2019 was not designed based on the CLIL philosophy. However, based on awareness of the issues mentioned above, the program encouraged students to learn from each other about their interests, using Japanese. Consequently, it has resulted in the realization of the CLIL philosophy.

This paper describes the program in Winter 2019, which began in January 2019 at the International Center of Tokyo Metropolitan University. The present study will review the entire program and its four main components from the perspective of the 4Cs in CLIL to sort out and clarify what this program has achieved².

2. Winter 2019 overview

TMU offered a three-week program from January 8, to January 25, 2019. The main theme of this program was “Japan's Old and New Pop Culture.” The objective was for international students to use Japanese in an authentic way while learning about a subject that they were interested in.

The program was organized into four main components: a Japanese language course, Japan Studies, field trips, and project work. In Japan Studies, students listen to lectures by experts and practitioners in four types of pop culture. On field trips, they experienced what they had learned in Japanese language courses and Japan Studies. In project work, groups of students with similar interests collaborated to create their own creative content, from theme setting to expression methods.

As a result, 17 students from six universities in four countries (China, South Korea, Australia, and Russia) with whom TMU had student exchange agreements participated in the event. Participants in Winter 2019 were required to have an intermediate level of Japanese, which had the highest record of returning to mid-term to long-term exchange programs. However, the Japanese language proficiency of the participants was higher than expected, ranging from 164 to 280 points on the J-CAT³ score. These scores are equivalent to A2 to B1 in the JF (Japan Foundation) Standard for Japanese-Language Education based on CEFR. As a result, the program could be conducted in Japanese.

The final grades of the program participants were determined based on their scores on the Japanese language course quiz (30%), their participation in classes and other activities (40%), and their self-evaluation of the presentation and rubric (30%).

3. The 4Cs in CLIL

As a tool to analyze the main components of the Winter 2019 program, this paper uses the basic concept of the 4Cs in CLIL: Content (subject matter), Communication (language learning and using), Cognition (learning and thinking processes), and Culture (developing intercultural understanding and global citizenship) (Coyle et al., 2010, p.41). Culture is also sometimes written as Community or Culture (Community). In the context of the short-term Japanese language program, we would also like to emphasize the concept of community, which refers

² This paper is based on the presentation titled “The Implementation of Japanese Short-Term Program with a Theme of “Pop Culture,”” given at The Second J-CLIL TOHOKU Chapter Conference, June 15, 2019.

³ For more information about the online Japanese language testing system J-CAT, please refer to the following official website: <https://j-cat.jalesa.org/>

to places and activities that value relationships with others and collaborative learning. Therefore, in this report, the term “Community/Culture” is used on the basis of Okuno (2018).

According to Coyle et al. (2010), the 4Cs can be summarized as follows. First, “Content” in CLIL refers to themes or topics that promote the acquisition and the growth of new knowledge and skills, including the target language, and should be consistent with learners' needs and interests. “Communication” refers to the language communication skills that emerge with the theme or topic, including the overall language knowledge that supports these skills. “Cognition” is the development from superficial understanding, such as memory (LOTS: Lower-Order Thinking Skills), to a deeper understanding that enables action and communication by the person concerned (HOTS: Higher-Order Thinking Skills). It is critical to design language education and learning support considering this growth process of reasoning. Lastly, “Community/Culture” means accepting diversity, reflecting on oneself, promoting mutual understanding through dialogue, and cooperative learning from each other.

Following Okuno (2018), in the context of Japanese language education, the 4Cs, the key concepts that define the CLIL framework, can be summarized in the following table.

Table 1. The framework of the 4Cs

Content	Themes or topics Knowing-that (declarative knowledge) Knowing-how (procedural knowledge)
Communication (Language knowledge/ language use)	Language knowledge: new vocabulary, expressions, grammar items, etc. Language skills: reading materials, how to gather information, how to discuss, how to proceed with group work, note-taking, report writing, etc.
Cognition	LOTS: Memory > Understanding > Application HOTS: Analysis > Evaluation > Creation
Community/Culture (Cooperative learning and Cross-cultural understanding)	Collaboration, cooperative learning International understanding, cross-cultural/maternal understanding, understanding others

Teachers practicing CLIL set the goal that learners acquire a level of knowledge that enables them to use and apply the content of topics and themes that are of interest to them. It is not sufficient to understand the content. Apart from acquiring new vocabulary, expressions, grammar, and other language knowledge to achieve this goal, learners need language skills, such as, collecting information and reading a wide range of materials. It is necessary to move from lower-order thinking skills (LOTS) to higher-order thinking skills (HOTS): that is, from basic memorization to comprehension, based on comparison and categorization; to further application, analysis based on critique and examination; to evaluation based on reflection; and to think independently and creatively. Finally, students are expected to improve their thinking skills to be able to create their own skills. In addition, CLIL aims for students to accept cultural diversity, deepen mutual understanding with others, and work together to solve problems and issues.

Although there have been a few examples of CLIL taken into practice in Japanese language education in recent years, most of them are for intermediate or advanced level learners (e.g., Sato & Miyamoto, 2014; Sato & Okuno, 2017; Fukagawa et al., 2018). There is only one case of practice for beginners and intermediate-level learners (Okuno & Wu, 2020). There is no report of CLIL being incorporated in short-term courses yet. However, the 4Cs could be the design guideline of the short-term Japanese Language Course.

The following sections will analyze each of the main components of the Winter 2019 program—a Japanese language course, Japan Studies, field trips, and project work—from the perspective of the 4Cs.

4. The 4Cs in Winter 2019

4.1 Japanese language course

Two classes were organized for the Japanese language course taking into consideration the diversity of the students' nationality, hometown, and university affiliation. However, the Japanese level set and the class schedule (content and progress) remained the same.

The textbook used was *POP CULTURE NEW & OLD: Elementary and Intermediate Japanese through Pop Culture* (Hanai, 2017). This textbook had an extensive list of vocabulary, grammar rules, and other learning resources at the end of the book and on a dedicated website⁴, streamlining it for students to prepare for lessons according to their needs. The lessons were “Lesson 1: Manga (1),” “Lesson 5: Anime,” “Lesson 4: Manga (2),” “Lesson 7: Songs (2),” and “Lesson 8: Dances and Performing Arts,” all of which were selected and arranged in conjunction with the contents of Japan Studies and the field trips.

In the actual class, “Before Reading the Textbook,” “Let's Talk,” “Reading Materials,” and “Let's Research” were sequentially practiced as class activities, following the contents of the textbook. For example, in “Lesson 5: Anime,” as a “Before Reading the Textbook” activity, the students were asked to share their opinions on “What kind of anime, TV, movies, videos, DVDs, do you watch/not watch and why?” After learning the vocabulary and expression of “Lesson 5,” students explained the central idea of the folktale. In the “Let's Talk” section, students asked each other various questions about Japanese anime. In the “Readings” section, students read “Japanese Animation,” “Postwar Japanese Animation,” “Toei Doga, Mushi Production, Studio Ghibli,” “Mushi Production,” “Studio Ghibli,” and “Anime and Manga” from the nine reading materials in the textbook. In the “Let's find out” section, each student collected relevant information on “anime that I think expresses the joys, sorrows, and deep emotions of life well,” summarized it, added their comments, and shared it with the class. Finally, a teacher-written true-false format quiz, conforming to the readings, was conducted, completing “Lesson 5” in a total of four periods.

In the following table, the 4Cs framework in CLIL is applied to the Japanese Language course in Winter 2019. Taking “Lesson 5” as an example, it can be summarized as shown in Table 2.

⁴ Please refer to the following official website of the textbook *POP CULTURE NEW & OLD: Elementary and Intermediate Japanese through Pop Culture* (Hanai, 2017): <http://www.learnjpcinjapanese.com/>

Table 2. 4Cs: “Lesson 5: Anime” from the Textbook

Content	Learning about the history of Japanese animation and animation production
Communication (Language knowledge/ language use)	Language knowledge: Knowing Japanese words related to anime Language Skills: Gathering information about anime (reading, asking questions, analyzing), explaining, expressing opinions
Cognition	Understanding the contents of the textbook readings (LOTS) Asking each other questions and discuss experiences with anime with classmates (LOTS) Collecting and organizing information about anime and presenting it orally (HOTS)
Community/Culture (Cooperative learning and Cross-cultural understanding)	Discussing experiences and opinions about anime with classmates to learn more about each other. Thinking about the secrets behind the popularity of anime.

Through textbooks, they learned vocabulary, such as, “director,” “broadcast,” “film festival,” “lines,” and “cartoon frame,” including the official Japanese titles of their favorite manga and anime stories and researched and shared information about anime adaptations of manga. Through the readings, students learned about the history and development of manga and anime. They shared their “anime history.” Later, they researched their favorite anime production studios and storylines and presented their findings to the class. The Winter 2019 program brought together participants with a strong interest in Japanese pop culture, and they had an unbounded interest in manga and anime. In this process, while respecting each other's feelings, they passionately discussed the importance of anime and manga, and they achieved mutual understanding and enforced camaraderie.

4.2 Japan Studies

For Japan Studies, four external experts and practitioners in various fields were invited to teach the following themes based on old and new pop culture, linking them to the contents of the textbook and field trips. To broaden the scope of pop culture, traditional Kabuki, a pop culture originally developed in the Edo period, was added as one of the themes in Japan studies.

- I. Inside Miyazaki Hayao's Head: How to Enjoy the Ghibli Film “Spirited Away”
- II. The Spread of Manga Culture and Industry in Japan
- III. Japanese Culture through Idols and Dolls: From Rika-chan to Hatsune Miku and Funassyi
- IV. Japanese Behavior and Language as Seen in Kabuki Kata

During the 90-minute class, conducted in Japanese, there were lectures, discussions, group work, and various activities based on the theme (e.g., practicing Kabuki make-up and costumes, gestures, and movements). It was an opportunity to be exposed to firsthand information and experience Japanese culture.

For example, in the class “II. The Spread of Manga Culture and Industry in Japan,” the history of manga was traced back to Choju Giga and Hokusai Manga, and students learned how manga culture has spread today. It was closely related to the textbooks “Lesson 1: Comics (1),”

“Lesson 5: Anime,” and “Lesson 4: Comics (2),” and students were able to observe and hear the comic-related terms they learned in the textbooks during lectures. Additionally, they learned about the structure of the manga publishing industry, such as e-books, and the recent expansion of the industry as seen in Tachikawa MANGA Park, which they visited on their field trip. In the final session, students worked in small groups to gather ideas for “thinking of new ways to use manga” and gave mini-presentations. They researched and compared the manga cultures of Japan and their own countries and exchanged ideas and opinions on the new possibilities of manga.

Using the framework of the 4Cs in CLIL, the Japan Studies lesson on “The Spread of Manga Culture and Industry in Japan” can be organized as shown in Table 3 below.

Table 3. 4Cs: “The Spread of Manga Culture and Industry in Japan”

Content	Learning about the expansion of manga culture, from its history to business
Communication (Language knowledge/ language use)	Language knowledge: Exposure to jargon related to manga and industry terminology Language skills: Gathering information about manga culture, listening Group work, presentation
Cognition	Recalling and relating the knowledge gained from the textbook (LOTS) Comparing the manga culture of Japan and their own countries (LOTS) Thinking about new uses and possibilities for manga (HOTS)
Community/Culture (Cooperative learning and Cross-cultural understanding)	Listening to the opinions of others, sharing ideas, and creating new possibilities for manga.

4.3 Field Trip

The students visited the Ghibli Museum, Mitaka and Tachikawa MANGA Park to experience what they learned in the Japanese language course and Japan Studies.

The visit to the Ghibli Museum was connected to the textbook “Lesson 5: Animation” and the Japan Studies “Inside Miyazaki Hayao’s Head: How to Enjoy the Ghibli Film ‘Spirited Away’,” which dealt with film and video theory. Students directly experienced the process of animation and the production studio mentioned in the textbook. In addition, they watched short animations and video-related materials from the perspective learned in Japan Studies. Primarily, it was meaningful to learn through experience about the world view of Ghibli Anime and the source of its attraction to many fans.

During the visit to Tachikawa MANGA Park, the students understood how manga culture had ingrained itself in society as part of daily life, based on what they learned in Japan Studies “The Spread of Manga Culture and Industry in Japan.” In addition, they witnessed the diversity of genres studied in the textbook “Lesson 1: Manga (1)” and “Lesson 4: Manga (2).” In addition, there was a chance to collect and read representative works directly from the early days of manga.

At the Tachikawa MANGA Park, they read their favorite manga in Japanese, and later, participated in the “Manga Karuta Creation Workshop.” Karuta is a traditional Japanese card game played by taking the picture cards that match the reading cards. First, the students selected their favorite manga and chose their preferred lines and scenes. Next, they were instructed on how to draw portraits by a professional manga artist. The instruction was in Japanese. Students had learned the vocabulary used in describing how to draw portraits in Japanese in the textbook “Lesson 1: Manga (1)”, which helped to understand. Then, based on the scene and lines chosen by each student, they drafted and penned the picture and reading cards of “Karuta” using dedicated stationery, such as a G-pen (see Figure 1). At the end of the workshop, the students participated in a mini Karuta tournament using these cards, devising rules to enjoy the game with fewer cards. Through this field trip, students gained valuable experience of being involved in the creative process as manga artists.

Figure 1. Students drawing Karuta cards



Using the 4Cs framework advocated by CLIL, the learning from the two field trips can be summarized as shown in Table 4.

Table 4. 4Cs: Field Trips

Content	Experiencing how to draw manga Experiencing how manga is rooted in the lives of Japanese people.
Communication (Language knowledge/ language use)	Language knowledge: Exposure to jargon related to manga and industry terminology Language skills: Reading (reading your favorite manga in Japanese), and explaining
Cognition	Recalling and relating the knowledge gained from the textbook (LOTS) Create (HOTS)
Community/Culture (Cooperative learning and Cross-cultural understanding)	Learning about each other's manga preferences and personalities Enjoying playing Karuta while arranging the rules.

The students experienced the social presence of “manga” that they had learned from the textbook and Japan Studies and imprinted it in their memory as their own experience. In addition, there was a chance to re-read manga that they had read in their native languages, in Japanese. In the workshop, the students created their original Karuta, linking them to current knowledge, and touching on manga-related terms. It was an opportunity to view manga not only as a form of reading but also as something to create. In addition, amidst enjoyment, ideas

were shared and the rules of Karuta were devised. It was an opportunity to understand new characteristics and each other more deeply: students who have similar tastes regarding manga, students who talk passionately about their love of manga and their “favorite characters,” students who are competent illustrators, students who devise unique ways to make picture cards, students who are introverted in the classroom but are engaged in the mini Karuta tournament, etc.

4.4 Project Work

Students with similar interests formed teams of three or four and spent 11 class periods doing project work. This project work embodies the program's goal of “international students learning about what they are interested in, authentically using Japanese” and the program's design policy “using previously learned knowledge to achieve something.” It is positioned as the culmination of the program.

The students chose one of the following themes: (1) to (3) and worked on tasks 1 to 3.

Theme options

- 1) Enjoy pop culture: sharing and introducing ways to enjoy it
- 2) Create something new: not an introduction to something existing, but an original
- 3) This is also pop culture: Introduce and explain things not mentioned in the textbook or Japan Studies

Tasks

Task 1: Select a theme related to Japanese pop culture and create creative content.

Task 2: Present your creative content in an interesting and comprehensible way (10-minute presentation on the last day).

Task 3: Discuss and cooperate with all team members.

“Creative contents” refers to original comics, songs, videos and so forth, that are created by students, from the ideas covered as “projects” in the textbook. In addition, during the first day of orientation for the program and in the project work class, “original Yuru-chara” (mascot characters), “Tokyo Metropolitan University mascot,” and “music video of a parody song” created by past program participants were introduced as examples to the students.

The original rubric, written in Japanese and English, was implemented for the project work (for further details, see Kokusai bunka fōramu [International Cultural Forum], 2013, p.96 and the materials in Appendix A). It is a rubric for team-based self-evaluation and consists of 11 evaluation items (perspectives) in line with Tasks 1 to 3. Each of the items have four levels of evaluation: “Achieved over the goal,” “Achieved the goal,” “Almost achieved the goal,” and “More effort was required to achieve the goal.” This rubric was offered in the first class and repeatedly reviewed in project work classes to guide students’ activities.

In Winter 2019, there were five teams that worked tirelessly to make creative content with a unique twist under a set title. On the final day of the program, they gave a presentation in Japanese before all the project participants and faculty members, and the audience voted for the results.

The winning team consisted of three students from China and South Korea. Under the title of “Travel News,” they visited famous places in Tokyo (Meiji Shrine, Sky Tree, cat cafes, and Kabukicho) to report on and create a TV program from their unique perspective. For the

presentation, they performed as anchors and presented their work as a live news program. The team won first place for their idea, concept, teamwork, smooth presentation, and high quality, which resembled an actual news program. Other works included anime songs, cooking-themed programs, and comedy-themed short videos on Japanese monsters, with a message of diversity and inclusiveness.

Although, momentarily, opinions clashed during the creative process, the teams utilized the strengths of each member to cooperate and immersed themselves in the creation of creative content, preparation of presentation materials, manuscript preparation, video editing, hosting, and performance.

Using the 4Cs framework advocated by CLIL, the project work can be summarized as shown in Table 5.

Table 5. 4Cs: Project work

Content	Creating creative content about old and new Japanese pop culture
Communication (Language knowledge/ language use)	Language knowledge: new vocabulary, expressions Language skills: reading materials, gathering information, working in groups, summarizing, writing, presentation
Cognition	Example: Comparing and categorizing the flavors and backgrounds of different countries' cuisines Example: Characterizing and analyzing the differences between the opening and closing tunes of anime music. Creative thinking, integration Evaluation (especially self-evaluation and reflection)
Community/Culture (Cooperative learning and Cross-cultural understanding)	Discuss and cooperate well with all members. Utilize and respect the strengths of each member.

The students created original creative content by incorporating their individual experiences, favorite things, and messages they wanted to convey. They used the linguistic knowledge acquired through the Japanese language course, Japan Studies, and field trips, and each team conducted interviews to gather information. Occasionally, they used the rubric as a guide to evaluate and adjust their activities. Members gave candid presentations, devising linguistic and audiovisual methods that made it understandable to the audience. By combining the strengths of each member to cooperate and contribute, they achieved a profound sense of accomplishment and unity as a team. The self-evaluation of each group after the presentation showed that they had "achieved over the goal" or "achieved the goal" in all items of the rubric, and the comments in the free-text orchids showed that students achieved satisfactory results and growth themselves. The following are the comments from the students (original in Japanese, translated into English by the author).

Excerpt 1

"Our theme was a little difficult to create, and there were some hard times in the process. However, I was very impressed that everyone didn't give up and worked harder to continue the project work."

Excerpt 2

“We collaborated responsibly and to the best of our ability. I was a little nervous when giving our presentation, but we practiced a lot, so it went well. It was really fun to work together on this project work.”

Excerpt 3

“Although our mother tongues are different, we were all able to communicate smoothly using Japanese.”

One of the instructors who oversaw the class and observed the students closely said, “In the beginning, they had a hard time agreeing on a theme and sometimes even clashed with each other. However, gradually, they started listening to what the others had to say, and in the end, everyone became friends. It may sound an exaggeration, but their growth was amazing like they became a different person” (excerpt from the post-event questionnaire for instructors).

5. The 4Cs of the overall program

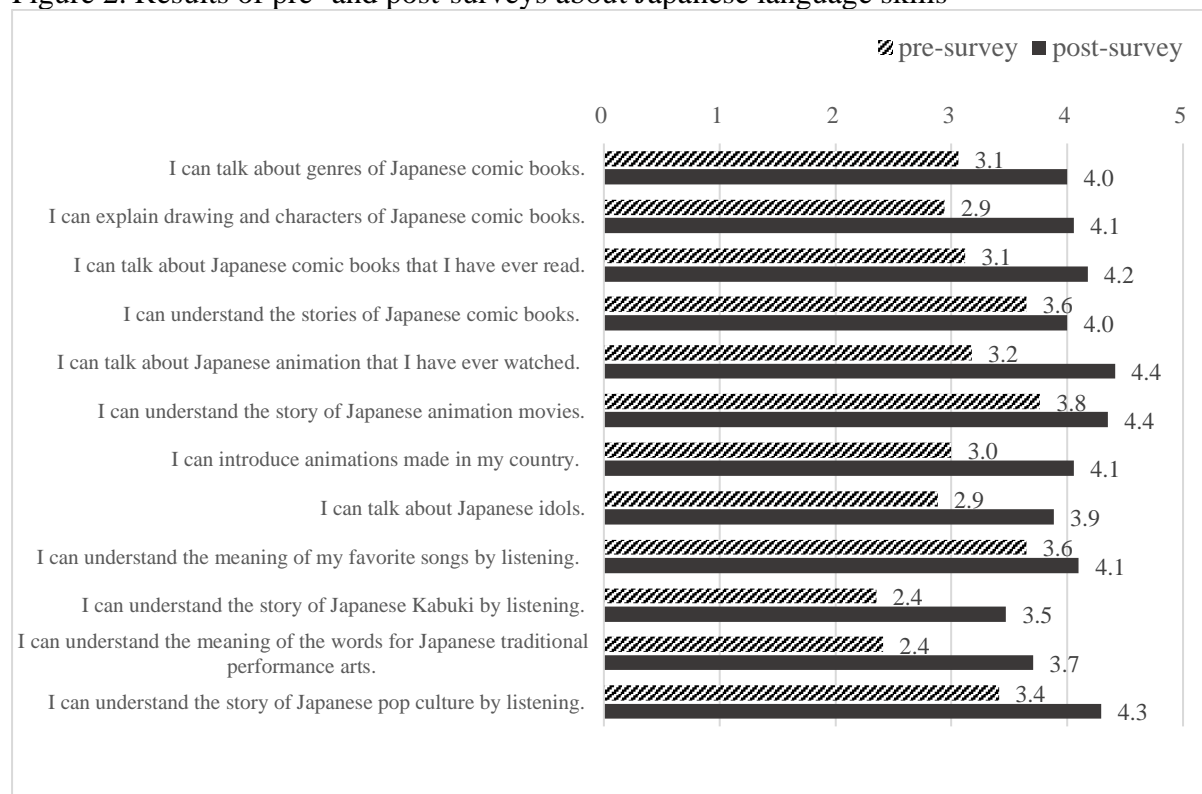
The previous sections have attempted to organize the main components of Winter 2019, specifically the Japanese language course, Japan Studies, field trips, and project work, from the perspective of the 4Cs in CLIL. This section examines the entire Winter 2019 program in terms of the 4Cs framework.

Table 6. 4Cs: Entire Program

Content	Japanese old and new pop culture
Communication (Language knowledge/ language use)	Language knowledge: New vocabulary, expressions, Grammar Language skills: Reading comprehension, discussion, information gathering methods, and Group work, essay, presentation
Cognition	From LOTS (comprehension of textbook content) to HOTS (creative and integrative activities in project work)
Community/Culture (Cooperative learning and Cross-cultural understanding)	Intercultural understanding, relative understanding of mother culture, understanding others Collaboration, cooperative learning

Winter 2019 was a program that brought together Japanese pop culture enthusiasts who shared an ardent desire to communicate with like-minded people. It prepared a wide variety of devices that supported students to acquire and use language knowledge and the skills necessary to communicate and understand these thoughts in Japanese. It began with learning unfamiliar words from the textbook (LOTS) and progressed to creative content (HOTS). From the results of the surveys, which asked the students about their Japanese language skills, we can see that their understanding of Content and Communication (language learning and using) were enhanced through their participation in this program (see Figure 2 and Appendix B). By working on the project, which was the culmination of the program, they were able to learn about the appeal and potential of pop culture and the importance of a close relationship based on trust that transcends differences in nationality or background, strengthening mutual understanding by discussing and collaborating with peers. The students’ self-evaluation (presented in Section 4.4) also showed that Cognition and Community had been deepened.

Figure 2. Results of pre- and post-surveys about Japanese language skills



6. Conclusion

This study used the 4Cs, the basic concepts of CLIL, to clarify what this program, with the goal of “international students learn about what they are interested in, authentically using Japanese,” has achieved. As a result, the Winter 2019 program incorporated the 4Cs in its four main components: Japanese language courses, Japan Studies, field trips, and project work. Simultaneously, it was clear that the program embodied the 4Cs without any omissions. In other words, the Winter 2019 program embodies a multilayered CLIL that weaves the 4Cs together. Through participation in cognition-conscious activities, the students deepened their understanding of content itself and improved their communication (language learning and using) skills, as seen from their self-evaluation. In addition, the students acquired the ability to collaborate with a diverse community. These results imply that by focusing explicitly on the 4Cs, this program can be improved further in the future to allow students to communicate with each other in a logical manner so that others can understand their impassioned discussion while developing the necessary language knowledge and use, and effectively using their reasoning skills. Furthermore, this improved program can provide students with the opportunity to gain knowledge from peers who share their interests and to understand each other. However, the collection and analysis of objective evidence on learners were not adequate for further program evaluation and improvements. These are the issues that should be addressed in the future.

In addition, it is possible to design new programs that incorporate innovations to develop students' creativity, such as the creation of “creative content” in Winter 2019. In the future creative society, which lies beyond the modern information society, “Learning by Creating” will be of great significance in education (Iba, 2019, p.239). The future program can realize a new era of “creative learning” (Iba, 2019) based on the 5Cs, which is the outcome of adding “Creation” to the 4Cs in CLIL: Content, Communication, Cognition, and Community/Culture.

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Appendix A.

Title of Presentation : _____

Group/Team : _____ Members : ① _____ ② _____

③ _____ ④ _____

Rubric and Tasks for Project Work

TASK 1: Choose one theme related to Japanese pop culture, complete creative content of your own on the theme.

TASK 2: Present the creative content in such a fashion as audience can easily understand and enjoy (10-minute presentation).

TASK 3: Discuss well and work together collaboratively in group.

Rubric-TASK 1 (Creative Content)

Level Viewpoint	4 Achieved over the goal	3 Achieved the goal	2 Almost achieved the goal	1 More efforts required to achieve the goal
Originality / Creativity	<input type="checkbox"/> Content presented a remarkable originality. <input type="checkbox"/> It presented a rich creativity.	<input type="checkbox"/> Content presented a recognizable originality. <input type="checkbox"/> It was created using various elaborate techniques and new ideas.	<input type="checkbox"/> Content presented new ideas to some extent. <input type="checkbox"/> It hardly presented creativity.	<input type="checkbox"/> Content was just ordinary, with lack of originality. <input type="checkbox"/> Creativity was not recognizable at all.
Concept / Message	<input type="checkbox"/> Concept was very clear, and presented in an easy-to-understand style. <input type="checkbox"/> The content had strong message appealing to audience.	<input type="checkbox"/> Concept was easy to understand, presented specifically. <input type="checkbox"/> Message was reachable to audience.	<input type="checkbox"/> Concept was hard to understand, and not presented well. <input type="checkbox"/> It hardly had message appealing to audience.	<input type="checkbox"/> Concept was not understandable at all, and not presented specifically. <input type="checkbox"/> Message was not recognizable at all to audience.
Perfection / Efforts / Interest	<input type="checkbox"/> Presentation was delivered to a high level of perfection to the detail elements, the outcome was very much satisfactory. <input type="checkbox"/> Members' making great efforts were assumable. <input type="checkbox"/> Content was very impressive and attractive.	<input type="checkbox"/> Over-all presentation was delivered to almost 100 percent perfection, although it had some of the detail elements left "half-boiled." <input type="checkbox"/> Members' efforts for perfection were recognizable. <input type="checkbox"/> Content was very interesting.	<input type="checkbox"/> Presentation was near perfection, but sloppiness was noticeable in the detail elements. <input type="checkbox"/> Efforts were not made enough for perfection. <input type="checkbox"/> Content was a bit unsatisfactory.	<input type="checkbox"/> Over-all presentation was far from perfection. <input type="checkbox"/> Members' efforts were not recognizable. <input type="checkbox"/> Content was not interesting at all.
Information gathering / Organization / Utilization	<input type="checkbox"/> Members gathered necessary information (including information on similar other contents) extensively and analyzed precisely to make creative content. <input type="checkbox"/> Gathered information was fully utilized in the creative content.	<input type="checkbox"/> Members gathered necessary information extensively and organized it. <input type="checkbox"/> Gathered information was incorporated skillfully into the creative content.	<input type="checkbox"/> Members lacked necessary information to make creative content, and did not organize information so well. <input type="checkbox"/> Gathered information was not reflected in the creative content.	<input type="checkbox"/> Members did not gather necessary information to make creative content and did not sort out information. <input type="checkbox"/> Information was not utilized at all in the creative content.

Rubric-TASK 2 (Presentation)

Viewpoint	Level	Achieved the goal			More efforts required to achieve the goal	
		4	3	2	1	
Content (of elements)		<input type="checkbox"/> Members covered necessary content sufficiently to achieve TASK 2 and expressed much creatively. <input type="checkbox"/> Detail elements such as motive, background, aim and technique were specifically explained.	<input type="checkbox"/> Members covered necessary content to achieve TASK 2. <input type="checkbox"/> Some of detail elements such as motive, background, aim and technique were specifically explained with creativity. <input type="checkbox"/> Overall presentation was organized, although a slightly unnatural combination of introduction, development and conclusion of the theme was recognized.	<input type="checkbox"/> Members covered more or less necessary content to achieve TASK 2. <input type="checkbox"/> Detail elements such as motive, background, aim and technique were roughly explained. <input type="checkbox"/> Overall presentation was not well organized, although the Members were aware of introduction, development and conclusion of the theme, but the structure was not clear.	<input type="checkbox"/> Members covered only a minimum or under-minimum content to achieve the task. <input type="checkbox"/> Detail elements such as motive, background, aim and technique were not explained. <input type="checkbox"/> Members were not aware of structure, with a weak combination of parts and sections of the structure, therefore the overall presentation was not organized.	
Structure		<input type="checkbox"/> Overall presentation was well organized with a good structure of introduction, development and conclusion of the theme.	<input type="checkbox"/> Members made the presentation understood mostly, although they sometimes made errors in grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and presented slides.	<input type="checkbox"/> Members made errors in grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and presented slides, which made it difficult to understand the presentation, sometimes.	<input type="checkbox"/> Members made many errors in grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and presented slides, which made it impossible to understand much of the presentation.	
Ease of understanding		<input type="checkbox"/> Members spoke vividly and fluently, which attracted audience's interest. <input type="checkbox"/> The presentation suggested that a lot of practice was done.	<input type="checkbox"/> Members stumbled and became slow over words sometimes, however, showing enthusiasm for making the presentation understood by audience. <input type="checkbox"/> A good outcome of practice was observed to some extent.	<input type="checkbox"/> Members discontinued speech often, and their speech delivery was monotonous, and not intriguing. <input type="checkbox"/> Practice was not sufficient.	<input type="checkbox"/> Members discontinued speech often and their speech was quantitatively little, and not intriguing. <input type="checkbox"/> No suggestion of practice done.	
Performance						

Rubric- TASK 3 (Collaborative Work)

Viewpoint / Level	4 Achieved over the goal	3 Achieved the goal	2 Almost achieved the goal	1 More efforts required to achieve the goal
Contribution to group / Collaborative work	<input type="checkbox"/> All members made constant efforts to achieve TASK 3. <input type="checkbox"/> They were extremely proactive in building up a good collaborative relationship and in collaboratively working together. <input type="checkbox"/> Each member helped the group greatly by willingly offering his/her ability, knowledge and time to other members.	<input type="checkbox"/> All members made efforts to achieve TASK 3. <input type="checkbox"/> They were by and large proactive in collaboratively working with each other. <input type="checkbox"/> Each member helped the group by frequently offering his/her ability, knowledge and time to other members.	<input type="checkbox"/> Some members did not make so much efforts to achieve TASK 3. <input type="checkbox"/> Some were scarcely collaborative with other members, but not proactive in working together. <input type="checkbox"/> Some did not help the group so much.	<input type="checkbox"/> Some members did not make efforts to achieve TASK 3. <input type="checkbox"/> They were not collaborative with other members and not able to build up a good relationship. <input type="checkbox"/> They were negative about working together, and did not help the group.
Task assignment / Trustworthiness	<input type="checkbox"/> All members are able to assign tasks which are suitable to respective members through good discussion. <input type="checkbox"/> Each can accomplish the assigned task at a high level.	<input type="checkbox"/> All members are able to assign tasks to themselves through good discussion. <input type="checkbox"/> Each can accomplish the assigned task at the desired level.	<input type="checkbox"/> All members are able to make rough assignment of tasks through discussion. <input type="checkbox"/> Some members do not accomplish the assigned task at the desired level.	<input type="checkbox"/> Members do not hold a discussion in the group for task assignment. <input type="checkbox"/> Some members do not carry out the assigned task.
Communication ability	<input type="checkbox"/> All members pay good attention and respect to others' opinions clearly as well as express their own opinions. <input type="checkbox"/> They all together make proactively a better consensus as a group.	<input type="checkbox"/> All members pay attention to others' opinions as well as express their opinions. <input type="checkbox"/> They all together reach the point where they make compromise if necessary, and make consensus within the group.	<input type="checkbox"/> Some members do not pay much attention to others' opinions, do not willingly give opinions, or, only give their opinions. <input type="checkbox"/> They hardly compromise, and do not help the group make consensus.	<input type="checkbox"/> Some members do not respect to others' opinions and do not give any opinions at all, or adhere to their own opinions. <input type="checkbox"/> Some make no compromise and disrupt the making of consensus.

Comments about the collaborative work in your presentation and self-evaluation using the Rubric:

Appendix B.

This is to check your current proficiency of Japanese. Can you do the following in Japanese?
Circle the most appropriate answer for each item.

	Not at all	Not so much	Not sure	A little	Very much
1. I can talk about genres of Japanese comic books. (e.g.: boys/girls comic books)	1	2	3	4	5
2. I can explain drawing and characters of Japanese comic books.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I can talk about Japanese comic books that I have read.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I can understand the stories of Japanese comic books.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I can talk about Japanese animation that I have ever watched.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I can understand the story of Japanese animation movies.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I can introduce animations made in my country.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I can talk about Japanese idols.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I can understand the meaning of my favorite songs by listening.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I can understand the story of Japanese <i>Kabuki</i> by listening.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I can understand the meaning of the words for Japanese traditional performance arts. (e.g.: <i>Noh</i> play, <i>Kabuki</i> drama)	1	2	3	4	5
12. I can understand the story about Japanese pop culture by listening.	1	2	3	4	5

Images of the Past: Teaching CLIL History and Critical Thinking through Visual Texts

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Abstract

This paper considers the benefits of using visual texts in the CLIL history classroom. Historical images such as art, photographs and advertising can provide a source of content knowledge and engagement at a reduced level of linguistic difficulty. As texts constructed for a purpose, they also lend themselves to higher-order thinking, and provide an accessible stimulus for critical thinking. With modern communication becoming increasingly visual, instructors have both opportunity and responsibility to enable students to understand, analyse and share their opinions about images. The paper introduces the core concepts underpinning an undergraduate CLIL Japanese History course: **description** (using evidence to understand objectively what took place); **interpretation** (making logical inferences based on evidence); and **evaluation** (students connecting what they have learned to their own lives). It then applies these concepts to visual image analysis, and outlines practical activities for each: describe (how visual sources can help illustrate what took place and provide context); interpret (how students can use visual sources to do the work of a historian, establishing what we can and cannot logically conclude); evaluate (how students respond to themes and representations in visual sources, and how they connect these to their own lives).

Keywords: CLIL, history, visual media, critical thinking

1. Introduction

As higher education becomes increasingly globalized, English-medium education has experienced rapid growth at both national and institutional levels. In Japan, 41% of Japanese universities offered courses taught in English in 2018 (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT, 2020), up from around 26% ten years previously (MEXT, 2010). This growth has been supported by government funding programs aiming to improve Japan's competitiveness globally, attract more international students and researchers, and improve English levels (Hashimoto, 2017).

One pedagogical approach providing insights into how best to teach content knowledge in English is Content-Language Integrated Learning, or CLIL, "a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content *and* language" (Coyle et al, 2010, p. 1). Coyle et al.'s (2010) "4Cs framework" also integrates cognition and culture into the learning process. In this symbiotic framework, learners engage in thought (cognition) about a given subject matter (content) while learning and using the target language (communication). In doing so, they develop their intercultural understanding and awareness of self (culture).

If these multiple benefits of English-medium instruction or CLIL are to be realized, instructors and curriculum designers must address a fundamental issue: the target language is also the vehicle for accessing content and for carrying out classroom procedures. Research into English-medium instruction at universities in Japan and China reveals that issues relating to instructors' and students' use and comprehension of the target language dominate student and faculty perceptions (Galloway et al., 2020). Aizawa and Rose's (2019) interviews at one Top Global

Project university in Tokyo reveal that despite the implementation of preparatory classes and a proposed language threshold for entering EMI classes, students at all levels report challenges when studying in English. At CEFR A2 level, the lowest level under consideration, these included such fundamental issues as “understanding teachers, participating in discussions, taking notes, listening to lectures and comprehending unfamiliar grammar structures” (ibid, p. 1134).

It is thus important to consider ways in which instructors can make the learning process more accessible. Ball et al. (2015) argue that there are three dimensions to a CLIL activity: concepts, procedures and language. The conceptual or content aim of an activity is achieved through procedural choices requiring certain cognitive skills, using language items related to the conceptual content. They use the metaphor of a ‘mixing desk’ to suggest that teachers should slide up or down the difficulty of each dimension based on their learning objectives for a given activity or lesson. In other words, where concepts are difficult and the focus of a given activity is conceptual knowledge, teachers might opt to reduce the procedural or linguistic demands of a task.

This can be done in several ways: by grading the language of texts and instructions, providing speaking frameworks to scaffold student output, or giving students a model of how to complete the task. Another method is to use non-textual materials and multimodal materials as input. According to Dale et al., “Since learners use different ways to take in input, it is useful if input is multimodal at various stages of a lesson or lessons. In the CLIL classroom, it is even more important to exploit as many input modes as possible, both linguistic and non-linguistic, to ensure as many learners as possible understand the input.” (2010, p. 41). Visual input such as photographs, art and advertising can communicate meaning with little or no L2 text, and thus can supplement text or replace it entirely, drastically reducing the linguistic demands of an activity.

2. Visual media and the study of history

Kress and van Leeuwen (1996) point out that in the early years of our schooling, images form a large part of teaching input, and children are encouraged to produce them as a form of self-expression. This multimodality often gives way to a heavy emphasis on text as children become older, with visuals becoming more illustrative and less central to the learning process. This is unfortunate, as it implies that visual media are less valuable in society and the learning process than verbal messages. It also fails to prepare students to effectively read and produce visual imagery; in other words, to be visually literate.

We do not ‘read’ images in the same way as texts, nor is their impact dependent on text. According to Pettersson (2013), “visual messages are a powerful form of communication and superior to verbal messages when content is emotional, holistic, immediate, spatial, and visual. Images speak directly to us and may have a strong emotional impact” (Visual Communication section, paragraph 1). In the history classroom, too, images can be used to “tap into a much wider range of background knowledge than printed text or oral discussions” (Levstik & Barton, 2005, p. 88). Photographs and artwork provide a richness of detail that motivate students to look deeper, including glimpses of architecture, technology, fashion, and human activities (Barton, 2018).

A re-evaluation of visual sources seems also to be underway in academic study of humanities and social sciences. W. J. T. Mitchell takes Richard Rorty’s notion that the history of philosophy has been one of ‘turns’, in which “a new set of problems emerges and the old ones

begin to fade away” (1995, p.11). Mitchell argues that if the primary philosophical frame of the early twentieth century was words and linguistics, the late twentieth century witnessed a “pictorial turn” (also known as a “visual turn”). He attributes this both to the widespread visual stimulation of our age and the fear that “we still do not know exactly what pictures are, what their relation to language is, how they operate on observers and on the world, how their history is to be understood, and what is to be done with or about them” (ibid, p. 13).

Thus, the increasing digitalization of our lives brings with it both opportunities to access many more multimodal sources, and an obligation as instructors to empower students to do so critically. Instructors and students in developed countries are increasingly able to access internet resources on fast connections that allow them to view multiple sources, zoom in or manipulate images, reducing the need for printed materials. Further, the availability of digital scanning and storage technologies has led museums, universities, and national archives to offer access to their collections online, often at no cost. Many such projects also include activities, lesson plans or entire curricula to assist teachers in the classroom.

Today’s students are already interacting with visual media to an unprecedented degree. While the twentieth century brought us images in movies, photographs, posters and advertisements, modern online interaction skews even more heavily towards visual media such as digital photographs, videos and memes. This is even more true of young people: in the case of Japan, a report on media habits in 2020 indicated that people aged 10-19 spent an average of 72.3 minutes a day on social media and 90.2 minutes on video sharing sites, as against 18.4 minutes on email and 11.4 minutes reading or writing blog posts. Conversely, no age group over 40 spent more than 30 minutes a day on any online activity besides email (Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, 2021, p.6).

Young people’s familiarity with visual media may not mean, however, that young people are able to analyse and understand what they are looking at on a deeper level. Popular social media and video sharing sites which make heavy use of visual communication, such as YouTube, Instagram and TikTok, have been criticized in recent years for perceived negative effects on users’ wellbeing, and for spreading damaging conspiracy theories and so-called ‘fake news’. In spite of their immediacy and emotional impact, memes, videos and images are still media messages, texts constructed for a purpose and with the intent of influencing an audience in some way (Share et al., 2005). As such, they lend themselves to the development of critical thinking and visual literacy skills, bringing to students a greater understanding of what message images convey, and how they do so.

3. Context & framework

This paper will introduce activities using visual images drawn from a CLIL Japanese history course entitled “Japan and the World: Through Travellers’ Eyes”. This course focuses on the experiences of non-Japanese travellers to Japan, and Japanese who travelled overseas, during the period 1868-1926. It is split into two semesters, ‘Japanese overseas’ and ‘Visitors to Japan’, with each section containing fifteen ninety-minute classes. The students are in their third or fourth year of an undergraduate International Economics program which has a strong focus on English-language instruction. Although students are required to take a content-based class of this type, they can choose from several classes which have differing content focuses, so participant numbers have ranged between 10 and 33.

Classes are structured in the following way:

1. For homework, students read a short text (approximately 500 words) introducing the life of a historical figure who travelled from or to Japan. These usually include short

excerpts from the person's writing. Students answer comprehension and discussion questions.

2. In class, students compare their answers to the comprehension questions. These are checked as a whole class. This process is repeated with discussion questions.
3. Supplementary activities are introduced to support student understanding, including the image analysis activities described below. These typically take the form of jigsaw activities, in which students work in groups to complete a task before sharing their findings, either in the form of a whole-class presentation or with a new group composed of students who have analyzed different images.
4. The teacher gives a short lecture about the topic (10-15 minutes).
5. After two topics, students write a reflection about something interesting that they have learned. The teacher assesses and comments on this reflection.

Although class participants have some experience of university-level language and content classes and require at least a TOEIC score of 530 to enroll in the class, the language of the reading texts is challenging, and I found that many students struggled to understand both the textual content and the context of the Meiji period. I first began to incorporate images into the course as a means of illustration, and to reduce linguistic demand. However, since students seemed engaged in understanding and speculating about the images, I steadily increased the number and depth of supplementary activities using visual texts.

In devising the course framework, assessment, and image analysis activities, I borrowed an exercise from intercultural studies known as the “DIE exercise” (describe – interpret – evaluate). In its classic form, students are presented with an object or photograph that may signify different things in different cultures, such as a photograph of a man sleeping in public. They are asked to do three things:

1. **Describe** what they can see in the picture as objectively as possible, without projecting or giving their opinion. As Nam and Condon (2010) report, this stage is often surprisingly difficult for students, who frequently offer interpretations or subjective responses rather than objective description. Shown a picture of a man sleeping in public, in the first stage students should describe exactly what they see: “a man is sleeping in public”.
2. **Interpret** the meaning of what they can see logically. Unlike “**evaluate**”, this stage focuses on non-subjective inference. At this stage, it is useful to have students compare their ideas, since there are multiple possible ways to interpret a single image. While one student may argue that the man is tired from working hard, another may argue that his clothes look old and ragged – perhaps the man is sleeping in public because he does not have a home? Students should search for further evidence to support their ideas, and consider their classmates' ideas based on how logical they are.
3. **Evaluate** what the image means to each individual subjectively. Is it shocking to see such a lazy man? Is it pitiful to see a homeless man, or does it make you angry? This stage elicits the widest range of reactions, based on differing ideas about appropriate behaviour, cultural expectations, and individual experiences. It can reveal a great deal about individual students, and lead to both self-awareness and an awareness of how others see the world differently. It also provides an opportunity for students to identify with the stimulus and make their own meaning of it.

Working through these stages sequentially helps students to distinguish “between what can be said objectively, what can be said in the realm of inference or speculation, and what may be expressed as value judgment and personal opinion” (Nam & Condon, 2010, p.86). In cultural

studies, this aims to raise awareness of the human tendency to describe personal and cultural judgements as objective truths, and to teach students how to withhold making judgements until they have established what can be objectively stated.

These three dimensions are also of great importance in the study of history. Historians determine what can be stated about the past on the basis of factual evidence (**describe**), and what can be inferred from individual or multiple pieces of evidence (**interpret**). At the same time, to empathize with the people of the past and assess the continuing impact of their lives on today's world, we must also attempt to connect with them subjectively and affectively (**evaluate**), based on a solid understanding of their objective reality. For this reason, these three dimensions underpin the course design, activities and course assessment described in this paper.

This paper will now introduce objectives and activities at each stage of the “DIE” framework. A number of lesson activities and images are drawn from the MIT Visualizing Cultures website (<https://visualizingcultures.mit.edu/home/index.html>), which contains a wealth of images, essays and curricula for topics in modern Japanese history. For these, and other resources aimed at proficient English users with some familiarity with the study of history, I recommend the following general modifications to reduce task difficulty and promote interaction:

- Replace background lectures or information texts with an initial stage of group brainstorming or a targeted research task. For example, since my Japanese history students are mostly Japanese, I can ask them to brainstorm or research facts about Japanese woodblock prints, rather than giving an introductory lecture or handing out a text. This gives students ‘initial talk time’ in which they can activate their existing knowledge and enables the teacher to teach to students’ needs.
- Lower the procedural difficulty by preselecting relevant images and assigning images for students to examine (or offer a more limited choice). In my experience, when students are assigned ‘site quests’ in which they must choose from a large number of images, they often become overwhelmed by choice and less focused on the given task. They may also choose images that do not lend themselves to the task.
- Provide language scaffolding focused on grammar, discourse markers and functions that would arise when accomplishing a given task proficiently. In the activities described below, for example, this involves phrases for picture description, comparing and contrasting, speculation and giving reasons (see Ball et al., 2015, chapter 4).
- Model the task first, using some of the language scaffolding provided, but also departing from it in places. When I model, I follow the describe – interpret – evaluate framework: I begin with simple descriptive observations, moving on to logical inference and some comment on the historical value of the image and my subjective reaction to it. This establishes a target for students’ own responses.
- Include group and pair interaction where possible in the classroom. This supports comprehension through peer checking, demonstrates that an image can have multiple interpretations, and enables students to support one another’s interpretations with evidence, or challenge them where the evidence does not support their ideas.

4. Activities to describe

Following the “DIE” framework, students should first look at images with an objective eye, using information in the image to add to their understanding of what took place in history. The first major aim of description is a linguistic one: for students to become better able to describe images in their target language. Describing scenes based on photos or drawings is a common task in language exams such as TOEIC, requiring students to produce grammar such as “there is/ there are”, present continuous to describe ongoing actions (“a man is standing”),

prepositions of place (“to the right of the man”) and phrases of speculation (“he might be a worker”) (British Council, n.d.). Unlike images used in language exams, artwork and photographs from the past are rich in detail and likely to stimulate curiosity, speculation, and comparison with students’ lived experience.

The second aim of describing historical images is as a source of content understanding, and a way to tune into the context of the image. It is easy to overestimate students’ familiarity with the past and their understanding of how life differed from the present in concrete terms. However, as Barton states, “If we want students to understand when something happened, it is particularly important for them to be able to see what that time looked like.” (2018, p. 3). While images are often used to illustrate historical textbooks and to stimulate student interest (Barton, 2018), students benefit from the opportunity to look at length at multiple images to build their mental image of the past. Below, I will discuss some of the uses I have made of images in raising students’ awareness of how the past looked and was experienced by people living at the time.

4.1 Analyzing human interactions

Any image containing human figures will contain clues about how those individuals related to one another. These can help us understand the social relations of the time. I ask students to examine woodblock prints depicting the interactions between Japanese and non-Japanese in Yokohama in the early years after the port was opened to non-Japanese residents. Based on a lesson plan by Parisi (n.d.-b), students create a short “secondary source” in which they describe the actions, objects, facial expressions and interactions in their image as if in a textbook.

By describing the woodblock print “Picture of a Salesroom in a Foreign Mercantile Firm in Yokohama” (Sadahide, 1861), for example, students can get a sense of how such a firm might have functioned. The image depicts a firm which is split into a shop front and a back room in which goods are packaged and prepared. Considering clothes and appearance, students can identify individuals from different parts of the world, suggesting Yokohama had a cosmopolitan population. At the same time, interactions between customers and shop clerks are facilitated by what appear to be hand gestures, suggesting that communication was not always easy. Having described these features of their assigned image, students share them with the class, exposing each student to a range of different contexts. Students can then speculate on what information is corroborated by multiple sources, what we can believe, and what is likely to be an exaggeration. In doing this, they build their understanding of the context of the time.

4.2 Material culture

A tangible way for students to understand how daily life differed in the past from today is to have them interact with, or examine, elements of material culture. This could involve a visit to a museum or historic site, or use of photography and drawing in the classroom.

In the late nineteenth century, Japan witnessed a huge change in its material culture due to Western influence. To promote student reflection on the effects these changes had on people’s lives, I ask students to perform the role of Western culture expert. I give each group an image of a ‘new, modern Western item’ such as a chair, pocket watch, or umbrella, and ask them to prepare an explanation of how to use it. Their explanation should include:

- What do we use this for?
- How do we use it (step by step)?
- Where is it used?

- How is it different from Japanese traditional items?
- What should you **not** do when using it (bad manners)?

In doing this, they are recreating real guidebooks created at the time to disseminate Western culture, and also putting themselves in the position of people exposed to these objects for the first time. I ask each group to share their description with the whole class and have other students guess the items described. Typically, almost all the students are correct, which speaks to the continuing presence of these items in Japan's material culture. It is perhaps more difficult for students to go backwards in time to match the modern item to its traditional counterpart and imagine how the people of the past may have struggled to use the new item with correct etiquette. How would people accustomed to sitting on the floor have felt when faced with a chair, for example? Finally, I allow all students to see the original images, which are taken from Fukuzawa's (1867) guide. Students who read Japanese can compare Fukuzawa's text with their own.

4.3 Differing viewpoints

When students have some understanding of how the past looked, how people interacted and the objects that they used, they can begin to understand how the world was perceived by the people of the past. Multiple images of the same event as seen by different artists, or representatives of different groups, provide an accessible way for students to get to grips with conflicting experiences and interpretations of the same event. They also provide an opportunity for practicing the language of compare and contrast, which is commonly taught in both the academic English and history classrooms.

One such activity, based on a lesson plan by Parisi (n.d.-a), has students examine paired images depicting the arrival and reception of Commodore Matthew Perry in Japan in 1853 and 1854. Each pair of images shares a theme, such as gift exchange, a sumo exhibition, or a formal banquet. One of the images is Japanese, the other American. Students work in small groups to compare the two images, searching for similarities and differences, then share their ideas with the class. We then summarize as a whole class how the experience differed for the two groups.

Students are generally quick to pick up on different artistic styles, the presence or absence of text, who is shown and what they are doing. The teacher can encourage students to notice things they might have missed by considering the context. Why does the Japanese image show Perry bowing to the Japanese magistrate, while the American image does not? Why did the Americans bring gifts which showcased their more advanced technology? Through this discussion, students can learn more about the power dynamics between the two groups, and see a tense moment from both sides, learning to empathise.

Sharing is key to increasing the number of encounters each student has with depictions of the past. In each example above, I have students prepare a short presentation to share verbally with others. However, descriptions can also be shared with others through compilation, online publication, or in multimodal formats such as posters, labelled images or role plays. Note-taking frameworks such as Venn diagrams and mind maps can be used to guide student comprehension.

5. Activities to interpret

Once students have demonstrated their understanding of what is depicted in an image by describing it, there is an opportunity to go deeper by interpreting or analyzing the image. Here, the focus is on logical inferences, rather than subjective reactions, which come under the

category of evaluation. At this stage students should be able to give support for their ideas based on available evidence; instructor and peers should accept all reasonable and supported interpretations, and counter them or support them with their own evidence and interpretations. Below, I will introduce four types of interpretation that are relevant to the history classroom.

5.1 Doing the work of the historian

One of the aims of using evidence in the history classroom, according to Barton (2018, p.6), is that “students should consider what they can and cannot conclude from a given source, and how to use a set of sources to reach answers to their question (as historians do)”. I ask students to compare a text and image that were produced by different people but share the same theme. Their task is to find clues about what life was like in the years following the Meiji Restoration (1870s-80s). The texts are drawn from Isabella Bird’s (1881) travelogue “Unbeaten Tracks in Japan” and focus on aspects of daily life such as the railways or the lives of workers. Students are allocated a text to read for homework, with the task of understanding it and categorizing its contents into positive and negative. In Bird’s text about baggage carriers, for example, students can find Bird’s opinion that they were independent and lived from their own labor, but that their grueling work was necessary due to Japan’s lack of large domestic animals such as horses.

In class, after comparing their ideas about their assigned text, students work in groups to analyze an image produced by a different artist, but on the same theme. Students answer questions based on the “5Cs” (Parisi, n.d.-d):

1. Context: When was this made? What is the subject? How do you know?
2. Characters: Who or what is shown here? What are they doing? Describe them.
3. Colours: What colours are used? What is the message of the colours?
4. Composition: What is the layout telling us? Where is the main focus? Which is the biggest image? Where do you look first?
5. Construction: Who do you think made this? Why? For what audience?

Students then compare the text and image, which simulates the detective work of the historian, who uses a patchwork of sources to understand the past. Students should be encouraged to corroborate their impressions of the reading text by finding supporting information in the images, and to generate questions regarding differences they cannot reconcile. The group who has read about a baggage carrier, for example, will compare their text with a photograph of a baggage carrier by Felice Beato (ca. 1869). Interestingly, this seemingly simple image lends itself to differing interpretations; while most students I have used this activity with argue that the man’s rough clothing provides evidence for the hard life of baggage carriers, others think his folded arms and indirect gaze suggest an air of independence and self-reliance.

5.2 Authorship and purpose

In analyzing several sources addressing the same theme, students are likely to identify some discrepancies between the information different sources present. These differences lead naturally to a discussion about the people behind the sources: who the creators were, who they were hoping to influence, and what their purpose was. As an extension to the activities described above, I ask students to consider the following questions:

- Who do you think made this? Why? What audience do you think this was made for?
- Is the attitude of the artist positive or negative? Explain why you think so.

This aims to improve students’ awareness of two aspects of media, namely that “all media messages are ‘constructed’” (Share et al., 2005, p.7 Core Concept 1), and that they are generally constructed “to gain profit and/or power” (ibid, Core Concept 5). In section 5.2, students

analysed a mix of photographs and woodblock prints. While many woodblock prints were produced for a Japanese market and celebrated Japan's modernization, contemporary photographs of traditional Japanese life were produced as souvenirs for primarily overseas tourists. Students can infer that in catering to their different markets, both types of images may be motivated to exaggerate or overrepresent certain aspects of Japanese life. Further, the technological limitations of the day meant that photographs required long exposure and hand-tinting. For both technological and marketing reasons, the photograph of a baggage carrier that students have analyzed was unlikely to capture the image that Bird's text provides, of men sweating and "gasping violently" due to their exertion (Bird, 1881, p. 127).

5.3 Analyzing composition

Once students have begun to understand the constructed nature of images, we can give them further tools to understand how and why those images are constructed, to "delve deeply into how [sources'] creators have structured them and the meanings they aim to convey" (Barton, 2018, p. 7). This builds on the skill of describing, but goes one step further by aiming to teach students the "grammar" of media messages (Kress & van Leeuwen, 1996), and the fact that "media messages are constructed using a creative language with its own rules" (Share et al., 2005, p.7 Core Concept 2).

In my experience, students' awareness of how images are constructed can be raised by exposing them to multiple images depicting a shared theme, as this enables students to understand differing composition techniques more deeply by comparison. Further, as Kress and Van Leeuwen (1996, p.4) make clear, "visual language is not – despite assumptions to the contrary – transparent and universally understood; it is culturally specific". Therefore, it is important that students work with themes and visual styles with which they are at least somewhat familiar, whether this is through prior classroom instruction or making use of culturally familiar material.

An example using culturally familiar material involves students analyzing woodblock prints depicting the Meiji Emperor, which can be viewed at MIT Visualizing Cultures (n.d.-a). My students are all broadly familiar with the Japanese imperial family, but the position and public role of the emperor has changed over time. After reading and discussing a text that argues that the emperor was used as a focus for Japanese patriotism during the Meiji period, I first model the task using an example image, then ask students to create short presentations about their image following the "5Cs" framework (Parisi, n.d.-d, introduced above in section 5.1). Since all the images feature the Meiji Emperor, students should focus on how his high status and various roles are conveyed by the different artists, considering questions of colour, symbolism, and use of space.

Another way to have students demonstrate an understanding of composition is to ask them to edit or create images to produce different reactions in the audience. While the extent to which each instructor will be able to do this is constrained by course content, goals and available tools, one simple way to raise awareness of artistic choices in composition is to ask students to crop existing images using PC tools or a simple paper frame made from two L shapes. This could lead into a discussion of the history of photographic manipulation, and how much trust we should place in the 'reliability' of photos and videos (Share et al., 2005).

5.4 Analyzing representation

Multiple images on a single theme can also be used to consider representation. While composition considers how images are constructed, representation concerns "what lifestyles, values and points of view are represented in, or omitted from" a message (Share et al., 2015,

p.7 Core Concept 4). Again, it is helpful to consider images containing some reasonably obvious points of similarity and difference: images on a single theme from different countries, for example, or from different periods of time.

One interesting example I have used in class is a set of advertising images created by the Japanese cosmetics company Shiseido, whose target market was the cosmopolitan, ‘modern’ woman. These images span the years from 1875-1960, and are also available online in chronological segments between 1914-1941 that can be easily assigned to different groups (images can be accessed at MIT Visualizing Cultures, n.d.-b). Based on a lesson by Parisi (n.d.-c), I ask students to answer the following questions:

- Who is portrayed?
- What is she doing?
- What is she wearing?
- What do you know about her from the picture?
- Where is she?
- What other objects, people or activities make up the picture?
- How do the pictures relate to events and trends in Japan during this time period?

When they have completed this for an images or images from one period, students are regrouped and asked to compare and contrast their images. After introducing their respective periods, they identify what aspects of the representation have changed over time and try to link this to contemporary context. Have the women’s looks and fashion become more ‘Western’? Has their hair become longer or shorter? What are they doing – playing sports, sewing, reading, or working at the office? What changes during the war years? Students can then consider whether they consider the advertisements, and advertising in general, to be accurate representations of people’s lives, or more aspirational.

While I have primarily followed this activity with written reflection, Parisi (n.d.-c) also describes an activity in which students create their own advertisement based on what they have learned from their analysis of historical images. Creating visual media is an opportunity for students to demonstrate their understanding of issues of purpose, composition, and representation. According to Hobbs (2011), media composition follows many of the best practices of writing composition: the teacher should set clear, achievable goals which blend structure with agency and freedom, and provide opportunities for discussion, feedback, and revision.

6. Activities to evaluate

The final stage in the DIE framework is evaluation, in which students react subjectively, making connections to their own feelings, perceptions and lives. This should be seen as a culmination of previous stages, in which students have looked carefully at an image in order to describe it, then drawn logical conclusions about the information it presents and how that information is assembled to convey meaning to its audience. Thus, while the evaluation stage is the most subjective, it should still be grounded in objective historical facts gleaned from evidence, classwork and research, and logical interpretations of those facts.

The most frequent evaluation activity that I use in the course is individual written reflections. In these reflections, students choose something they found interesting from the reading assignment, peer discussion, class activities or teacher lecture. I do not explicitly require students to evaluate the images studied, although I have given examples of some common responses relating to images below. In the reflection, students are first asked to describe in

objective terms what they learned. Next, they should interpret this information logically, perhaps including differing viewpoints that they encountered in their class discussion. Finally, they should evaluate what they have learned, and connect it to their own lives. The main forms of historical evaluation found in student reflections in the course to date are as follows:

1. Students empathize with the people of the past. According to Endacott and Brooks (2013), historical empathy arises from understanding context and individual perspectives, and using these to imagine the motivations, feelings and thoughts of people in the past. For example, after examining paired images of the encounters between Commodore Perry and Japanese people, students often reflect on the fear, uncertainty or curiosity Japanese people may have felt on seeing non-Japanese people for the first time (Parisi, n.d.-a).
2. Students make ethical judgments about the past. While showing an awareness of the different constraints and values of a different era, students demonstrate an ability to take a position on the issues of the past, evaluate individual decisions and their consequences, and connect them to contemporary issues. After examining texts and photographs illustrating the tough working conditions of baggage carriers in the early Meiji period, for example, students often express dismay at the human cost of economic growth, frequently connecting class content to contemporary issues such as sweatshop labor.
3. Students consider the historical significance of the past, and how past events and trends continue to inform society and culture today. They may compare and contrast what they have learned with their contemporary situation or speculate about how life might be if historical events had unfolded differently. For example, students who have studied advertising images depicting a changing role for women often connect this to issues of gender equality in their own lives.
4. Students demonstrate an understanding of how history is written and communicated to people in society. They reflect on how their understanding has changed because of information learned during the course, or differing perspectives provided by sources. For example, discussing the limitations of photographic technology in the early Meiji period leads many to reconsider photographs as objective records of the past or present.

Reflections are assessed based on student ability to describe, interpret, and evaluate the topic they have chosen, their understanding of facts, and the logic of inferences made. Language is only considered as a target of assessment when it affects the clarity of ideas. Reflective dialogue with students allows the instructor to clarify misunderstandings, comment on the logic of the connections made, and gain an insight into and chance to respond to students' individual opinions and observations.

There is no requirement for the evaluation stage to be either written or individual; I have also made use of one-to-one interviews, and students could also be asked to make reflective presentations. Evaluation could also take the form of a group discussion, a mind map, a visual response (for example a poster summarizing or reacting to what a student feels are key points) or a role play. One interesting suggestion that effectively blends the objective, interpretative and subjective is the idea of a personalized timeline or living graph, in which students graph events against a subjective measure such as 'success' or 'tension'. These graphs could form a class body of work that could be used to explore multiple interpretations while also reviewing the chronology of key events ("Timelines and Living Graph Activities", n.d.).

7. Conclusion

This paper has emphasized the importance of visual literacy to today's citizens and media

consumers and explored some of the opportunities afforded to teachers of CLIL history by the increased availability of digitized historical images. Historical images such as photography and artwork have more immediate emotional resonance than texts, and students can begin to make sense of them without the linguistic barrier of the L2. As such, they can play an important role in engaging students, motivating enquiry, illustrating the past and encouraging description and speculation in the target language.

At the same time, however immediate our surface reaction to images may be, well-selected images are more complex than they first appear. Art, photography, advertising and propaganda materials attempt to speak to an audience for a purpose, and thus lend themselves to discussions of what is being communicated, how this is achieved, and why the attempt is made. Images also provide an opportunity for students to distinguish between objective descriptions, logical interpretations (potentially more than one), and subjective evaluations based on the observer's unique individual opinions and experiences.

When using visual sources to better understand the past, it is important that students first understand what is depicted in objective terms (describe). Clarifying what can be seen in an image will ensure that students have adequate language, evidence, and confidence to progress to interpretation, and establishes a shared basis for discussion. The interpretation stage gives students a chance to discuss what we can extrapolate from an image, and what it can tell us about the wider world at the time of its production. Students can then take an individual stance on the information presented and connect it back to their own lives (evaluate). Ensuring that students consider each step systematically encourages them to spend time examining, understanding and analyzing visual images beyond the surface level, giving them the tools to logically connect historical information to its wider context and their own subjective response.

Discussion is an important part of the process. Student negotiation over the description of an image supports mutual understanding, and since each student brings different experiences and knowledge to the interpretation stage, there is the potential for multiple different perspectives on what an image means or how it has been constructed. The image acts as a shared source of evidence, to either corroborate others' interpretations or challenge them. To model this process to students, and to support and extend their understanding, an instructor working with images should prepare their own interpretations based on the available evidence. In responding to student interpretations, however, it is important to acknowledge all that are logical, praise interesting ideas, and remain objective when challenging interpretations that are not supported by the evidence.

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CLIL in Russian Heritage Language Teaching Context: Theoretical Basis of the Potential and Perspectives of Research

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Abstract

CLIL has recently been drawing attention in Russian language teaching in foreign language acquisition and as a heritage language. The growing interest provides opportunities for "educational transfer" in the emerging field of heritage language learning. This research aims to clarify the perspectives and potential issues of implementing CLIL into Russian heritage language education from the teachers' point of view. It will also develop a theoretical basis for CLIL implementation based on teacher feedback and determine potential avenues for future research. The study is divided into two stages that explore teacher beliefs and concerns primarily through a qualitative approach. The results show that teachers have confidence that CLIL positively answers the pedagogical needs of learners in the areas of motivation, language, and cognitive skills development. The study outlines the expected results as well as concerns based on educational context and teachers' experiences. It suggests what processes are necessary to successfully transfer CLIL into the field of Russian heritage language education.

Keywords: CLIL, heritage language, Russian, Russian schools

1. Introduction

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has begun to draw attention in Russian language acquisition. CLIL is currently being successfully implemented in Tatarstan, where most students are bilingual in Tatar and Russian (Yalalov, 2020). Within Russia, CLIL is being applied in English language education (Torikov & Rezunova, 2020). Simultaneously, Russian language teachers employed abroad are seeing CLIL being implemented in their curricula, evidenced by Italy's Parma University creating its first online CLIL course for the Russian language in April of 2021. Most educators in the course were both foreign language and heritage language teachers. In June and July of 2021, Saint Petersburg State University collaborated with Parma University in holding an "Expert in Content and Language Integrated Learning" exam with various sections, including one titled "Elementary School for Bilingual Children"⁵. Internationally, there is an apparent growing interest in CLIL which we will investigate further in our research.

Many teachers in Russian heritage language schools in Europe have heard of CLIL despite a lack of information about CLIL in Russian. Furthermore, most published articles only explore theoretical principles as opposed to experimental research (Zaripova & Salehova, 2015; Mironova, 2020). The awareness of CLIL as a potentially valuable educational approach "from the grassroots level" is proof of how CLIL has become a popular pedagogical approach in Europe. In the 1990s, the CLIL approach was implemented in immersion into Canada, and in

⁵ "Bilingual children" in Russian is commonly used to signify Russian-speaking children - especially those who live abroad - who speak and learn in Russian as their familial language, irrespective of the actual number of languages spoken.

Language Across the Curriculum (LAC) in England (Hanesova, 2015, p. 9). As Marsh mentioned, “the European launch of CLIL during 1994 was both political and educational... The educational driver, influenced by other major bilingual initiatives such as in Canada, was to design and otherwise adapt existing language teaching approaches to provide a wide range of students with higher levels of competence” (Marsh, 2012, p.1). Russian heritage language teachers, as will be considered below, are simultaneously adapting existing teaching approaches while implementing new pedagogies to meet the needs of their students.

Therefore, the CLIL approach initially applied to teaching foreign and second language acquisition may now be implemented in heritage language learning in general, and Russian heritage language learning in particular. The shift is considered “educational transfer,” which refers to the “movement of ideas, structures and practices in educational policy, from one time and place to another” (Perry & Tor, 2008, p. 510). The transfer is occurring as the movement of ideas from one educational context influences another. Research on the perspectives and potential problems of implementing CLIL into Russian heritage language teaching needs to focus on the experiences of its participants and influencers, in other words, the teachers themselves. While macro-level analysis can reveal general trends and mechanisms of the educational transfer, micro-level analysis helps to comprehend the diversity and commonalities of heritage language teaching across countries, variations in the positive attributes of CLIL, and concerns from different perspectives based on a multitude of experiences.

The goals of this research are:

1. To clarify the perspectives and possible issues of implementing CLIL into Russian heritage language teaching from teachers’ perspectives
2. To develop a theoretical basis for CLIL implementation based on teacher feedback
3. To determine pathways for implementation and prospective research moving forward

2. Literature Review

The literature review aims to clarify the current situation in three areas: the heritage language teaching; present studies utilizing CLIL elements and principles in heritage language teaching; and the reasons for CLIL’s success as well as concerns about CLIL’s effectiveness in English as Foreign/Second Language teaching (EFL/ESL).

2.1 Heritage language teaching and the pedagogical needs of learners

Heritage language teaching - the area of research that includes theoretical knowledge and empirical data - was defined in North America about 20 years ago. The broad, sociolinguistic usage of the term implies connections to the heritage language through personal or familial experiences: “Heritage language is a language of personal relevance other than English” (Fishman, 1999, cited in Van Deusen-Scholl, 2003, p. 216). The narrower usage is more relevant for bilingual speakers: “Heritage language learners are raised in a home where a non-English language is spoken; and [are] to some degree bilingual in English and the heritage language” (Valdes, 2001, p. 38). Although originally defined in English-speaking countries, the most essential feature is that heritage language learners live in a country where the primary language differs from their familial language.

Recent research of Zyzik (2016, p. 20) provides the following attributes of heritage language learners:

- early exposure to the heritage language in the home
- proficiency in the heritage language
- bilingual to some degree

- dominant in a language other than the heritage language
- ethnic and/or cultural connections to the heritage language

The analysis of learners' needs became an essential part of language teaching in the 1980s, especially in English for special purposes. Long (2005, p. 1) argues that "just as no medical intervention would be prescribed before a thorough diagnosis of what ails the patient, so no language teaching program should be designed without a thorough needs analysis." Pedagogical needs of heritage language learners are "specific needs in the teaching process related to the learners' linguistic proficiencies, attitudes, and educational context" (Savinykh, 2021, p. 9). "Needs" here means a lack of proficiency or competency in particular areas that must be completed to achieve educational goals. Based on Kagan and Dillon (2003) and citing Savinykh (2021), this research provides the needs of Russian heritage language learners referenced in a table format (Appendix A).

Although studies related to heritage language learning mainly focus on *what* (e.g., *what* is heritage language and *what* are the characteristics of heritage language learners), studies focused on *how* - especially *how* to teach - are scarce. Beaudrie (2016, p. 93) argues that "heritage language education faces a very difficult endeavor of providing a growing population of heritage language learners with research-based, high-quality, and efficient instruction and programming".

2.2 CLIL and heritage language teaching

Anderson (2008, 2009) was the first researcher who raised the issue of using CLIL for teaching heritage (minority) languages. The widely cited definition of CLIL is "a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language" where additional language" is often a learners' 'foreign language', but it may also be a second language or some form of heritage or community language" (Coyle et al., 2010, p.1). Despite that, CLIL is most often used to denote foreign languages only.

The studies on CLIL implementation in heritage language teaching are scarce and relatively new. Anderson (2009) claims that researchers should give more attention to heritage language teaching because of the wide range of models provided by CLIL. He analyzes the development of teacher training courses for the Arabic, Mandarin, Panjabi, and Urdu languages. Charalampidi et al. (2017) describe the experimental teaching of science to heritage language learners in Greek. The valuable, albeit rare, research of the practical implementation of CLIL illustrates that "CLIL projects can build bridges between the students' linguistic heritage and their scholarly success in mainstream education and enable knowledge transfer". Kavanagh (2020) provides a study of Japanese supplementary schools and illustrates the method's potential. He suggests that schools "could have the ability to package their product or classes with a CLIL theoretical framework" to achieve educational goals (Kavanagh, 2020, p. 142). All three articles demonstrate the teaching of different heritage languages solely in the UK.

Savinykh (2021) creates a framework for teaching materials for Russian heritage language learners. She suggests that CLIL has already been utilized in educational materials for Russian heritage language learners. CLIL in heritage language teaching is a relatively new area of research with a lack of experimental data. For educational transfer of CLIL into other areas to be successful, it is therefore more promising to study the beliefs and concerns of teachers who already use or would like to use CLIL elements in their lessons.

2.3 Reasons for CLIL's success and concerns about CLIL's effectiveness in EFL/ESL

This part of the article defines what points of the CLIL approach research suggests as “sensitive” to its effectiveness in positive and negative ways. The goal is to analyze the following points in comparison to Russian heritage language teaching:

- What elements of CLIL and context are claimed to be the reason of CLIL's effectiveness?
- What elements of CLIL and context raise concerns?

Most studies that look into the success and/or concerns of CLIL do so in English as a Foreign/Second Language (EFL/ESL). Studies of CLIL and non-CLIL groups use EFL/ESL learners as control groups. It raises the question of relevance in the Russian language context, where a lack of adequate research makes comparative analysis not possible.

Cimermanova (2020) provided a meta-analysis of studies on the acquisition of receptive skills and vocabulary in CLIL that found no statistically significant differences between the CLIL and EFL groups in listening and reading performance, but vocabulary development was statistically significant. Another meta-analysis provided by Ostovar-Namaghi and Nakhaee (2019, p. 110) argued that “CLIL has the highest effect on students’ grammar and listening proficiency and in lower levels of education, especially in elementary schools.” Nieto Moreno de Diezmas (2016) studied CLIL use in elementary school, and CLIL learners only outperformed the EFL groups in speaking and interaction. Lasagabaster and Doiz, through their longitudinal study, determined that “motivation to learn the subject matter is maintained in CLIL classes” (Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2017, p. 22). Grammar acquisition is one of the discussed issues. Perez and Basse (2015, p. 16) argued that both CLIL and non-CLIL groups’ “the most frequent types of errors of all the texts are text-grammar”, although “it seems that non-CLIL students not only make significantly more errors than CLIL ones when they speak in English, but also use fewer words in their oral texts.” The meta-analysis provided by Tabari et al. (2018) argues that “the results of the meta-analysis show clearly that CLIL group outperformed non-CLIL group on different outcomes including linguistic competence, achievement, and affective factors”, but the studies have a variety of limitations. They also criticized the “two-for-the-price-of-one theory” - language and content are both learned at a high level - in stating that it “sounds perfect on paper, but in practice, many issues come up” (p. 82). In a famous critique of CLIL, Bruton (2011, 2013) illustrates the following concerns: two-for-the-price-of-one language development through the learning of content, language proficiency level, elitism of CLIL groups from beginning, “CLIL is hard work for teachers,” etc.

Based on the results of the studies, successful results in CLIL rely upon language skills (vocabulary - both every day and academic - speaking, writing, reading, grammar), motivation, two-for-the-price-of-one, elitism of CLIL and the level of teachers’ competences (e.g., language, subject matter, teaching skills).

3. Methods and design

3.1 First stage: defining the context and most popular ideas about pedagogical needs and CLIL

There were two stages to define the teachers’ key ideas about CLIL implementation in heritage language teaching. The first goal was to clarify what elements of CLIL the teachers of Russian heritage language utilized in their work.

There were two research questions in the first stage.

RQ1-1: What do teachers of Russian heritage language think about theoretically-based concepts of pedagogical needs of heritage language learners?

RQ 1-2: Do teachers of Russian heritage language think that CLIL answers the pedagogical needs of learners in their context, and if they do, what elements of CLIL do they find valuable?

The first stage was designed for Russian heritage language teachers who do not have knowledge, or had only limited knowledge, of CLIL (conducted on July 17th and October 27th - 28th 2021). Teachers with a lack of knowledge about CLIL were provided with a theoretical and practical framework during the sessions, and so were able to compare their unique teaching conditions in order to define their main concerns. Online seminars based on active-learning principles and presented as flipped classes provided fundamental knowledge of CLIL to help teachers design elements of CLIL lessons⁶. The teachers settled goals in three dimensions (content, procedures, language) (Ball et al., 2015), learned about the principles of active-learning, inserted one active-learning activity into the lesson plan, learned about graphic organizers and visualization, scaffolding, suggested one problem situation of the lesson plan and chose an element from the table of goals and tools of scaffolding (Van de Pol et al., 2010). Before the session, the participants (n=23) had to answer two questionnaires: The first (Appendix B, n=23) was about their background, teaching context, and knowledge of CLIL. They then completed the second questionnaire (Appendix C, n=21) after reading materials about CLIL elements, the context of Russian heritage language schools, and the pedagogical needs of Russian heritage learners. The participants agreed or disagreed with proposed statements and wrote what part they agreed or disagreed with from their experiences and teaching contexts. After the sessions, participants gave feedback via a third questionnaire (Appendix D, n=22) about the sessions and their desire to learn more about the CLIL approach and whether to implement it in their work. All three questionnaires were provided by Google Forms.

2.2 Second stage: Defining teachers' ideas about implementing CLIL in details

The goal of the second stage was to define the positive prospective effects and potential concerns about implementing CLIL into heritage language learning based on the experience and context of Russian heritage language teachers.

The research questions of the second stage were:

RQ 2-1 What pedagogical needs of heritage language learners are addressed or not addressed by CLIL?

RQ 2-2 What positive effect do the teachers expect from implementing CLIL pedagogy in heritage language teaching?

RQ 2-3 What concerns do the teachers have about implementing CLIL in heritage language teaching?

Data gained in the first stage, along with an essential literature review's results presented in 2.3, became the basis of the second stage of research. Assuming that teaching contexts in different countries and different teachers' experiences would provide more voluminous data, the research was designed as online interviews with Russian heritage language teachers from around the world. The participants (n=23) were recruited from the Facebook group "CLIL in Russian: Russian as a foreign language and Russian for bilingual children"⁷. The participants

⁶ The first seminar (n=9) was organized as a part of the NILE-CLIL assessment. The second (n=7) and the third (n=7) seminars had the same structure except answering the participants' specific questions. All participants gave permission to use their data for research.

⁷ The Facebook group, "CLIL in Russian: Russian as a foreign language and Russian for bilingual children", was created in December of 2020 to provide information about CLIL in Russian. On the 30.11.2021 has 812 members. <https://www.facebook.com/groups/2304984912978199>

declared themselves as (1) teachers of the Russian heritage language and (2) knowing about CLIL “to some degree.” Most participants learned about CLIL from the of Parma University CLIL course (n=8) or during seminars in the first stage of research (n=13). Half-structured interviews were conducted via Zoom in October and November of 2021. The interviews were transcribed and coded by MAXQDA using GTA (Ground Theory Approach). GTA aims to find answers closely correlated to data to determine the theoretical basis of implementing CLIL into heritage language teaching.

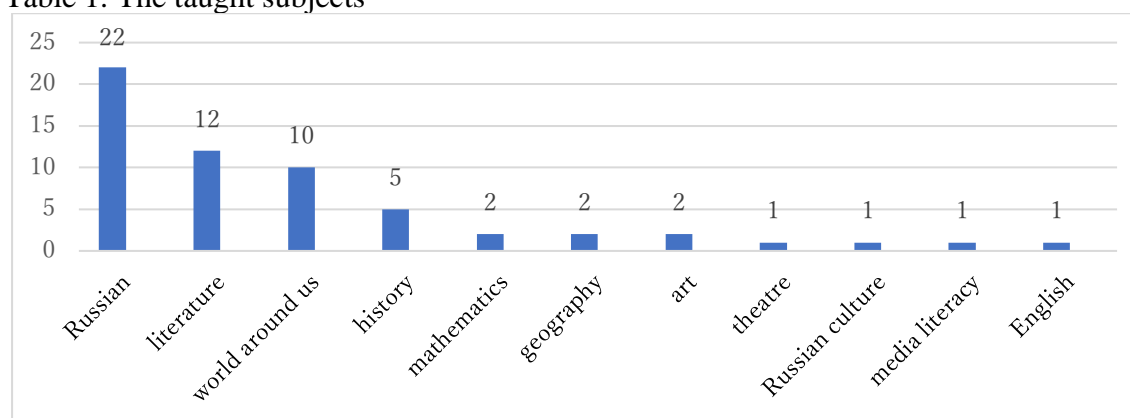
4. Results

4.1 First stage

RQ1-1: What do the teachers of Russian heritage language think about theoretically-based concepts of pedagogical needs of heritage language learners?

The challenge was to have participants from various countries with different teaching backgrounds (including subjects taught) who had little or no knowledge of CLIL. The last condition was essential in order to compare theoretical and practical knowledge of CLIL that teachers learned through prior sessions with their unique teaching context, allowing them to clearly elucidate their main concerns. The participants (n=23, women 22, man 1) were from the UK (4), Spain (4), Italy (2), USA (2), Australia (2), Japan (2), Belgium (1), Luxemburg (1), Slovakia (1), Estonia (1), Greece (1), Egypt (1), and South Korea (1). They simultaneously taught multiple subjects: eight teachers taught 3 subjects, seven teachers – 2 subjects, four teachers – 4 subjects, with only three of them teaching Russian only.

Table 1. The taught subjects



Note. “Russian as a foreign language,” “Russian as a native language,” “speech development” were counted as “Russian.” “Reading” “Literature” were counted as “Literature.” “Okruzhayushchiy mir” (“world around us”) in Russian schools is the subject of elementary school where both science and social studies are taught.

This implies that teachers at Russian heritage language schools are “jacks of all trades.” One of the teachers, for example, taught Russian, history and mathematics to students from 4 to 18 years of age. Most of the teachers worked with children between 7 to 12 years old (mean age from 5.5 to 12.8 years old; including the teachers who worked with younger or older students too: 22 teachers). However, only four teachers worked with students aged 16 years and older, which may imply that many students quit Russian language schools at this age.

21 teachers read the table of pedagogical needs of heritage learners (Appendix A) and noted what they agreed and disagreed with from their experiences. The biggest “agree” points were:

development of pronunciation and intonation, vocabulary, and reading. Interestingly, Kagan and Dillon (2003, p. 81) supposed that heritage learners typically “have no” needs in this area, but it seems problematic in the Russian language. This is confirmed by research on the acquisition of Russian phonology by Russian heritage learners (see the review of research problematics in Savinykh, 2021) and merits being added to the table in Appendix A.

The biggest “disagree” point was the length of text for reading. Seven teachers were concerned about not being able to understand learners’ long and/or complex texts.

The teachers also surmised what would be their students’ greatest pedagogical needs (responses garnering 5 votes or more):

- speaking (7)
- writing (7)
- vocabulary development (6)
- learning about the culture (6)
- reading (5)

RQ 1-2: Do teachers of Russian heritage language think that CLIL answers the pedagogical needs of learners in their context, and if they do, what elements of CLIL do they find valuable?

Teachers’ (n=23) knowledge of CLIL was the following: “Familiar with CLIL” (15 teachers), “Have not heard of CLIL” (three teachers), “Have heard of CLIL” (three teachers), “Have implemented CLIL and want to learn more” (two teachers). No participant chose “very familiar with CLIL”. 21 teachers then read about the essential elements of CLIL: definition (Coyle et al., 2010, 1), 4C, three dimensions, language triptych, BICS and CALP, HOTs and LOTs, hard and soft CLIL, scaffolding, active learning, and visualization. After that, in the open-ended question, the teachers wrote whether they agreed or disagreed that CLIL answers the pedagogical needs of heritage language learners. The following are the characteristics of CLIL which the teachers believed can answer the pedagogical needs of learners (responses garnering 2 votes or more):

- increase motivation (9)
 - learning an academic language (3)
 - learning about the world through the language (2)

In a feedback form after the session, 22 participants marked in Likert forms as 4 and 5 (“I think so” and “Definitely” respectively) regarding whether they want to know more about CLIL (21 teachers) and want to use CLIL in their future work with heritage language learners (21 teachers).

Based on learners’ pedagogical needs, CLIL features that addressed those needs, the essential positive effects of CLIL, and concerns about the effectiveness of CLIL from the literature review, interview questions were designed (Appendix E).

4.2 Second stage

4.2.1 Teachers’ background and teaching context

- **country of living:** As in the first stage, the participants (n=23, all women) were from 16 different countries across five continents: Australia (1), Japan (2), Turkey (1), Lebanon

(1), Russia⁸ (1), Estonia (1), UK (4), Belgium (1), Luxemburg (1), France (1), Andorra (1), Spain (1), Italy (3), Greece (1), Egypt (1), USA (2). The experience of teachers working from various countries provided voluminous data with a variety of viewpoints, making it necessary to define core features of teachers' beliefs about CLIL, which will become the basis for comprehending how to implement CLIL into heritage language teaching in differing educational contexts.

- **years of teaching to heritage language learners:** About half of the teachers (12 teachers) had worked for six years or more, while only two teachers worked for just 1-2 years. The mean years of teaching was 8.7 years. Therefore, the teaching experience of the participants was broad and reliable.
- **education:** Most of the teachers had two or more areas of expertise based on their education. Usually, teachers who were not teachers of Russian as a Foreign Language had further special training for this qualification (10 teachers). Eleven teachers had pedagogical training; five teachers were philologists. A combination of multiple educational fields provides an expanded opportunity to teach different subjects. This implies that many of the teachers can be viewed as not only specialists of teaching but also as specialists of learning.
- **teaching context:** Most of the teachers (18 teachers) worked in Russian schools, while one taught only their own children and taught separately at a school; one teacher was on sabbatical at the time of the study. Thirteen teachers observed different learner language skills, often within the same learner group. They said that the reality of Russian schools is to accept all or almost all learners irrespective of their levels. "I don't think that Russian schools are selective. We work with what we have. We work with the ones who come." [J-43]⁹ The teacher sometimes has to be "a jack of all trades," especially in smaller schools [G-45]. Therefore, there is usually no strict syllabus, and teachers have greater freedom in choosing and creating their courses: "We have goals, and we have to teach. But the teacher is pretty free to choose the material, a little bit freer in terms of the lessons, I mean, the content, what content to choose, and the teacher can adapt a little to the learners" [E-17].

4.2.2 The results of the interview study

RQ 2-1 What pedagogical needs of heritage language learners are answered or not answered by CLIL?

Regardless of the questions provided, participants replied more broadly regarding their students' pedagogical needs. The findings can be divided into three categories: language learning, cognitive and metacognitive development, and motivation.

- **language learning:** The greatest needs of learners as surmised by the teachers was language skills. Vocabulary acquisition - especially academic vocabulary - and speaking were mentioned the most. Speaking in CLIL focuses on activating passive vocabulary [I-27] and helps to solve the problem "I do not know what to talk about" [Q-31]. Writing and reading were also areas of concern. Participants twice mentioned "functional reading" [A-43, M-31], meaning reading for comprehension and using the information (Longvina & Rozhdestvenskaya, 2012). The area of greatest concern was learning Russian grammar.

⁸ The teacher from Russia teaches heritage language learners from other countries online.

⁹ All interview citations are translated from Russian to English by the author. In the formatting for [] the letter means the participant of the interview, and the number means the segment number.

Whereas some teachers viewed grammar “not as a goal but as part of the learning process” [I-33] and argued that it helps “not to be afraid of more complex phrases” [A-35], other teachers did not see “how to integrate grammar learning into subject learning” [F-21]. Methods for teaching grammar in CLIL should be thoughtfully explained in CLIL training sessions for heritage language teachers in the future.

- **cognitive and metacognitive development:** From the teachers’ point of view, cognitive development is crucial for their students. CLIL provides a complex knowledge of the world, enhances cognitive development, organizes the learning of how to learn, leads to transfer of knowledge from a heritage language to a school language, and facilitates the development of metacognitive and metalinguistic skills. “CLIL doesn’t stop with language; it shows a broader picture of the world” [B-37]. “In our world where we have to solve many problems and make many decisions, I think that CLIL helps children get those skills” [V-27].
- **motivation:** Motivation itself was the top selection for “positive effects of CLIL” sets (65). “The first thing I think of is increasing motivation... CLIL is not a direct, standard way to learn... it is practice-oriented. Moreover, the children get absorbed in the new content” [G-27]. Ting (2010, p.12) also determines that CLIL provides “a learning environment which activates learners' innate needs to satisfy curiosities, i.e., understand.” “Learning by doing” as an effective way of learning for heritage language learners was mentioned by a total of six teachers. The teachers also felt that CLIL significantly involves the learners: “...the CLIL principle is that the lesson has to be provided in a way to include the children in the learning process” [K-17]. CLIL drives “anxiety out of learning” [I-37], and the learners “are not afraid to make mistakes” [I-27].

RQ 2-2 What positive effect do the teachers expect from implementing CLIL in heritage language teaching?

Apart from improving learners’ language abilities, cognitive and metacognitive skills, and increasing motivation, participants noted the potential positive effects in the following areas:

- CLIL helps to strengthen the connection to the Russian language. “It is important for the language learners who learn outside of the native language environment, so they understand that Russian is connected to everything around them” [S-27].
- CLIL helps to organize the use of “Russian realia” via media inputs and texts [V-11].
- CLIL makes learning through Russian possible: It provides opportunities to “search information in Russian” [C-61] and use Russian as “an instrument” for different aims [A-47]. Russian “is not a fifth leg of the dog, not meaninglessly swinging around; it is a working tool, which the learner will probably not use in their future life, but will know how to use it” [A-33].
- CLIL helps teachers “get more results in less time” [C-59, A-45] and receives “positive feedback from learners” [B-23]. Also, CLIL provides “a new, different way of teaching” [I-19]; teachers feel “more freedom and less anxiety” [L-21, L-33, Q-31]. At the same time, CLIL provides a “structure for the teacher”: a structured way of planning a lesson and creating materials. “It’s one thing when we are intuitively doing something, and another when we are teaching with a plan that we are confident about. That’s not because I feel that I should randomly add a task or use a particular material, but it’s because I feel it is

necessary to the structure of the lesson - and I understand the reason for it - which gives me confidence” [S-67].

RQ 2-3 What concerns do the teachers have about implementing CLIL in heritage language teaching?

Implementing CLIL into heritage language teaching may raise the following concerns:

- **Related to the methodology**

- Due to the “Russian language being different from English” [B-53, K-27], teachers should be cognizant of that while adapting and adopting CLIL features.
- There are “differences in explaining content between Russia and one’s local country, for example, in history” [D-45]. So, teachers should be aware of how content is taught in the country where they are based.
- CLIL may be “understood as a panacea” [R-15] or be only a “fashionable word” that some schools want to use without understanding underlying principles [L-73]. The solution is knowing the approach’s limitations and providing information about what is and what is not CLIL.
- Some teachers [O-21, U-31, C-15] were concerned about the results of CLIL based only on content-driven methodology and argued that parallel language and CLIL lessons could be more effectively constructed and implemented.

- **Related to Russian school context**

- CLIL methodologies benefit from receiving “school support” [I-49] and from “collaboration between language and content teachers” [H-70], which are similar issues encountered in CLIL in EFL/ESL. Although, as was shown above, many Russian heritage schools are already teaching multiple subjects, so this issue is less relevant in the context of Russian heritage language teaching.
- Most teachers have no concerns about the elitism of CLIL classes. It was mentioned above that Russian schools usually accept all students and there are a range of language abilities within classes. A further issue is connected to the parents. At times, parents insist on placing their child in a particular class despite the child’s actual language ability, and “it is hard to convince the parents not to do it” [H-74].
- Lack of time for lessons: most Russian heritage language schools are weekend schools, and teachers are concerned about “how it may diminish” the effectiveness of CLIL [T-51].
- The availability of “high-performance teachers” [C-45] can vary significantly among countries. For example, there is no such issue in Estonia; whereas in the UK, the quality of teachers depends on the region.

- **Related to CLIL materials**

- Many teachers claim a lack of CLIL materials in Russian, both for direct use (n=10) and for customization to create themselves (n=4). They suggest the “creation of a CLIL materials database” [H-56, W-81], which has been successfully done for the English language.
- Some teachers “do not consider a lack of materials to be a problem” [L-89, S-69] since the creation and/or adaptation of materials by teachers is a widespread practice in Russian schools. “I have worked for 40 years in education and can say that for all of that time, I have never seen a textbook which I could take and use from beginning to end without modification” [R-43].

- **Related to the teachers**

- The biggest issue is a lack of information about CLIL in Russian. Some teachers are fluent in their local language other than English and “cannot read about CLIL in English” [K-65]. Providing qualitative information about CLIL in Russian would be crucial for implementing CLIL into the field of heritage language teaching.
- Ten teachers reaffirmed the need for direct CLIL training.
- According to the nine participants, implementing CLIL - the learning and integration of a novel educational approach - demands flexible and open-minded teachers.
- CLIL requires significant resources for teachers, especially time for preparing lessons and materials due to a lack of materials currently available. This issue is connected to the complexity of CLIL as a methodological approach. “I think the biggest problem is there are too many aspects [of CLIL]. Thus, teachers who use the CLIL approach must be aware of many facets in their preparations” [J-36].
- Compared to the field of EFL/ESL, the language level of teachers in Russian schools raises less of a concern because most teachers are native Russian speakers. This issue does exist for teachers who speak dialects of Russian “in former Soviet countries” [Q-49], or have “the interference of local languages” [C-45]. However, a greater concern is the knowledge of “the subject-related academic language”, especially for teaching teenagers [G-43, R-37].
- The primary concerns for teacher-related issues (34 codes) are connected to the knowledge of subject matter. As mentioned above, there exists a widespread practice of teaching a variety of subjects which are not always related to the teacher's formal education. “For us, the teachers of Russian, it is harder to teach other subjects because we don't have enough knowledge on the subject matter” [D-45].
- Teacher accreditation is also an issue because Russian schools sometimes employ teachers who “do not have a background in pedagogical education” [A-65, S-54, K-47]. Still, some teachers believe that “enthusiasm and a will to learn means more than educational background” [J-40, M-69].
- The role of the teacher in implementing CLIL is crucial from the planning to the teaching stages of a lesson. “I think it depends on the focus of the teacher” [G-37].

- **Related to the learners**

- “Low language skills of the learners” is a concern for 12 teachers, primarily for teachers who usually work with high-level learners. Interestingly, the author suggested that this may not be relevant in the case of heritage language learners because of their excellent passive vocabulary and the fact that the CLIL approach focuses on foreign language teaching with lower language skills. Some teachers argue that “we can use CLIL on every level” [C-53].
- “Low cognitive skills” [E-47] and “the absence of concepts” [P-41] are also issues that may reduce the effectiveness of CLIL implementation. Some teachers argue that learners need training for learning by CLIL if they are “not familiar with the CLIL way of teaching” [O-43, Q-33].
- Learners may lack motivation if they are “already familiar with the subject matter” [U-39] or if “the subject is not interesting to them” [F-31].
- Students may be “overloaded” by information at school [T-59] or may be “too tired after school” to successfully engage with CLIL [E-41], and the cognitively demanding CLIL methodology would be difficult for them.

- **Related to the parents**

- As most parents are unfamiliar with CLIL, they may not accept this way of teaching. “First, from the parents’ point of view, they may ask what we are doing. No calligraphy books, no textbooks, no notebooks. We regularly hold discussions during lessons. One task may take a lot of time. So, they can ask this question: What are you doing? Why are you doing it? Is it effective? And may retort: We want more traditional lessons” [E-41]. Teachers have to be able to explain to parents about CLIL in order to gain their trust.

Teachers expressed their beliefs about “killing two birds with one stone,” suggesting that both the content matter and the language may be taught at a high level. Six of the teachers agreed, six did not agree, and six said it is possible depending on specific conditions.

Eleven teachers also noted that many of them have already used some elements of CLIL in their lessons even though they lacked formal knowledge of the approach. “I understood that we have been using content-language learning already, as we taught history and literature through language” [V-5]. “I have just understood that we have already used many of the principles intuitively, but it would be better to know the theory” [R-13].

Providing both the theory and easy-to-understand practical training for Russian heritage language teachers is the crucial issue for educational transfer of the CLIL approach to this field.

5. Discussion

Participants from different countries and different teaching contexts provided valuable data to construct the theoretical basis for the educational transfer of CLIL into heritage language teaching areas. As mentioned in the literature review, there is neediness for a theoretical and practical framework of approaches to teaching heritage language learners. The research is a valuable step from understanding “what” are the characteristics of a heritage language learner to “how” to teach them. The results support and further upon the practical viewpoint of teachers presented by Kavanagh (2020). The participants gave answers regarding expectations about CLIL, which were close to the image of CLIL in EFL/ESL in providing high language learning results and increasing motivation. However, heritage language teachers have more expectations about providing cognitive development than EFL/ESL teachers.

Most participants of both stages believe that CLIL is an effective way to teach heritage languages and that CLIL answers the pedagogical needs of Russian heritage language learners. The theoretical basis for the potential of the approach is rooted in the data from the field of EFL/ESL and the beliefs of Russian heritage language teachers. The key points of CLIL's potential are the following:

- CLIL helps to increase **the motivation** of learners through learner-involvement, reduction of anxiety/fear of making mistakes, learning by doing, and by learning through interesting content matter.
- CLIL promotes **language learning**, especially vocabulary acquisition (including academic vocabulary), speaking, reading and writing.
- CLIL promotes **learners’ cognitive development** and provides tools and goals through a learning process that can be transferred to local school education.

Based on the results represented in 4.2.2, the expected benefits of using CLIL in heritage language teaching are as follows:

1. opportunities to successfully learn content matter through Russian

2. a connection to Russian culture and realia
3. effective tools to empower teachers in the classroom
4. shifting the goals of learning from Russian language acquisition to the content matter and/or instrument of instruction
5. achieving more results in less time which is crucial in the context of heritage language schools

The main concerns are as follows:

1. time requirements for implementing the approach due to its newness and complexity
2. a lack of materials currently available to teachers
3. requires for teachers to become “jacks of all trades” (teaching both content and language simultaneously while creating suitable teaching materials) and/or requires significant collaboration with other teachers
4. a lack of information currently available to teachers about CLIL in Russian
5. a lack of information currently available to communicate the effectiveness of CLIL to parents
6. the cognitively demanding requirements of CLIL, forcing teachers to regularly monitor cognitive loads and learner motivation

Based on the findings of the study, for successful educational transfer to occur, the following processes are necessary:

- providing understandable and well-structured information about the CLIL approach and its elements in Russian
- designing research to analyze the effectiveness of the CLIL approach for heritage language learners
- creating an evidence-based theory of specific CLIL methodologies for heritage language teaching
- providing a collaborative community for CLIL teachers
- providing easy-to-participate training sessions and discussion groups about CLIL elements and how teaching CLIL in Russian can be different from English or other languages
- promoting collaboration between language and subject teachers including teachers from different countries
- creating a database of CLIL resources and educational materials in Russian
- providing information about CLIL for learners’ parents

6. Conclusion

The data provide preliminary evidence and theoretical support that Russian heritage language teachers believe that CLIL is an effective approach for their students. CLIL answers the language-related, cognitive-related pedagogical needs of the learners and increases their motivation. Motivation is crucial for Russian heritage language schools where learners often have no apparent reason to learn Russian except by their parents' will. As such, heritage language school teachers must balance “interesting” and “valuable” teaching content, and CLIL may provide a solution for both.

The limitations of this study are related to the participants. They are all members of a Facebook group where the author is the administrator, so interactions were undertaken virtually with the interviewees. In both the first and second stages, the participants may have seen the interviewer as a trainer, possibly shaping the feedback from their experiences and context. Even though different teaching contexts provide valuable data, the participants were characterized as open-

minded teachers who were learning a new pedagogy. Of the teachers who came to the sessions in the first stage and the participants in the second stage who volunteered for the interview who claimed to “have some knowledge of CLIL”, it was implied that they had a prior interest in CLIL. As such, the feedback about concerns and potential benefits of CLIL may be different in the case of not-so-interested teachers. In the context of Russian schools, however, teachers often have greater freedom so interest in CLIL by teachers may be a vanguard of successful implementation in heritage language teaching.

The effectiveness of CLIL in the field of heritage language teaching must be evidence-based. Further studies are necessary to investigate what elements of CLIL teachers implement in their classrooms and which are omitted. Also, little is known about the effectiveness of CLIL for heritage language learners. More research needs to be undertaken to understand the comparative differences between CLIL and non-CLIL skill development in learners, both cognitively and vis-à-vis language acquisition.

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Appendix A. Pedagogical needs of Russian heritage language learners

Skills	Pedagogical needs of Russian-speaking heritage language learning children (based on Kagan & Dillon, 2003, pp. 81-82, usual font. Savinykh, 2021, revised: bold font)
Pronunciation and intonation	Some pronunciation and intonation issues, fluent and pronunciation.
Vocabulary	Age appropriate/literary/ academic/formal.
Grammar	Macro-approach (i.e. by concept). More input and drills. Strategies of understanding the grammar.
Reading	Fairly large and complex texts almost from the very beginning. Functional reading.
Writing	High degree of internal grammar allows expansive writing assignments at early stages of instruction. Macro-approach to writing: concentrate on the content and gradually improve spelling, grammar and stylistics. Different genres of text.
Speaking	Macro-approach: emphasis on monologue and discussion Speaking strategies
Listening	Macro-approach: full range of native language input, i.e. movies, documentaries, lectures
Culture	Macro-approach: full range of native language input, audio, visual, and print. Understanding the cultural variety of Russian-speaking people.

Appendix B. Questionary 1. Basic information about participants of the seminar “How to plan and construct materials with CLIL’s elements for Russian heritage language learners and how to use the materials in classrooms” (n=23)

1. Your name and family name
2. E-mail address
3. Date of seminar
4. Name of school you work (teaching heritage language learners children)
5. Country you live and work
6. Age of children you teach
7. Teaching subjects
8. Form of teaching (in classes/online/other)
9. Are you familiar with CLIL?
 - Have not heard of CLIL
 - Have heard of CLIL
 - Familiar with CLIL
 - Very familiar with CLIL
 - Have implemented CLIL and want to learn more

Appendix C. Questionary 2. Preparation for the seminar “How to plan and construct materials with CLIL’s elements for Russian heritage language learners and how to use the materials in classrooms” (n=21)

(Completed after reading the leaflet about the pedagogical needs of Russian heritage learners (the table mentioned below is the Appendix A), the context of Russian heritage language schools, and the CLIL’s elements)

1. Your name
2. Date of seminar
3. Why did you decide to participate?
4. Why are you interested in CLIL? (multiple answers allowed)
 - I’m looking for new teaching approaches
 - I’m looking for effective teaching approaches
 - I want to learn different teaching approaches
 - Other
5. What points do you agree and disagree with within the table of pedagogical needs of heritage language learners?
6. What pedagogical needs of your students do you consider the most relevant?
7. What points do you agree with and disagree with within the survey of characteristics of teaching in Russian schools abroad?
8. Choose ALL problems relevant to you. Write the issues that aren’t mentioned here.
 - Lack of time
 - Lack of students’ motivation
 - Lack of appropriate teaching materials
 - Too much time for preparing lessons
 - Heterogeneity of students’ language level in the same group
 - Heterogeneity of students’ age in the same group
 - Heterogeneity of students’ different skills in the same group (for example, some can read well, and some have just started to learn to read)
 - Other
9. Choose THREE the most relevant to you problems. Write the relevant problems in “other” if you need.
 - Lack of time
 - Lack of students’ motivation
 - Lack of appropriate teaching materials
 - Too much time for preparing lessons
 - Heterogeneity of students’ language level in the same group
 - Heterogeneity of students’ age in the same group
 - Heterogeneity of students’ different skills in the same group (for example, some can read well, and some have just started to learn to read)
 - Other
10. What keywords and concepts of CLIL do you not understand well?
11. Do you agree that CLIL answers the pedagogical needs of heritage language learners? Why do you think so (based on your teaching context and experience)? What may other decisions be proper?
12. What principles of CLIL would you like to use/continue to use in your lessons?
13. Write the SUBJECT topic you choose to develop lesson planning in the seminar.
14. What results do you expect from the seminar?

Appendix D. Questionary 3. Feedback of the seminar “How to plan and construct materials with CLIL’s elements for Russian heritage language learners and how to use the materials in classrooms” (n=22)

Questions 1-11 use Likert scale from 1 to 5

1. Was the seminar time convenient for you (1-inconvenient, 5-convenient)
2. The seminar was (1-too short, 5-too long)
3. Preliminary reading of the leaflet was (1-not useful, 5-useful)
4. Was the seminar helpful for your work with heritage language learners? (1-no, 5-yes)
5. Was the seminar informative? (1-no, 5-yes)
6. Did you learn more about goal setting using CLIL? (1-no, 5-yes)
7. Did you learn more about activities for active learning? (1-no, 5-yes)
8. Did you learn more about the potential of using graphic organizers and visualization? (1-no, 5-yes)
9. Did you learn more about scaffolding techniques? (1-no, 5-yes)
10. Do you want to learn more about CLIL in the future? (1-no, 5-yes)
11. Do you want to use CLIL’s elements in your work with heritage language learners? (1-no, 5-yes)
12. What was the most interesting and valuable to you at the seminar?

Appendix E. Interview questions (second stage of research), translated from Russian (n=23)

Interview were half-structured, so the real questions of interview may be different by the order and phrasing. There was no particular question if the interviewee already talked about it.

1. How many years do you teach Russian or other subjects in Russian school abroad?
2. Who are your students (age, Russian language level)?
3. What is your education?
4. When have you heard about CLIL for the first time?
5. Where have you learned CLIL’s principles?
6. What do you think about CLIL?
7. What pedagogical needs of heritage language learners answer CLIL?
8. Do you think that CLIL answers the needs in the following areas:
 - learning and using vocabulary (everyday, academic)
 - learning and using grammar
 - speaking
 - reading skills
 - writing skills
9. What positive effect we can expect from implementing CLIL to the heritage language education?
10. Can we expect the following effects:
 - "killing two birds by one stone" effect
 - increase of Russian language level
 - increase the opportunities of instrumental use of language (searching information on Russian or other instrumental use)
 - increase of motivation
 - increase of learning to learn skills
 - increase linguistic and cognitive aspects awareness
11. What problems may occur in implementing CLIL to the heritage language education?
12. Can you imagine the following problems:

- connected to the language level of the teachers
- connected to the knowledge of teachers of subject content
- connected to the professionalism of teachers
- connected to the knowledge of teachers about CLIL
- connected to the low language level of students
- connected to the elitism of CLIL classes

13. Can you add something more about CLIL and heritage language teaching that you wanted to say but wasn't asked yet?

Student Perceptions of a Team-Taught CLIL Unit on Human Happiness at a Japanese Senior High School

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Abstract

As a methodology, a Soft CLIL approach has not been widely applied or examined in terms of its potential in the team-teaching context of secondary schools. This paper discusses the reactions of students (N=35) at a senior high school to CLIL lessons team taught by a Japanese teacher of English (JTE) and an English-speaking assistant language teacher (ALT). Team teachers collaborated to create authentic materials for eight lessons on the topic of human happiness which were delivered over twelve class periods. Through materials analysis, this paper outlines the human happiness unit's integration of CLIL principles with student-centered task- and project-based learning. Using questionnaire data from students, this paper examines student perceptions of the 4Cs and team-teaching aspects of the lessons. The quantitative results based on a four-point Likert-scale questionnaire showed positive responses to the content, cognition, and cultural aspects of the lessons. The qualitative results from a post-unit open-ended questionnaire demonstrated (1) students' appreciation of the unique contributions of native and non-native teachers to their learning, (2) students' increased motivation and interest in content compared to their regular lessons, and (3) students' advocacy of translanguaging practices for scaffolding their understanding. It is hoped that this study can be used as evidence for the potential of Soft CLIL for team teaching, and team teaching for Soft CLIL, in secondary school contexts.

Keywords: team teaching, Soft CLIL, materials development, student perceptions

1. Introduction

As Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) continues to gain traction in Japan, the situation of team teaching between Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) and native English-speaking assistant language teachers (ALTs) in secondary schools offers grounds for further contextualizing a local CLIL pedagogy. Olson (2021) theorized a set of guidelines and protocols for maximizing team teachers' collaborative efforts to implement a Soft CLIL approach. In this paper, I will attempt to further articulate a team-taught Soft CLIL approach based on researcher-practitioner accounts of materials development and senior high school students' reactions to a team-taught CLIL unit on the topic of human happiness. After providing some background on team teaching and Soft CLIL in Japan, I will review the principles of CLIL materials design, such as authenticity, learner-centeredness and the 4Cs, and how these may or may not dovetail with the general situation of team teaching. I will then overview the human happiness unit and the hopes, successes, and failures of team teachers to implement it. Finally, based on findings from a post-unit student questionnaire, I will discuss the 4Cs and team-teaching aspects of the lessons and highlight the potentials and challenges of the approach.

2. Literature review

2.1 Team teaching in Japan

Team teaching, also sometimes called "co-teaching," has several definitions and styles. For the purposes of this paper, team teaching will refer to two instructors who teach the same students within the same classroom at the same time (for a general overview see, e.g., Goetz, 2000). In their chapter titled "Team teaching: Learning to dance," Bailey et al. (2001) point out that many teachers may prefer solo teaching, but in team teaching, teachers have to learn how to teach

together with their partner, often not of their choice. The relationships between teachers are, of course, complex and dynamic, and no two teams are exactly alike. But despite professional and personal differences that may need to be navigated, most team teachers try to create a situation that is positive for both members and generate an outcome that is greater than the sum of their individual parts. When teachers are actively involved in collaborative planning, reflecting, and revising of lessons, team teaching facilitates a community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991) wherein teachers can explore new teaching approaches and engage in ongoing professional development (Robinson & Schaible, 1995; Buckley, 2000).

Brumby and Wada (1990) provided an early definition of team teaching in Japan as “a concerted endeavor made jointly by the Japanese teacher of English and the assistant English teacher in an English language classroom in which the students, the JTE, and the [ALT] are engaged in communicative activities” (p. 38). Team teaching on a national scale originated with the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Program in 1987. Minoru Wada, one of the principal designers behind the JET Program, remarked, “Team teaching is not an established teaching system, but a process in the strenuous effort to change the teaching and learning style of English in Japan” (Brumby & Wada, 1990, p. 6). At its outset, team teaching was used as a means to usher in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) into the country. In addition to supporting JTEs’ English-speaking skills and teaching abilities, team teaching was proposed to improve students’ communicative abilities by making interactions in the classroom more meaningful (Brumby & Wada, 1990). The JET Program and presence of ALTs in Japan grew yearly, and now, more than three decades later, team teaching is an integral part of English education at the secondary level and can be found in CLT classrooms across the country from kindergarten to senior high school (CLAIR, 2021).

Currently, Japan and several other Asian countries including Taiwan, Hong Kong and Korea, implement team-teaching schemes in secondary English language classrooms by pairs of so-called “native-speaking teachers” (NSTs) and “non-native-speaking teachers” (NNSTs). These terms have been criticized in the literature for painting with too broad a brush (see, e.g., Cook, 1999); however, proponents of the scheme recognize that many of the strengths and weaknesses of NSTs and NNSTs are actually complementary. A merit of one group offsets a perceived deficit in the other and, in theory, they combine to achieve a good balance for students’ learning. For example, NSTs may be seen as cultural ambassadors of the target language, and capable of exposing the local teachers and students to Western pedagogical styles and goals, such as public speaking, project-based learning, and critical thinking (Carless, 2006). However, they may not be knowledgeable about the local education system, and they are not typically trained teachers with backgrounds in education (Ma, 2012). The local NNSTs, on the other hand, tend to have a first-hand account of learning the target language as an L2, know about the local educational policies and curriculum, and can handle classroom management as they are trained, licensed teachers (Braine, 2010). They can provide students with a more attainable goal of pronunciation, as well as be models of successful English learning as they are “living proof that it can be done” (Andrewes, 1999, p. 39). NNSTs tend to rely on textbooks, however, which may result in a lack of innovation and creativity in the classroom (Benke & Medgyes, 2005).

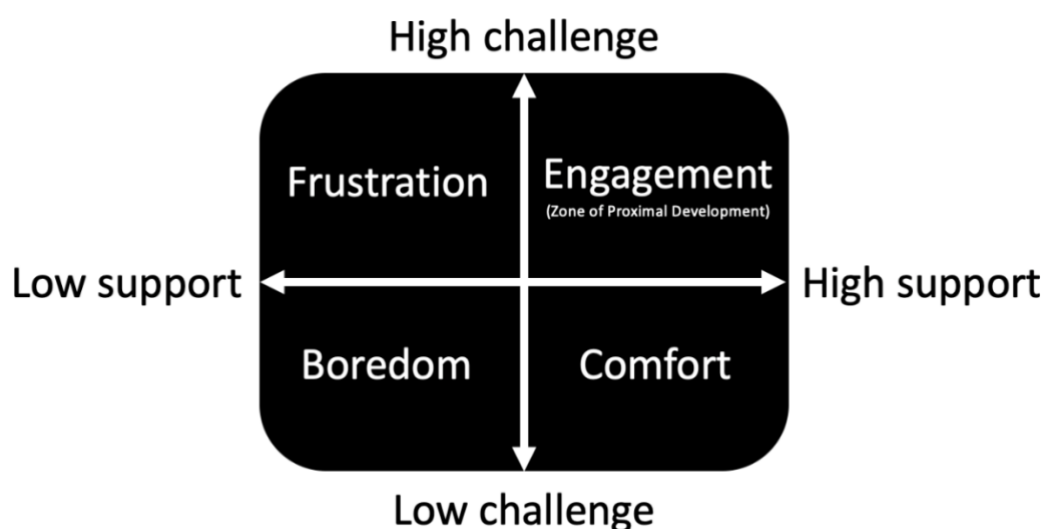
2.2 CLIL theory and team teaching

CLIL separates itself from some established approaches such as content-based language learning or forms of bilingual education through its “planned pedagogic integration of contextualized content, cognition, communication, and culture into teaching and learning practice” (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 6). These four components are referred to as the “4Cs” of CLIL.

Those who engage with CLIL can be novice or experienced teachers of English, or teachers with degrees in school subjects such as science, history, or art. Variations in CLIL approaches between countries are the result of its “expansion in diverse educational settings which respond to specific cultural spaces” (Banegas & Hemmi, 2021, p. 284). The Soft CLIL variation, which is normally implemented for foreign language classes, has been gradually gaining popularity as an innovative teaching approach in Japan, although it has not yet been widely implemented in secondary contexts (Sato et al., 2021). There have been reports of subject-focused Hard CLIL implementation in recent years (e.g., Takasago, 2021; Tsuda, 2019), but it may still be too ambitious for many Japanese subject teachers to teach through the target language due to a lack of language proficiency or systematically employed language-teaching assistants (Izumi, 2021; Ikeda, 2013). As Ikeda (2019) asserts, “the soft version of CLIL incorporated into language lessons is the de facto norm in Japan” (p. 29). Soft CLIL maintains this status because it is relatively easy to implement. As the expansion of CLIL into Japan continues, the cultural space and situation of NST–NNST team teaching seems primed to adapt and evolve new practice models for Soft CLIL.

According to Banegas and Hemmi (2021), the original principles and approaches of CLIL must be locally adapted to ensure they are relevant to their new contexts. One of the fundamental tenets of CLIL pedagogy is social constructivist learning theory (Coyle et al., 2010). This theory is built on the notion that learning occurs through collaboration, giving attention to Vygotskian concepts such as the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) wherein learning is challenging but possible with external support (Vygotsky, 1978). Traditionally, in team-taught CLT classrooms, learners may be well supported but bored because they only use their lower-order thinking skills (LOTS). More recently, in solo-taught CLIL classrooms, higher-order thinking skills (HOTS) may be required for tasks, but learners may feel frustrated because of insufficient external support. In team-taught CLIL classrooms, however, learners can be appropriately challenged by HOTS tasks *and* appropriately supported by dint of the lower student–teacher ratio. In this way, the situation of team teaching can expand on Mariani’s (1997) notion of Teacher Support and Teacher Challenge for learners to engage with CLIL lessons and stay situated within their ZPD (see Figure 1).

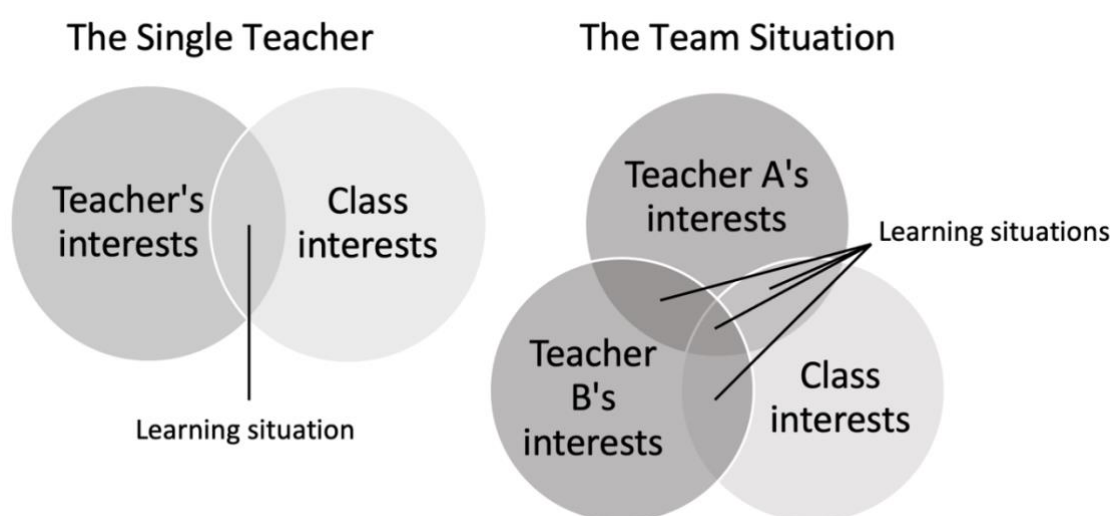
Figure 1. The zones of learning (adapted from Mariani, 1997)



The lower student–teacher ratio, in addition to providing students with more one-on-one time and support from teachers, can also help address learners’ varied abilities and multiple

intelligences (Brown, 2013; Gardner, 1983). When properly arranged, team teaching itself can serve as a model for teamwork and cooperative learning, which is linked to improved interpersonal skills (Hibler, 2010) and chimes with the culture component of CLIL. According to Worrall et al. (1970), compared with the single-teacher situation, students are more likely to gain viewpoints from multiple perspectives from team-taught classes (see Figure 2). The number of possible learning situations increases potential exposure to different philosophies, experiences, values, and sources of information. Rather than considering only one perspective on each issue or new topic brought up in class, two or more different perspectives can help students “blur the black-and-white way of thinking common in our society and see many shades of gray” (Goetz, 2000, p. 3). Contrasting NST–NNST perspectives during lessons, therefore, has the potential to not only enhance culture but also deepen the content and cognition components of CLIL as well.

Figure 2. Single teacher versus team teaching situations (adapted from Worrall et al., 1970)



2.3 CLIL materials development and team teaching

There are also several important implications for how team teachers can approach CLIL materials development. Ideally, after agreeing on a set of principles, teachers can work together to collect and select input sources that match their learners’ cognitive and language levels but maintain a level of challenge (Banegas, 2017). Teachers can then share the burden of creating high-quality CLIL materials (whether on a unit-by-unit, lesson-by-lesson, or task-by-task basis) and hold each other accountable to the agreed-upon approach. Realistically, however, Japanese teachers have some of the longest working hours in the world (Ainley & Carstens, 2018) and may not have the time nor energy for creating original materials due to their already-overburdened schedules. Commercially produced textbooks which advertise CLIL are becoming increasingly available in Japan and may be an expedient option; however, some researchers point out the dangers of this to CLIL’s image. When CLIL becomes generic or its content topics interchangeable, it compromises a unique feature of CLIL, namely, authenticity (Pinner, 2021; Banegas & Hemmi, 2021). JTEs may instead opt to take advantage of capable ALTs to find authentic resources or use their subject-content academic backgrounds or interests for creating authentic materials. Indeed, authenticity is “intrinsic to CLIL” (Sylvén, 2017, p. 55), and along with learner-centeredness, is one of the two common denominators of CLIL across the world (Banegas & Hemmi, 2021).

Authenticity is naturally associated primarily with materials (Maley & Tomlinson, 2017) and

is highly dependent on context and individual meaning-making (Pinner, 2021). Team teachers working together can strategize how to sequence the materials in a unit in such a way that the “content, language, and cognitive levels required are presented in a staged manner without having to overwhelm students” (Izumi & Pinner, 2021, p. 172). Since much material is created with the teacher as the central focus of the classroom (Copland & Mann, 2012), it is doubly important that team teachers incorporate materials in ways that do not undermine CLIL’s learner-centered pedagogy. It is, after all, content and language integrated *learning*, not *teaching*. As Banegas and Hemmi (2021) recommend, “teachers may help build a stronger sense of participatory education in the classroom where there is negotiation while being clear about the different roles that learners and teachers play as knowledge is co-constructed” (p. 286). The NST and NNST indeed have important and unique roles to play in the classroom, but in order not to compromise the culture component of CLIL, they must harness the materials and task design in a way that involves students as much as possible and allows them greater control over their learning.

The following section will provide an example of how team teachers attempted to follow these principles in creating an original unit on the topic of human happiness.

3. Methods and materials

3.1 Participants

The study took place at a public senior high school in the Kanto area of Japan. The class, titled “Cross Cultural Understanding” (CCU), consisted of 35 third-year students: 23 female students and 12 male students. Their average English proficiency was judged by the instructors to be around A2 on the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) scale. The CCU class was offered as part of the general English language curriculum for third-year students. The class was team taught by a 56-year-old Japanese male (the JTE) and a 31-year-old American male (the ALT). Both instructors were experienced teachers, had previously taught with more than 10 team-teaching partners, and were enthusiastic about exploring new CLIL-based pedagogies.

To maximize on the CLIL and team-teaching aspects of the lessons, the instructors followed a collaborative action research model adapted from Sasajima (2013) for each lesson. Before the start of the lessons, the instructors negotiated their roles. In part because of the JTE’s busy schedule, it was decided that the ALT would prepare lesson plans and class materials and the JTE would provide feedback. For each lesson, the ALT used a CLIL Lesson Planning Sheet (Ikeda, 2016), Lesson Plan and Teacher Talk templates, and the JTE filled out a Feedback Sheet to ensure the lessons were staying within the principles of a CLIL approach and properly scaffolded for students’ content and language needs (see Olson, 2021).

3.2 Unit overview

The unit and materials used for each lesson were designed from scratch. According to Davis (2021), for Soft CLIL lesson design, it is important to first decide on a *unifying concept*, that is, “the hub of a unit which is derived not from language, but from content” (p. 64). In this case, the teachers decided to center the unit content around the topic of human happiness. They rationalized that the subject may be interesting or even beneficial for third-year high school students regarding their outlook on life. Despite not having a formal background in psychology, philosophy, or sociology, the ALT had a strong personal interest in the topic. Through reading books and articles or watching TED talks and films, he was familiar with various concepts related to the subject, and he was able to draw on these resources for making authentic materials. The teachers agreed on a rough schedule to cover the human happiness unit (see Table 1). They

divided the unit into eight lessons to be delivered over the course of 4 weeks and approximately twelve 55-minute class periods. The first half of the unit was input-focused, covering concepts such as how happiness is subjectively and objectively defined and measured, Mihály Csíkszentmihályi's flow theory, the hedonic treadmill, and the paradox of choice. The latter half of the unit was then output-focused, with student group projects and project-based learning. The handouts for students were all organized around tasks, such as categorizing different types of happiness, analyzing and comparing happiness statistics in various countries, and evaluating the message of a short film on consumerism (see Figure 3). Following recommendations from Ikeda (2012), the teachers used the worksheets to guide learners from LOTS to HOTS and keep the lessons learner-centered. The teachers also attempted to take advantage of the team-teaching situation by planning and performing teacher talks at the front of the classroom. The purpose of these talks was to introduce the basic concept which would be covered in the lesson. They were also an opportunity to enhance the content component of CLIL through activating students' prior knowledge, as well as the culture component by comparing and contrasting the concept in Japan with the ALT's home country. Many of the talks took the form of a dialogue between teachers, but there was room for ad lib and improvisation so as to encourage participation from students in the conversations.

Table 1. Unit schedule

Week 1	Lesson 1 What is human happiness? - Defining happiness - Categorizing happiness - Measuring happiness	Lesson 2 The happiness hypothesis - Happiness formula - Adaptation principle - Flow theory
Week 2	Lesson 3 Happiness and consumerism - Consumerism - Hedonic treadmill - Mark Osbourne's "MORE"	Lesson 4 Happiness and minimalism - Materialism - Paradox of choice - Minimalism
Week 3	Lesson 5 Unit review - Materialism - Minimalism - Digital minimalism	Lesson 6 Group projects - Student groups - Topic selection - Preparations
Week 4	Lesson 7 Group projects - Preparations - Rehearsals	Lesson 8 Group projects - Rehearsals - Presentations

The teachers scaffolded the worksheets by using PowerPoint slides to present information, such as giving examples of happiness categories, or providing vocabulary for the reading text (see Figure 4). The teachers also used these slides as a canvas for multi-modal input (Dale & Tanner, 2012) including graphs, maps, diagrams, images, newspaper headlines, and other means of having students engage with authentic content. It was hoped that this would personalize the concepts for learners, provide examples that were relevant to their lives, and help them find depth in the ideas they were presented with in the lessons.

Lesson 1 - What makes you happy?

Task 1: Thinking
What are three things or activities that make you happy? Rank them on your Happiness scale, and give your reasons why.

Thing/Activity	1	10	Reason

Task 2: Categorizing
Based on your own categories, categorize happiness into three groups.

Group 1	Group 2	Group 3

Task 3: Reading
Read an article about happiness and fill in the blanks.

1. Being money () it () make you happier because additional () () does not raise the satisfaction (other than () () are not).

2. A () () does not () the road to happiness.

3. Being married () you () then being single, but married people may be more happy in the first place.

4. Californians believe they are () than Midwesterners because they have more sunny days, but this is () ()

Lesson 2 - Happiness Hypothesis

Task 1: Thinking and discussion
Look at the table of data from the 2019 World Happiness Report and answer the questions. Discuss your findings in groups.


Country	GDP	Social support	Life expectancy	Freedom	Generosity	
Finland	1	1.200	1.502	874	487	1012
Canada	7	1.130	1.532	854	453	321
Germany	15	1.280	1.478	801	586	273
USA	18	1.700	1.471	813	547	241
Austria	24	1.018	1.232	761	479	260
Brazil	38	866	1.474	673	493	112
Singapore	34	1.529	1.451	1.208	431	261
Italy	47	1.284	1.321	846	381	117
Japan	34	1.284	1.462	848	353	276
China	86	989	1.142	759	347	428


1. Do you think there are good reasons for happiness? Why or why not?

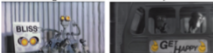
2. How is measuring personal happiness different?


Lesson 3 - Happiness and Consumerism

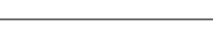
Task 1: Watching and Retelling
Watch the short film titled "More" and retell the story by filling in the blanks.

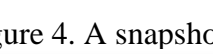
A. 

B. 

C. 

D. 

E. 

F. 

1. He goes to work at a _____.

2. He buys a product called _____.

3. He gets paid for his _____.

4. He makes a new invention called _____.

5. He becomes _____ for his new invention.

6. He sees _____ playing on a merry-go-round.

Lesson 4 - Happiness and Minimalism

Task 1: Thinking and Discussion
1. Do you agree that more choices make you happy? Why or why not?

2. What are the good points and bad points about having more choices?

Task 2: Listening and Note Taking
Listen to the conversation about the paradox of choice and take notes.

Paradox of choice: ① _____

② _____ effects _____

③ _____ freedom _____

The many choices → ④ _____ to choose

More choices → ⑤ _____ satisfied

We can imagine a different choice that would have been ⑥ _____

Opportunity cost: _____

When you choose to do one thing, you are choosing ⑦ _____ to do another.

Expectations → increased _____

Choice before but fear ⑧ _____

Serious to happiness → ⑨ _____ expectations?

No choice → ⑩ _____ responsible

Choice → ⑪ _____ responsible

Lesson 5 - Happiness and the Five Principles

Task 1: Thinking and discussion
Look at the table of data from the 2019 World Happiness Report and answer the questions. Discuss your findings in groups.

Country	GDP	Social support	Life expectancy	Freedom	Generosity	
Finland	1	1.200	1.502	874	487	1012
Canada	7	1.130	1.532	854	453	321
Germany	15	1.280	1.478	801	586	273
USA	18	1.700	1.471	813	547	241
Austria	24	1.018	1.232	761	479	260
Brazil	38	866	1.474	673	493	112
Singapore	34	1.529	1.451	1.208	431	261
Italy	47	1.284	1.321	846	381	117
Japan	34	1.284	1.462	848	353	276
China	86	989	1.142	759	347	428

1. Do you think there are good reasons for happiness? Why or why not?

2. How is measuring personal happiness different?

Lesson 6 - Happiness and the Five Principles

Task 1: Thinking and Discussion
1. Do you agree that more choices make you happy? Why or why not?

2. What are the good points and bad points about having more choices?

Task 2: Listening and Note Taking
Listen to the conversation about the paradox of choice and take notes.

Paradox of choice: ① _____

② _____ effects _____

③ _____ freedom _____

The many choices → ④ _____ to choose

More choices → ⑤ _____ satisfied

We can imagine a different choice that would have been ⑥ _____

Opportunity cost: _____

When you choose to do one thing, you are choosing ⑦ _____ to do another.

Expectations → increased _____

Choice before but fear ⑧ _____

Serious to happiness → ⑨ _____ expectations?

No choice → ⑩ _____ responsible

Choice → ⑪ _____ responsible

The New Science of Happiness

What makes us happy?
More than you might imagine. Take wealth, for instance, and all the delightful things that money can buy. Research has shown that once your basic needs are met, additional income does little to raise your sense of satisfaction with life. *A good education? Sorry, Mom and Dad,* neither education nor, for that matter, a high IQ paves the road to happiness. Marriage? A complicated picture: married people are generally happier than singles, but that may be because they were happier to begin with. *Success doesn't help,* although a 1998 study showed that Midwesterners think folks living in balm California are happier and that Californians incorrectly believe this about themselves too.





delightful 楽しい
income 収入
do little ほとんど効果がない
pave への道を開く
Midwesterner アメリカ中西部の人
folks 人々
balm 真やかな
genuine 本当
lift the spirit 精神を高揚させる
salient 目立った
ties つながり
commitment 献身
spread word うわさを広める

interpersonal 個人間
static 固定された
cheery 陽気な
blue 憂鬱な
inherent 固有の
subjective 主観的
scholars 学者
validity 妥当性
square well 対等になる
incidence 発症率

Pleasure



Passion



Purpose



3 TYPES OF HAPPINESS



Adaptation principle





Percentage of American teens that use social media every day

Percentage of College Students Who Say That They Have a Psychological Disorder



Source: 1. A. Percentage of college students responding "yes" to the question "Do you have (a) psychological disorder (depression, etc.)?" (Source: Higher Education Research Institute.)







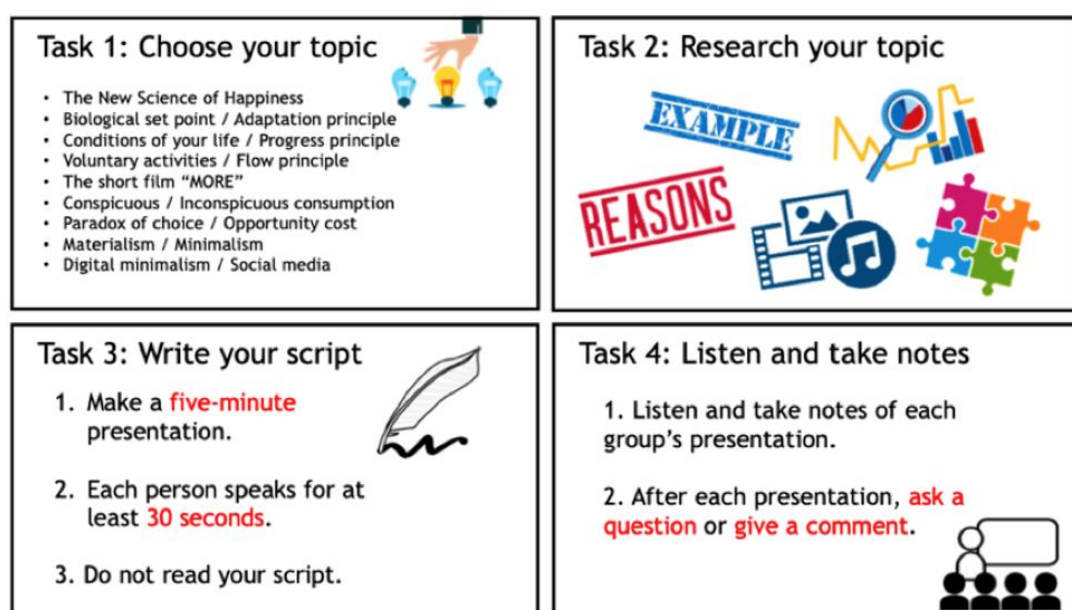


However, attempting to incorporate “authenticity” into classroom materials did not always go according to plan. The first lesson, for example, used an authentic article from TIME magazine titled “The New Science of Happiness.” The article was edited down for length, but the language was kept as close as possible to the original. In class, it became clear that it was too difficult for the students’ level, and a last-minute decision was made for the ALT to read the English aloud and for the JTE to translate the article into Japanese line-by-line. This had the unintended consequence of overwhelming students and weakening their efforts to understand the original English. In hindsight, it became clear that the text needed to be simplified, elaborated or discursified (see Griffiths, 2019), but due to the time constraints of the preparations and the class itself, this would have to be done for future lessons.

Fortunately, there were some successes in attempting to implement the cognition component of CLIL’s 4Cs (Coyle et al., 2010). In the third lesson, for instance, students watched a short film on YouTube titled “MORE” on the topic of consumerism. In a movement from LOTS to HOTS, they first did a simple retelling of the story by sequencing the events and filling in the blank about the plot details. The HOTS part came with the second task, which had students analyze the meaning of the film. Students had to think about and discuss the symbolism behind the story, and many struggled to use English to express their thoughts. As there was no “correct” answer per se, the teachers needed to scaffold many of the students one-on-one to push their thinking and creativity in coming up with interpretations. This seemed to work, at least for one student, who went to see the JTE in the teachers’ office after class to further discuss her interpretation of the story. This was a level of engagement that the JTE said he never encountered in his regular, non-CLIL lessons.

In the latter half of the lessons, students were required to show their understanding of the concepts through group projects. According to Yokono (2021), project-based learning is suitably matched with CLIL because it helps transform students into active learners who take initiative and tailor their learning in cooperation with other group members. For the human happiness unit, students were required to choose a topic, research the topic in depth, write a script, create a PowerPoint and present it in their groups (see Figure 5).

Figure 5. Support slides for group project procedures



In their preparations, students seemed to benefit from a lower student–teacher ratio. For example, one teacher could fulfill the role of classroom manager and wander around the room to make sure students were on task or help navigate technical issues with their PowerPoint presentations. The other teacher, meanwhile, could take a more focused approach and scaffold weaker students who were behind in their preparations. These roles were somewhat dynamic depending on the immediate needs of the situation, although the JTE tended to the former and the ALT to the latter. In the final lesson, eight groups presented on a variety of concepts related to happiness. The students were able to personalize their learning, and their performances went beyond the expectations of the teachers.

3.3 Post-unit student questionnaire

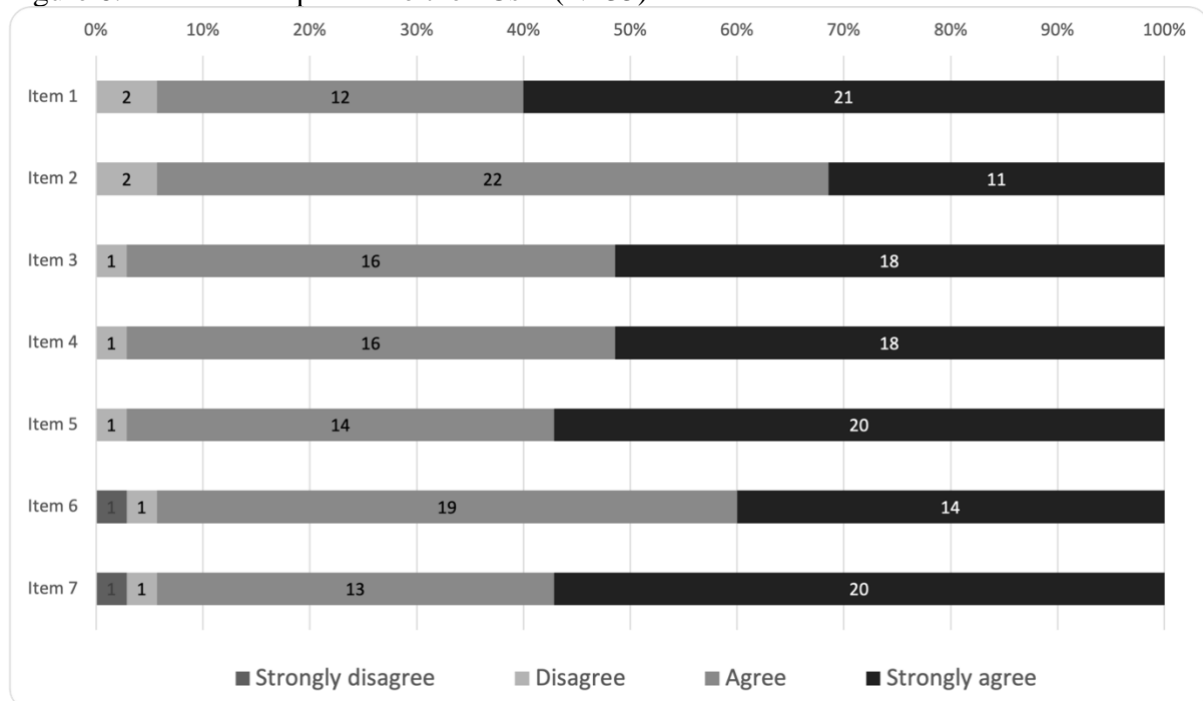
At the end of the unit, all 35 students used Google Forms to anonymously answer, rate, and respond to a questionnaire about the 4Cs and team-teaching aspects of the lessons (see Appendix A). The questionnaire was written in Japanese and contained a set of generalized statements (e.g., “I enjoyed the team-taught style of the class”) to which the students responded on a four-point Likert scale: “I really don’t think so.” “I don’t think so.” “I think so.” “I really think so.” The students also responded to the general difficulty of the unit based on a four-point Likert scale from “not difficult at all” to “very difficult.” Additionally, students had the option to answer open-response items wherein they could comment freely with their opinion on the content and team-teaching aspects of the unit.

4. Findings and discussion

4.1 Students’ perceptions of the 4Cs

Figure 6 shows the students’ responses to the items related to the content of the lessons.

Figure 6. Students’ responses to the 4Cs (N=35)



In response to Item 1 (“I enjoyed this unit.”), the majority of students agreed (34%, n=12) or strongly agreed (60%, n=21). Similarly, for Item 2 (“I was able to participate actively in class.”), although there were students who disagreed (6%, n=2), the majority of students either agreed (63%, n=22) or strongly agreed (31%, n=11). This seems to suggest that, overall, the unit was

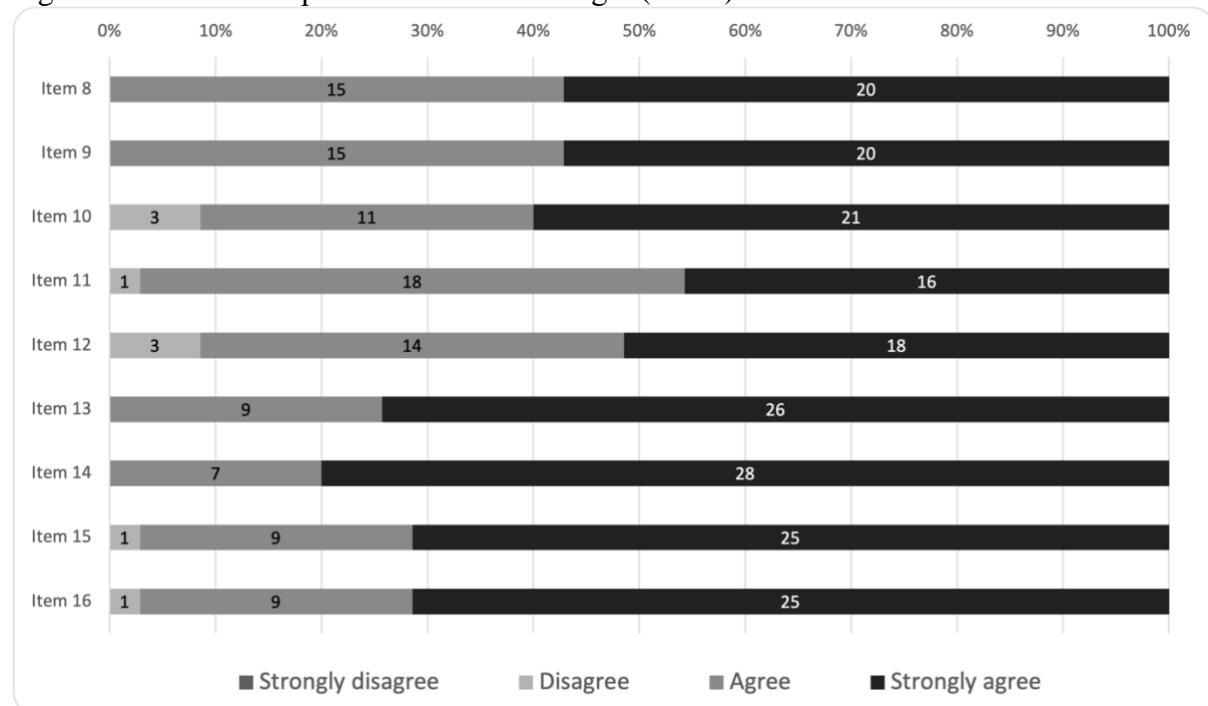
not simply a series of lectures from teachers, but rather a two-way street where students benefited from the planned opportunities for communication. Regarding Item 3 (“It was interesting to use ‘authentic’ materials rather than materials made for learners.”), 46% of students agreed (n=16) and 51% strongly agreed (n=18). In addition to Item 5 (“The classes were well-prepared.”), to which 40% of students agreed (n=14) and 57% strongly agreed (n=20), this may indicate that students appreciated the level of authenticity teachers strived for in designing the CLIL materials from scratch. The majority of students agreed (46%, n=16) or strongly agreed (51%, n=18) with Item 4 (“This unit was relevant to me.”), which further suggests the benefits of tailoring the content and connecting it to students’ lives.

As one student commented, “I was nervous at first because I had never learned or thought about ‘happiness’ even in Japanese. However, [the ALT] gave examples that were relevant to us, and by talking with my group members and making a presentation, I was able to deepen my understanding of the content.” In response to Item 6 (“I was able to think logically about the content.”), 54% of students agreed (n=19) and 40% strongly agreed (n=14). In line with the cognition component of CLIL, one student wrote that the unit challenged their initial interpretations because “everyone places a different value on happiness.” Similarly, for Item 7 (“I was able to think about human happiness from a global perspective.”), 37% of students agreed (n=13) and 57% strongly agreed (n=20). This chimes with the culture component and suggests that students were able to consider the concept of happiness beyond the immediate contexts of their classroom or country.

4.2 Students’ reactions to team teaching

Figure 7 shows students’ responses to the team-teaching aspects of the unit. All 35 students responded positively to Item 8 (“I enjoyed the team-teaching style of the class.”), with 43% (n=15) agreeing and 57% (n=20) strongly agreeing with the statement.

Figure 7. Students’ responses to team teaching (N=35)



Although there are many purported benefits to a lower student–teacher ratio (see Section 2.2), team teaching may also naturally increase teacher talking time and therefore leave students

with fewer opportunities to contribute in class. However, all 35 students agreed (43%, n=15) or strongly agreed (57%, n=25) with Item 9 (“Students were able to participate actively in the team-taught class.”).

Regarding Item 10 (“The teachers’ talks were interesting.”), the majority of students agreed (31%, n=11) or strongly agreed (60%, n=21), though a few students disagreed (9%, n=3). Similarly, a few negative responses were found for Item 12 (“The teachers had good chemistry together.”). One of the three students who disagreed with the statement remarked: “There were times when I wasn’t sure whether the teachers were saying the same thing.” The generally positive response, however, was summarized in another student’s comment that the teachers’ “negotiations” together were interesting. This may suggest that, despite their different personalities and communication styles, the teachers could be appreciated for their unique contributions to the class.

Furthermore, in response to Item 11 (“Listening to both teachers, I was able to think about the content from different perspectives.”), the majority of students agreed (51%, n=18) or strongly agreed (46%, n=16). One student commented: “If it’s only one teacher, we can only ask about one opinion or set of values about happiness, and other viewpoints tend to get dismissed. I think team teaching is great because we can get opinions from various perspectives.” Another wrote: “When I had difficulty understanding something in class, it was helpful to get advice, or think about a concept from a different angle.” In terms of the ALT’s contribution, all 35 students responded positively to Item 13 (“Thanks to having a native speaker present, I was able to think more deeply about the content.”), with 26% (n=9) agreeing and 72% (n=26) strongly agreeing. As one student summarized the overwhelmingly positive response: “I was able to understand different ways of using English thanks to the native teacher’s explanations in English.” Another student commented on the value of a native speaker in tandem with the JTE: “[The JTE] was able to put the native speaker’s words into easy-to-understand English. This was great because it created an opportunity to understand and remember difficult words.” Students’ positive responses to Item 14 (“I had more chances to communicate in English than a solo-taught class by the JTE.”) and Item 15 (“I was able to notice the difference between native and non-native English speech.”) further suggest the value of NST–NNST team teaching to enhance communication. The schema provided students with “forced” output opportunities to interact with the ALT in English, as well as passive input opportunities to compare and contrast the English speech patterns of the JTE and ALT.

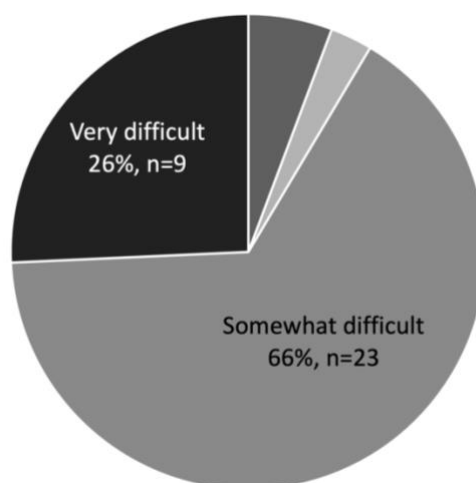
Finally, although one student disagreed, the majority of students agreed (26%, n=9) or strongly agreed (71%, n=25) with Item 16 (“There was plenty of support from teachers.”). One student commented: “If students didn’t understand something, they could ask [the JTE] in Japanese, or [the ALT] in English.” Another student wrote that they found the class to be a good environment to receive instruction on pronunciation or grammar and spelling mistakes. These findings seem to indicate that the students felt well-supported for their content and language needs.

4.3 Students’ ratings of the unit difficulty

Overall, however, the majority of students rated the unit “somewhat difficult” (66%, n=23) or “very difficult” (26%, n=9) (see Figure 8). One student reported that the materials were thought-provoking but it was difficult to put their ideas into English. Another student’s response appears to have evolved as the unit progressed: “At first I didn’t understand the English well, but over time I felt like I understood more and more, and it was fun! I felt that team teaching is more interesting than our normal [solo-taught] classes.” This seems to

corroborate Worrall et al.'s (1970) claim about the benefits of the team-teaching situation. Some students may have felt more motivated and interested in the content compared to their single-teacher English classes.

Figure 8. Students' ratings of the unit difficulty (N=35)



That the majority of students enjoyed the content and team-teaching aspects of the unit *despite* finding it challenging also lends support to Mariani's (1997) notion of Teacher Support and Teacher Challenge. If teachers can provide extra support, then they can challenge students with HOTS tasks and project-based learning that may be too difficult otherwise. In the human happiness unit, this extra support came in many forms. For instance, in terms of classroom language use, one student's comment was particularly illuminating for the situation of NST–NNST team teaching. The student wrote, "I thought [the class] was basically good... However, I felt that it was because the native teacher understood Japanese. Even if there is something I don't understand, it may not be possible to convey it in English, so I think it is necessary to be able to have some conversation in Japanese.... Also, when [the ALT] speaks Japanese, students feel a sense of familiarity and [the ALT's] image improves."

This underlines the importance of *translanguaging* in team-taught Soft CLIL classrooms. Hemmi and Banegas (2021) define translanguaging as "the natural expression of teachers and students drawing on their linguistic repertoires to make meaning" (p. 4). Here, the teachers' use of the students' L1 has two primary functions. The first, *instructive*, helps students understand complex ideas and make cross-linguistic comparisons. The second, *regulative*, allows students to feel comfortable in the CLIL class and stimulates the learning of both language and content (Gierlinger, 2015). Interestingly, the above comment seems to indicate student advocacy for both instructive and regulative translanguaging support *from the ALT*. If the JTE was unavailable, for example, due to being preoccupied with supporting other students, and the ALT had tried and failed to explain a concept using English, then students seemed to appreciate being able to interact with the ALT using Japanese to scaffold their learning. Moreover, this appears to have the benefit of building rapport, which may have helped create a friendlier classroom atmosphere where students were able to stay within their ZPDs and engage in the difficult content.

5. Conclusion

In this paper, I have attempted to articulate some of the potentials and challenges of a Soft CLIL approach for the situation of team teaching commonly found in secondary schools in Japan. I have tried to show, through examples of materials development, how NST–NNST

team teaching can capitalize on CLIL principles such as the 4Cs, authenticity and learner-centeredness. With feedback from the JTE, the ALT was able to create a CLIL unit that was tailored to the interests of the class and maintained an overall level of challenge appropriate to learners' cognitive and language level. The findings from the student survey showed that, although the majority of students found the unit to be difficult, they responded positively to the content, communication, cognition, and culture components. The students also recognized the unique contributions of team teachers and showed their appreciation of a team-taught approach, with some reporting increased motivation compared to their regular, solo-taught lessons. Another advantage of the team-teaching situation was that it allowed forced output opportunities for the students to use their English with the ALT. If the content was too difficult, however, students benefitted from being able to use their entire linguistic repertoire with teachers to gain an understanding of the difficult concepts.

Along with these positive findings, however, readers must take note of several caveats including this case study's favorable starting conditions. Both teachers were already familiar with CLIL and experienced team teachers. Furthermore, the JTE trusted the ALT to create original lesson plans and materials for 4 weeks of classes. It is questionable whether many secondary school English curriculums would allow for such departures from standardized textbooks, especially under the realities and pressures of entrance examinations which are only beginning to reflect the goals of CLT. In broader terms, the study is also limited in its generalizability due to a lack of CLIL awareness, teacher training, and general demands on time and energy for fully implementing a team-taught Soft CLIL approach.

Yet for CLIL practice and research to continue to move forward, it must incorporate local pedagogies and local theoretical frameworks. If secondary school team teachers are interested in Soft CLIL, even if it is in "partial" rather than "total" implementation (see Ikeda, 2012), then the situation of team teaching provides an easily accessible community of practice for grassroots experimentation. Team teachers can hold each other accountable to CLIL principles and work together to create authentic materials which better meet their students' interests and needs. Since JTEs are already overburdened (Ainley & Carstens, 2018), capable ALTs can take advantage of their diverse academic and cultural backgrounds to enhance the CLIL components of content and culture, as well as utilize Western pedagogical teaching styles that prioritize open dialogue and critical thinking to enhance communication and cognition. More generally, the lower student-teacher ratio also has the potential to enhance learner autonomy in CLIL classrooms, but these potentials still need to be borne out by empirical studies which compare solo- and team-taught learning situations.

The intersection of team teaching and CLIL in Japan offers many potential avenues for future research. As MEXT policy gradually embraces cross-curricular teaching and commercially produced CLIL textbooks become available, teachers and researchers need to work together and strive toward a local adaptation that does not sacrifice the underlying authenticity of the approach. Before taking further steps toward Hard CLIL, team-taught Soft CLIL may offer safe grounds for additional small-scale tinkering and experimentation in secondary school contexts.

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Appendix A.

Post-unit survey questions

Likert-scale items

Students chose to what extent they agreed or disagreed with each statement based on the following options.

[1. 全くそう思わない 2. そう思わない 3. その通りだと思う 4. 全くその通りだと思う]

1. 今回の単元は楽しかった。
2. 授業に積極的に参加できた。
3. 学習者向けではなく、「本物」の教材を使って面白かった。
4. この単元は自分に関係があるものだった。
5. 授業の準備は行き届いていた。
6. 論理的思考力を発揮できた。
7. 「人間の幸せ」についてグローバルな視点から考えることができた。
8. ティーム・ティーチング形式の授業は楽しかった。
9. ティーム・ティーチング形式の授業では、生徒が積極的に参加できる。
10. 二人の先生のやりとりが面白かった。
11. 二人の先生それぞれの話を聞いて、様々な視点から内容について考えることができた。
12. 二人の先生の相性が良かった。
13. ネイティブ・スピーカーがいたおかげで、内容についてさらに深く考えることができた。
14. 日本人英語教師が一人で行う授業よりも、英語でコミュニケーションする機会が豊富だった。
15. ネイティブとノンネイティブの話し方の違いに気付くことができた。
16. 先生方からのサポートが豊富だった。

今回の授業の難易度を、4段階で評価してください。

[1. 全く難しくない 2. あまり難しくない 3. やや難しい 4. とても難しい]

Open-response items

授業内容の感想や意見、もっとこうしてほしかったと思う点などがあったら記入してください。ティーム・ティーチングの感想や意見、もっとこうしてほしかったと思う点などがあったら記入してください。

University Student Presentations and CLIL: Assessing Peer Audience Uptake

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Abstract

The presumptive goal of presentations is to convey meaningful content to an audience, yet university student presentations are often performative, aimed at demonstrating to the instructor that the student has fulfilled the task requirements, with little emphasis on whether the peer audience has sufficiently grasped the subject matter imparted. In order to focus student attention on the significance of presentations for an audience of peers as well as to allow the instructor to gauge peer comprehension of student presentations, quizzes based on the presentation content, related to behavioral economics, were implemented in a CLIL upper-intermediate university presentation course. Analysis of the results of the quizzes as well as a questionnaire related to the presentations and quizzes administered to the students at the end of the course indicates that 1) even poor presentations are sufficient for general comprehension under certain conditions; 2) question form has a strong effect on quiz results; 3) comprehension of the original source material is an essential but challenging foundation for effective paraphrasing; and 4) students find content learning via student presentations rewarding and beneficial.

Keywords: CLIL, student presentations, peer learning, presentation assessment, quiz construction

1. Introduction

Student presentations are playing an increasing role in university classrooms for a range of reasons. These content-laden talks encourage self-directed learning that enhances comprehension of the subject at hand, foster oral communication skills, and provide meaningful opportunities to practice public speaking skills that are a component of many types of occupations (Ramos-Alvarez & Luque, 2010). When a student stands in front of classmates, they assume a level of responsibility rare in other types of classroom learning. A well-executed presentation delivered in a first language – let alone a second language – requires an array of skills encompassing, among other elements, organization of content in a manner easily comprehensible to the audience, the ability to paraphrase information by tailoring it to the particular background knowledge and needs of the listeners, and an engaging and professional communicative style that assures those addressed that the effort of paying sustained attention to the speaker will be justified by what is obtained as a result.

This paper will analyze a course at a Japanese university designated as a course in learning to make presentations in English, but which was additionally conceived by the instructor as a CLIL course, with the aim of providing meaningful content and a fulfilling incentive for students to participate both as presenters and members of the audience. In order to focus student attention on the significance of presentations for an audience of peers as well as to allow the instructor to gauge peer comprehension of student presentations, quizzes based on the presentation content were administered following each week's presentations. It is hoped that the insights obtained will be of use to instructors planning similar CLIL presentation courses.

2. The role of the peer audience in CLIL presentations

2.1 Barriers to audience-centered presentations

Mastering presentation expertise is no easy matter. Students may focus rigidly on rules and overwhelm the audience with excessive information, risking loss of awareness of the main points, and they may be unable to take the audience into sufficient consideration, adhering to a script even when it is clear some adjustment would be beneficial (Haber & Lingard, 2001). Despite the need to illuminate students regarding how to make the shift to a more audience-centered communication style, it is no easy task for teachers to do so. In essence, teachers anticipate that students will “play jazz” (Haber & Lingard, 2001), while inexperienced presenters are still fearful of playing a single note out of place.

2.2 Benefits of peer-learning focus

When student presentations are viewed through the lens of peer learning, a potential way out of this impasse becomes apparent. Peer learning has been shown to reduce anxiety and boost confidence among students in the U.S. (Stone, Cooper, & Cant, 2013), and may similarly be effective in diminishing apprehension among Japanese students. Additionally, in serving as the audience for peer presentations, students learn ways to become more adept in their own public speaking (Mitchell & Bakewell, 1995). The classroom can become a secure environment to practice presentations by focusing on peer learning, which, when engaged in sincerely, lends itself to an emphasis on meaningful communication.

2.3 Presentations as authentic CLIL tasks

The challenges and benefits of audience-focused presentations are amplified when making a presentation in a foreign language to classmates who are similarly grappling to make sense of unfamiliar content in a foreign language. As such, this communicative activity represents a rich opportunity to integrate content and language discourse. Pinner (2013) has observed that authenticity in CLIL is often focused on authentic language and authentic materials, but authenticity of task is an equally crucial aspect. In this respect as well, peer learning can reap important gains. As Coyle et al. (2010, p.29) write:

Social constructivist learning in essence focuses on interactive, mediated, and student-led learning. This kind of scenario requires social interaction between learners and teachers and scaffolded (that is, supported) learning by someone or something more ‘expert’ – that might be the teacher, other learners or resources. When learners are able to accommodate cognitive challenge – that is, to deal with new knowledge – they are likely to be engaged in interacting with ‘expert’ others and peers to develop their individual thinking.

Presentations fit the bill well. The essence of presentations is to provide useful information to members of an audience in a way that assists them in their intake of the knowledge. When students are the presenters of subject content, they are the experts in charge of scaffolding to help create meaningful social interaction with their peers.

Accordingly, if the presentation task is constructed in such a way that the presenter feels genuine motivation to convey information to classmates instead of merely going through the motions of performing a presentation, and classmates likewise are provided with a purpose that surpasses polite listening and instead promotes a full engagement with the content imparted, the resulting communicative event will achieve the CLIL objectives. In fact, Iyobe and Li (2013) describe an economics course at a Japanese university centered on student presentations that contained these elements without the conscious intention to create a CLIL course, but

which, when viewed retrospectively, corresponded to CLIL objectives. In this sense, presentations can be a strikingly effective ingredient in CLIL, assuming other requisite components accompany the student tasks.

3. The study

3.1 The students

The students were 2nd-year, 3rd-year, and 4th-year students enrolled in two upper intermediate elective presentation classes, A1 and A2, in the School of Commerce at a Japanese university. (The course designations A1 and A2 are unrelated to CEFR levels.) The courses met for 90 minutes weekly for one semester in the spring semester of 2019. Table 1 shows the breakdown of the students in each class.

Table 1. Breakdown of students per class

	A1 (n=16)	A2 (n=13)
Men	12	8
Women	4	5
TOEIC average*	617	640

*TOEIC scores were self-reported.

3.2 Presentation content and follow-up activities

Students were assigned to give presentations on Daniel Kahneman's book, *Thinking, Fast and Slow* (2011). In it, Kahneman, a winner of the Nobel Prize for Economics, introduces the principles of behavioral economics straightforwardly, with an emphasis on specific experiments. It was anticipated that the content of the book would be of particular interest to commerce students, although it would represent a challenge both in terms of subject matter and language. The following is an excerpt from Chapter 4 of the book:

Vomiting normally occurs in specific contexts, such as hangovers and indigestion. You would also be unusually ready to recognize words associated with other causes of the same unfortunate outcome. Furthermore, your System 1 noticed the fact that the juxtaposition of the two words is uncommon; you probably never encountered it before. You experienced mild surprise. This complex constellation of responses occurred quickly, automatically, and effortlessly. You did not will it and you could not stop it. It was an operation of System 1. The events that took place as a result of your seeing the words happened by a process called associative activation: ideas that have been evoked trigger many other ideas, in a spreading cascade of activity in your brain.

(Kahneman, 2011, pp. 50-51)

Analysis using Compleat Lexical Tutor reveals that roughly 75% of the vocabulary is at the B1 level or lower on the Common European Framework of References for Languages (CEFR). B1 describes a level of proficiency at which the speaker "Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken" (Council of Europe, 2021). Table 2 shows the breakdown of the vocabulary:

Table 2. Breakdown of representative text sample according to CEFR level

Level	Vocabulary items
A1 Waystage level: 77 tokens, 63.6%	a also an and be been before by called could did furthermore happened have in is it many never not number of other quickly ready same seeing stop such system that the this to took two unusually was will with words would you your
B1 Threshold level : 14 tokens, 11.6%	activity as fact ideas mild normally operation place probably result surprise unfortunate
Off-list: 30 tokens, 24.79%	activation associated associative automatically brain cascade causes complex constellation contexts effortlessly encountered events evoked experienced hangovers indigestion juxtaposition noticed occurred occurs outcome process recognize responses specific spreading trigger uncommon vomiting

Students were instructed to purchase the book in English and were further notified that they might additionally read the book in Japanese if they wished. They were informed that reading the book only in Japanese would make it hard to present the information accurately, as they were expected to use Kahneman's terminology correctly in English, while explaining it in simple terms as needed. A questionnaire at the end of the course revealed that almost all the students read in English the sections they were assigned to present, and half or more of them also read the same sections in Japanese. Students were much less likely to read the sections of the book that they were not responsible to present in either language. Interestingly, students in A1 were more likely to read other sections in English while their counterparts in A2 were more likely to read them in Japanese. Table 3 shows the breakdown of the questionnaire results related to reading the book.

Table 3. Choice of language to read *Thinking, Fast and Slow*

Language choice and section	A1 (n=16)	A2 (n=13)
Read own section in English	93%	80%
Read own section in Japanese	50%	80%
Read other sections in English	50%	10%
Read other sections in Japanese	21%	40%

In the first five classes, students practiced presentation techniques using handouts created by the instructor, working together on the same section of the book. The skills covered were paraphrasing content, making an effective introduction, using transitions to enhance comprehension, crafting a conclusion, designing and explaining Power Point slides, making use of meaningful eye contact, voice, and gestures, adding audience-oriented "you" phrases, rhetorical employment of questions and answers during the presentation, and handling of the Q&A following the presentation. These skills were used as the basis for evaluating the presentations. (See Appendix.)

Starting from week six, each week four students on average gave presentations on assigned sections of the book, typically about three pages (450 words) in length. This was followed by a quiz with one question related to each three-page section. Performance on the quizzes was not included as part of the students' final grades as it was considered possible that some students might focus on reading and memorizing content from the book rather than attempting to learn from their classmates if the quizzes were included in the final evaluation. Nevertheless, the students appeared to engage fully in answering the quizzes.

After the weekly quiz, students spoke together in small groups about the presentations, focusing on what was particularly effective and what needed improvement in each, as well as the content that had been presented. Each student gave two presentations in the semester. At the end of the course, students filled out a questionnaire related to the course contents.

It was hoped that the engaging content, coupled with the fact that students knew a quiz and discussion would follow, would help motivate the students, both those making the presentations and those listening. It was further felt that the quizzes would serve as a good guideline to assess how much the students who were listening had understood of other students' presentations. The professor created the quizzes, and the presenters were unaware of the quiz contents to avoid students "teaching to the test".

3.3 Research questions

This paper seeks to investigate the following research questions:

1. Does presentation grade correlate with student comprehension?
2. Which types of quiz questions are likely to be comprehended? Which are not?
3. How do students evaluate this kind of presentation class?

4. Findings

4.1 Quiz questions with high scores

The students in A1 answered a total of 30 quiz questions, and the students in A2 answered a total of 23. There were three reasons for differences in quiz questions. The A1 semester was 15 weeks while that of A2 was 14 weeks, so A1 students had one more week of quizzes (five quiz questions) compared to the A2 students. Additionally, sometimes quiz questions were skipped if the student making the presentation related to the question was absent. Other times, the presenter failed to include sufficient information in their presentation to answer the question. Accordingly, a total of 32 questions were used in the quizzes, and of these, 20 were used in both classes.

Of the quiz questions administered, 30% (seven questions) garnered a score of seven or higher (out of a total possible 10 points) among the A1 students, and 33% (10 questions) obtained similarly high scores for the A2 respondents. Table 4 shows the 15 quiz questions that received an average score of seven or higher in at least one of the classes and the scores the student received for the presentation providing the relevant information.

Table 4. Quiz questions receiving an average score of 7 or higher

No.	Score information	Question content	Presentation score	A1	A2
1	Quiz 1, Q1(A2: 7.2)	When does the part of person's eye that opens get bigger?	90	n=16	n=12
3	Quiz 1, Q3 (A2: 7.7)*	What can System 2 do that System 1 cannot?	90	n=0	n=12
4	Quiz 1, Q4 (A1:7.3)	If you are walking with a friend and you ask him or her to figure out 23 X 78, what happens, and why?	83	n=16	n=12
5	Quiz 1, Q5 (A2: 9.6)	What happens when people are cognitively busy?	92	n=16	n=12

9	Quiz 2, Q3 (A1: 9.2); Quiz 2, Q4 (A2:10)	What does System 1 do when confronted by the words “Bananas” and “Vomit”?	20; 90	n=12	n=11
13	Quiz 3, Q3 (A2: 8.5)	What makes a message persuasive? Give at least two examples.	92	n=10	n=12
14	Quiz 3, Q4 (A2: 7.8)	What is the “mere exposure effect”?	95	n=10	n=12
17	Quiz 4, Q3 (A2: 8.6)	Why do people who hear the story of Jane and the missing wallet recall the word “pickpocket” although it does not appear in the story?	94	n=10	n=13
20	Quiz 4, Q2 (A1: 8.5)*	What did Kahneman find when he was grading students’ tests and how did he change his way of grading?	90	n=14	n=0
21	Quiz 5, Q3 (A2: 8.4)*	What are three effects of WYSIATI?	30	n=0	n=10
24	Quiz 6, Q2 (A2: 7.4)	What is “mental shotgun”? Give an example of it.	90	n=15	n=11
25	Quiz 5, Q2 (A1: 8.6); Quiz 6, Q3 (A2:9.1)	What is a heuristic?	88; 90	n=15	n=11
30	Quiz 6, Q2 (A1: 7.1)*	Why does Kahneman say that it was unwise to invest in the creation of small schools following research that six of the top 50 schools in Pennsylvania were small?	90	n=14	n=0
37	Quiz 7, Q4 (A1: 7.8)*	Why does Slovic assert that the public has a richer conception of risk than experts do?	95	n=13	n=0
38	Quiz 7, Q5 (A1:9.2)*	What is the problem with how people deal with small risks?	95	n=13	n=0

*Only one class received the quiz question.

There was little overlap in the quiz questions receiving high scores between the A1 and A2 classes. However, two questions, 9 “What does System 1 do when confronted by the words ‘Bananas’ and ‘Vomit’?” and 25 “What is a heuristic?” not only received scores higher than seven in both classes, but also obtained particularly high scores: 9.2 (A1) and 10 (A2) for Question 9, and 8.6 (A1) and 9.1 (A2) for Question 25. Four questions (3, 21, 30, and 33) were only on quizzes in one of the classes.

The average presentation score for A1 was 85.3% and for A2, 84.6%. Only two presentations each in A1 and A2 received a score of 30% or lower. Despite this, quiz questions based on two of these presentations received high scores. Table 5 shows the quiz results of presentations with

scores of 30% or lower in one of the classes. The remaining two quiz questions based on presentations with low scores had low quiz score averages even if the presentation score for the same quiz question in the other class was 80% or higher.

Table 5. Quiz results of presentations with low scores in one class

Quiz question	Presentation score A1/A2	Avg quiz score A1/A2	A1	A2
9. What does System 1 do when confronted by the words “Bananas” and “Vomit”?	20%/90%	9.2/10	n=12	n=11
12. What happens if you see a new word in sharper contrast to other words on a list?	20%/88%	1.3/5.8	n=12	n=12
21. What are three effects of WYSIATI?*	30%	8.4	n=0	n=10
28. How is it possible that the incidence of kidney cancer is highest in rural areas and at the same time lowest in rural areas?	80%/20%	2.3/4.5	n=15	n=11

*Only one class received the quiz question.

Eleven of the 15 questions garnering high scores began with “What”. In total, 24 of the 32 questions, or 75%, began with “What”, and of these, 11, or 46%, received an average score of seven or higher in at least one class. Both questions that received high scores in both classes were “What” questions. Three questions began with “Why”, and two others were follow-up questions after “What” questions, making a total of five. Of these, four, or 80%, received high average scores in one of the classes. There was only one question beginning with “When” but this, too, received an average score of seven or higher in one class. On the other hand, although there were five “How” questions, comprising 16% of all questions, none of these received an average score of seven or higher. Table 6 shows the breakdown of question types, with the numbers of questions receiving high scores in bold type.

It is also noteworthy that eight of the 32 questions (25%) required more information than the other questions. Half of these (8, 13, 24, and 34) asked for an explanation coupled with one or more examples, with two of them receiving high scores. Another two asked both “what” and “why” (4 and 33), and of these, one received a high score. One required a description of an experiment and asked what was revealed as a result of it (6), and one asked for an explanation of an experiment using “what” followed by another “what” question asking what the experiment revealed (7). Of these, neither received a high score.

Table 6. Types of questions on quizzes

	Question form	Question no.
“How” questions	<i>How</i> are... different?	2
	<i>How</i> can... be reversed?	35
	<i>How</i> does...change as a result of...?	11
	<i>How</i> is it possible that...?	28
	<i>How</i> is... measured?	32

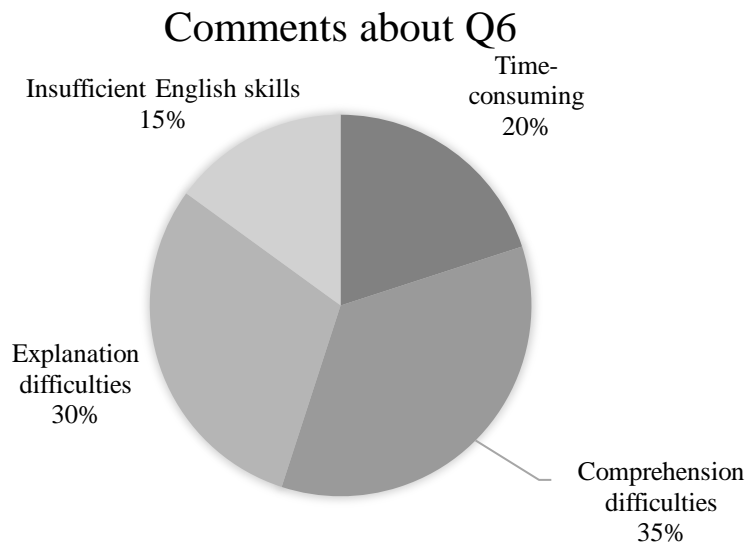
“What” questions (includes two follow-up “why” questions)	What are characteristics of... Give an example.	8
	What are three effects of...?	21
	What can A do that B cannot?	3
	What did Kahneman find when...?	20
	Describe... What did... reveal?	6
	What does it show that...?	22
	What does... do when...?	9
	What does...show?	16, 18
	What happens and <i>why</i> ?	4
	What happens when...? / What happens if you see...?	5, 15, 19, 26 /12
	What is Kahneman’s advice if...? <i>Why</i> does he say so?	33
	What is the problem with...?	38
	What is...?	10, 14, 25
	What is...? Give an example of it.	24, 34
	What makes...persuasive? Give at least two examples.	13
	What was... and <i>what</i> was later shown to be true?	7
“When” question	When does...	1
“Why” questions	Why do people who hear... recall...?	17
	Why does Kahneman say that...? / Why does Slovic assert that...?	30 / 37

4.2 Student experiences of presentations and quizzes

At the end of the course, the students were asked to fill in a questionnaire anonymously. The first five questions, related to TOEIC score and use of *Thinking, Fast and Slow* in the original English and in Japanese translation, were reported above. The responses to the remaining five questions will be analyzed here.

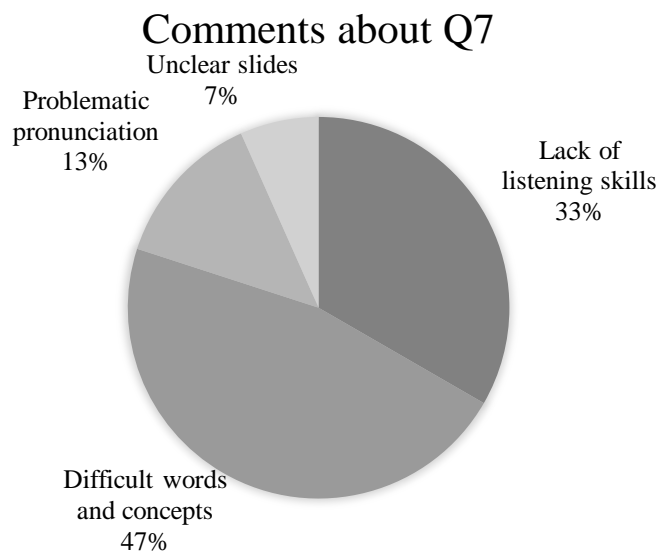
Question 6 asked students to respond “yes” or “no” to the statement “I found preparing for the presentation difficult” and to add some information. Seventy-one percent of the students in A1 and 90% of the students in A2 responded affirmatively. The reasons they gave fell into four categories. Comments that contained multiple reasons were counted in each category. The most frequent comments related to difficulty in understanding Kahneman’s book, comprising 35% of the total comments. This was followed by the difficulty in explaining the book contents easily, at 30%. Twenty percent involved comments about the lengthy time it took to prepare for the presentations, and 15% related to students’ remarks about not having sufficient English skills. Figure 1 shows a breakdown of the comments.

Figure 1. Breakdown of presentation preparation difficulties (n=24)



For Question 7, students were asked to respond to the statement “I found understanding the other classmates’ presentations difficult” and to add some information. Seventy-nine percent of the students in A1 answered yes, while 50% in A2 did so. Forty-seven percent of the comments were related to the problem of understanding difficult words and concepts, followed by 33% concerning the respondent’s lack of listening skills. Thirteen percent of the comments referred to presenters’ pronunciation and 7% to unclear slides. Figure 2 shows the breakdown according to category.

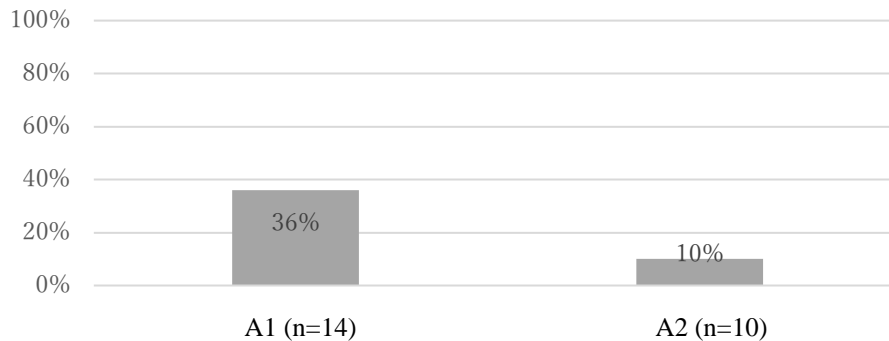
Figure 2. Breakdown of presentation comprehension difficulties (n=24)



Question 8 asked whether understanding the meaning of the quiz questions was difficult. Thirty-six percent of A1 and 10% of A2 responded affirmatively. In A1, all of those who answered yes wrote that they had not understood the content of the presentations sufficiently. In A2, the one student who answered yes wrote that sometimes unknown vocabulary in the quiz question made it difficult to answer. Figure 3 shows a comparison between the two classes.

Figure 3. Difficulty in understanding quiz questions

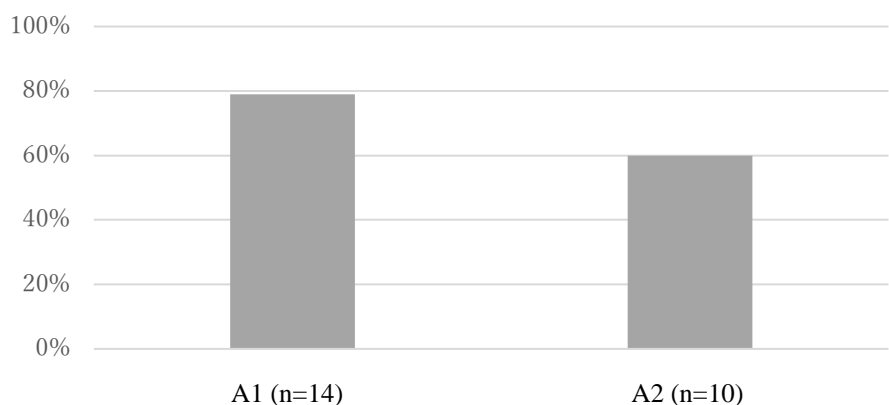
I found understanding the meaning of the quiz questions difficult. (Q8)



Seventy-nine percent of the students felt they had adequate time to answer the quiz questions, whereas only 60% in A2 felt so (Question 9). Figure 4 shows the results according to class.

Figure 4. Evaluation of quiz time allotment by class

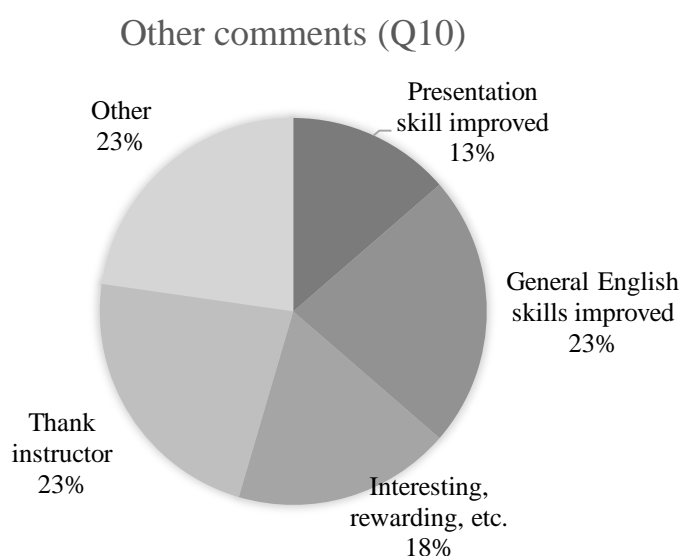
I had sufficient time to answer the quizzes. (Q9)



Question 10 was an open-ended request for additional comments. Twenty-three percent of the comments were related to a sense that the student's general English skills had improved, for example, "Doing presentation in English I found all of my skill of English improving." The same percentage of the students also used this opportunity to thank the instructor. The next most common comment referred to finding the course rewarding, such as, "I have a feeling of achievement through finishing my two presentations" or "Presentation is very difficult for me but very rewarding." These comments comprised 18% of the total. Comments specifically concerning presentation skills, like "This class was really good to learn how to make presentations in English", amounted to 13%.

Other comments included observations that the skills could be applied to presentations in Japanese or that not understanding the presentations made it hard to answer the quiz questions. One student offered the following useful suggestion: "Some presented very well. When they do so, we only ask too simple questions which even be impolite. If it happens, if professor lead advanced question the discussion would become better." Figure 5 shows the breakdown of the comments.

Figure 5. Breakdown of other comments (n=16)



5. Discussion

The findings point to several possible inferences related to student presentations used as the main component of a CLIL type of class. These will be discussed below.

5.1 Even poor presentations are sufficient under certain conditions.

The findings suggest that certain types of information – those which provide definitions, examples, or effects – are relatively easy for presenters to convey and similarly unproblematic for audience members to comprehend, particularly if the question form is readily comprehensible. It is noteworthy that despite the presenter in class A1 receiving a score of 20% in the presentation of the information related to Question 9, which asked the quiz-takers to write down an effect, the average score for this quiz question was 9.2 out of 10. Similarly, the presenter in class A2 who was in charge of explaining the information in Question 21, soliciting three effects, received a presentation score of 30%, yet the average quiz score was 8.4.

The remaining two presentations with very low scores garnered low average quiz scores for the information presented (Questions 12 and 28), but the same quiz questions in the other class, based on information from presentations receiving scores of 80% or higher also received low average quiz scores. The form of these questions, “What happens if...?” and “How it is possible that...?” appear more difficult for students to understand. Additionally, the second of these, Question 28, asks, “How is it possible that the incidence of kidney cancer is highest in rural areas and at the same time lowest in rural areas?” This is one of the most difficult questions in terms of content.

The results indicate that if the material is a straightforward explanation of a definition, example, or effect, and the question related to it has an uncomplicated form, students will be able to grasp it even if the presentation is weak, and conversely, if the material and/or the quiz question related to it is more complex, even relatively strong presentations may fail to enable students to respond well to the quiz question.

5.2 Question form has a strong effect on quiz results.

A closely related finding concerns question form. Questions beginning with “What”, “Why”, and “When” were much more likely to obtain high average quiz scores than questions

beginning with “How”. Of the 15 questions garnering high scores in at least one class, 10 began with “What”, and one took the form “If... what...?” Forty-six percent of all “What” questions received a high score in at least one class. Though fewer in overall number, “Why” questions had an even stronger showing, with four out of a total of five, or 80%, questions gaining high scores. There was only one “When” question and it also received a high score. Conversely, while 16% of the quiz questions began with “How”, the quiz average for all of these was low.

The precise form of the questions had an additional impact. There were 10 quiz questions that began with “What is/are”. Half of these received high quiz scores. Of the five that did not receive high scores, four were more complex, requiring an example as well or asking an additional question. Simple “What is/are” questions had a high likelihood of being answered correctly. Moreover, similar to the difficulties encountered with “How” questions, only one of five “What happens when/if” questions received a high quiz average score, suggesting that questions related to process posed challenges for the students.

Furthermore, questions requiring more work, either by asking two related questions in succession or requiring an example to be given, were also less likely to be answered successfully. Eight of the quiz questions were of this type. The one “Why” question that did not obtain a high score was coupled with a “What” question, and overall, students only managed to fully answer three of the complex questions. Of these, two asked for examples, possibly slightly less of a difficulty than responding to two questions.

5.3 Comprehension of the original source material is an essential but challenging foundation for effective paraphrasing.

Most students in both classes found preparing for the presentations difficult, and the reason most often cited was problems in comprehension. While students were permitted to read Kahneman’s book in Japanese in addition to English, and 50% in A1 and 80% in A2 availed themselves of this linguistic aid in comprehension, nevertheless 35% stated that they found understanding the book difficult. One student wrote, “Not only English but also content in the book is so difficult” and another, “I had difficulty in understanding contents of psychology, and it took a lot of time.” The second most commonly cited preparation hurdle was a struggle to explain the text. This is likely closely related to the comprehension matter, as effective paraphrasing emerges from a deep understanding of what needs to be explained, and the confidence to state the ideas obtained as a result, as made clear by this student: “It’s difficult to change words (paraphrase), because words in book is hard to understand, and hard to find some easy meaning words.”

These issues further tie in directly to student comments about problems they encountered in understanding their classmates’ presentations. Forty-seven percent wrote remarks that dealt with difficult words and concepts. This stemmed from insufficient paraphrasing on the part of some presenters, who used difficult terminology straight from the book. Of the 33% who wrote that lack of listening skills made it hard for them to understand the presentations, most likely many of them would have benefited from simpler words being used in the presentations. At times it was impossible to avoid using special terminology, albeit followed by an explanation, example, or illustration, and this added to the comprehension burden. One student wrote, “Some specific words related psychology I didn’t know”, while another commented, “Sometimes, the meaning of words which is important for his or her presentation was difficult. So take a many times to understand.”

When asked about difficulty in understanding the quiz questions, students likewise viewed this

almost exclusively as a matter of not understanding the presentations, with one student discussing unknown vocabulary in the quiz questions, providing further evidence for the need for better paraphrasing to facilitate comprehension. While the findings seem to indicate that specific question forms were trickier for students to grapple with, no students appeared aware of this possible source of difficulty.

Interestingly, even though only 30% of the quiz questions received an average quiz score of 7 or more among the A1 class students and 33% among the A2 students, a majority of the students in both classes answered that they did not find the meaning of the questions difficult and that they had enough time to answer the quizzes. This, too, suggests that if presenters had paraphrased Kahneman's material more simply, more students may have been able to answer the questions more fully and accurately.

5.4 Students find content learning via student presentations rewarding and beneficial.

Open-ended student comments indicate that the course format of content learning via student presentations was rewarding and beneficial. Although the course was specifically related to presentation, many felt that their English skills improved overall, and others commented that the course was interesting. Some students remarked that the skills obtained could be applied to Japanese presentations. No students commented on the knowledge of behavioral economics that they had acquired, but this is perhaps unsurprising as, in terms of its curriculum designation, it was an English course, and students were accordingly likely to assess it as such. It would perhaps be useful in future presentation courses with a similar CLIL element to add a question related to students' perception of the content aspect of the course. The material was challenging, but students appeared to feel satisfaction and interest in pushing their way through the difficult content in student presentations with authentic purposes. Challenging material may be more beneficial in such a course, if managed with care, as it allows students to see a distinct connection between content apprehended in the language class and content covered in the subject courses of their major.

6. Conclusion

CLIL courses represent a rich means to provide students with meaningful content tethered to development of language and communication skills. Student presentations afford students an opportunity to fulfill the roles of both content expounder/commentator as well as learner/recipient of new information and ideas. The use of quizzes can serve as a means of shifting from "performative presentation" to "purposeful presentation", allowing students to escape the danger of a stultifying atmosphere of language for language's sake. Gallardo del Puerto & Martinez Adrian (2015) found that CLIL learners prefer making presentations compared to EFL learners and self-report using more communicative techniques. Even within an EFL curriculum, anything that can be done to boost the "CLIL-ness" of presentations may yield valuable student outcomes.

This study has suggested that some question forms, particularly "how" questions, are difficult for students to respond to, compared to "what", "why", and "when" questions. More research will be needed to determine to what degree the actual notions of process embodied by "how" questions are at issue, and conversely, how much of the issue is a linguistic matter of less previous exposure to these types of questions. The results further point to the importance of sufficient instruction in paraphrasing and audience awareness, skills that are vital in all forms of communication. As Llinares and Dalton-Puffer (2015) note, pulling apart comprehension issues concerning subject content and those related to language requires sustained examination.

Three further areas of related research would be beneficial. First, while this study relied on overall presentation scores, an analysis of each presentation's specific strengths, for example, specific skills related to organization, elucidating, and summarizing, and their effect on audience comprehension is likely to further enhance instruction. Additionally, while Q&A was part of the student presentations and presentations each week were followed by small-group discussion of the presentations, the content of these sections was not included in this study. However, the negotiation of meaning enabled by questions and answers as well as the evaluative comments made in the discussions represent other valuable areas of investigation of CLIL student presentations.

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Appendix

Presentation feedback sheet

Presentation skill	Score
1. Explained the content clearly, using own words	
2. Introduction included greeting, affiliation, overview, and topic importance	
3. Used two-sentence transitions	
4. Conclusion included summary of main points and final message	
5. Slides had titles, 30 or fewer words, not full sentences, consistent capitalization	
6. Important words were spoken slowly and clearly, good use of pauses	
7. Used audience-oriented “you” phrases	
8. Used content-related questions that presenter asks and answers	
9. Used four steps in Q&A	
10. Covered all important information	

Online CLIL During the COVID-19 Pandemic: Can it be a Replacement for the Face-to-Face Classroom?

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Abstract

A face-to-face CLIL class typically sees students engaging in small group discussions and dialogue, giving presentations and participating in collaborative work. The shift to an online platform could possibly hinder or even improve the learning outcomes and objectives of a face-to-face CLIL class. This can lead us to the notion of whether or not the technology that is currently available can provide us with a teaching and student learning experience that is akin to what we are used to in the CLIL classroom. The current literature on whether online education can replace the traditional classroom approach is inconclusive and there are no studies that have looked specifically at student perception of an online CLIL course, especially within the backdrop of COVID-19. This paper examines how a university CLIL class on Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) was conducted through the online platform Zoom in the 2020/2021 academic year and gives insights into student perceptions of the course with respect to language and content learning outcomes. Through student surveys and reports, this study investigated whether or not an online version of this CLIL class could help students develop their vocabulary, speaking, listening, and writing skills in tandem with learning SDG content. Results showed that learning content was easier or equal to face-to-face classes, but a perceived lack of interaction and communication meant that online classes were considered to be second best to traditional classes with respect to the synergy among students and the teacher. The paper concludes with a framework of the lessons learned and opportunities gained from this online CLIL course from both the student and teacher perspective with a view to a possible hybrid e-learning approach in the future.

Keywords: Online CLIL, Interaction, SDGs, Student perceptions.

1. Introduction

The outbreak of the COVID-19 global pandemic at the start of 2020 led to many university students around the world either having their education stagnate or be taken online in the form of on-demand or real-time classes with software platforms such as Zoom and Google Meet. Many educators were very apprehensive about relocating all their teaching to an online environment with the additional obstacle of a possible deep learning curve in terms of how to use the online technology competently when delivering classes. Students were also deeply affected and there were many concerns regarding the quality of education that they would receive.

At the start of the 2020/2021 academic year more than 90% of universities in Japan decided to postpone the start of their classes (Huang, 2020). Tohoku University also delayed classes. They began after the Golden Week, and all foreign language classes in the first semester of the 2020/2021 academic year were conducted online through either real-time classes or in the form of on-demand lectures and lesson material uploads. Many students were prevented from travelling and moving to Sendai from the Tokyo region and students that were present in Sendai at the start of the semester did not set foot on campus for the entire first semester.

In the second semester, some small language classes were taught in person as the COVID-19 situation improved and at this time Tohoku University moved the Business Continuity Plan (BCP) Level to 2. This meant that “in principle, classes are conducted online. Only when face-to-face instruction is essential for practical skills, experiments, and practical training, may face-to-face instruction be conducted with sufficient infection prevention measures”. This resulted in students being able to attend campus and take part to some degree in a normal university life.

This study aimed to look at an online CLIL Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) class predominantly from the perspective of the students who took the course. A face-to-face CLIL class typically sees students engaging in small group discussions and dialogue, give presentations and participate in collaborative work. This paper will therefore aim to evaluate if online CLIL as conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic can be a replacement for the face-to-face classroom.

2. COVID-19 2020-21 and its effect on students and teachers

In December of 2020, Kyodo News (2020a) reported that a quarter of Japanese university students had thought of dropping out because of COVID-19, with many of them citing a lack of motivation and financial hardship as reasons. The online survey that the article reports on was conducted with 1,674 high school and 1,690 university students. The findings attributed students’ lack of motivation to their inability to study with other classmates in the online learning environment. A questionnaire administered at Nihon University in April 2020 found that 59.2% of students were positive about online classes, while 21% said they did not wish to take part in them, reflecting concerns about the quality of online education (Kyodo News, 2020b). Further data showed that 71.5% preferred lecture videos to be available on-demand, while 15.3% said they wanted to join live interactive classes. Another 13.2% wanted the lessons to be live but not interactive.

Students’ reactions on social media also received media attention. A student with the username `maki@D6H y1q0FQJuxtPO` wrote a series of manga using the hashtag #大学生の日常も大事だ (“The daily lives of university students are also important”). The manga story she created expressed her frustration regarding not knowing what her classmates looked like, having never been to her university campus and spending her time every day in front of a computer screen watching lectures (Tokyo Web, 2020). Her manga also expressed her anger regarding the fact that schoolchildren can attend school and office workers can dine out, but she is continually at home in front of a computer screen watching online lectures. In July 2020, this manga entry received 300,000 likes and was retweeted nearly 120,000 times. It also received media attention, with many news outlets covering the story. The manga artist called Maki pleaded, “Please listen to the voices of university students. I’m a freshman who has never attended a real lecture, and I’m at the end of my tether”.

It was not only students who felt stress due to the shift to online teaching. Newspaper articles reported that many university teachers indicated feeling that they could not maintain the quality of their courses via online classes and that the technology for class delivery was new to most students and teachers (Mainichi, 2020). The Japan Times (2020) published an article titled “Shift to online classes leaves Japan’s university teachers exhausted” and gave an account of teacher opinion that suggested that teachers cannot have small talk with students, and that their classes lack humour.

3. The online platform as a teaching environment: A brief literature review

Reaction to distance education or online classes has been mixed. Conlon (1997) states that

online education cannot replace face-to-face education and Cole et al. (2019) mention that without regular in-person interaction, instructors may feel unable to gauge student engagement accurately and respond accordingly. Similarly, Verene (2013) states that online education lacks the rhetorical presentation of a face-to-face lecture and reduces students to clients and consumers of information that is available worldwide and decontextualizes content to information that assumes one size fits all. However, with respect to studies that have looked at differences in learning outcomes between online and traditional courses, Yang and Yang (2021) state that no differences have been found.

During the pandemic in Japan, online delivery of classes became the norm rather than the exception and many universities are beginning to see the benefits of such a delivery system and the likelihood of classes having a combination or a hybrid style in the future is very strong. Nearly twenty years ago, Marsh (2002) even suggested that the future of CLIL education should include a focus on mixed media via distance learning that can adapt to learner characteristics. The teaching of a CLIL course through an online delivery platform is very much underrepresented in the research literature but there are some studies that have recently emerged regarding CLIL classes at university level. Yang and Yang (2021) examined the online approach and its suitability for ICLHE (Integrated Content and Language in Higher Education). The course was on 'The introduction to hospitality' and was conducted remotely through Google Meet over a 4-week period. Students were asked to complete a weekly survey that evaluated the online course. Their results showed that ICLHE may not be appropriate for online education as it can decrease motivation, lead to less student interaction, and practitioner fatigue. However, their classes were not conducted through Zoom, where student interaction and group or pair work can be done through breakout rooms.

Other studies, which have looked primarily at teacher experiences of conducting CLIL lessons online, found more positive findings. Cinganotto (2020) examined the experiences of CLIL teachers and their online classes during the lockdown. Her main conclusions were that teachers found there to be many benefits with regards to conducting their CLIL classes online but that lesson planning and the selection of substituting tasks and activities that they would do in face-to-face classes with online equivalents was time consuming. She mentions that teachers had to adopt new strategies and techniques - use of games - visuals to explain concepts, and had to learn new online education platforms such as *The Padlet* and *Kialo*. The main consensus among the teachers in her survey was that online technology can be flexible and accessible for remote learning and that their students were engaged in the online interactive activities.

4. The SDG CLIL class

The class was an advanced level English class and was comprised of 2nd year students from the humanities department. In total there were 33 students (18 female, 15 male). The English course was officially called 'Academic Presentation' and is part of the new curriculum implemented at Tohoku university. The main objective of the course was for students to create and give an academic presentation. The content of the course and what the teacher requires their students to present on is flexible, providing students are taught the basic principles of presentation preparation and presentation strategies as outlined in the syllabus. The author therefore created a CLIL SDG course to complement the aforementioned objectives. It can be considered a soft CLIL course that introduces the themes and content of the SDGs and although it is language driven it aims to equally cover both content and language. The themes and basic content of the course can be found in appendix A.

Students can develop an understanding of SDGs and global citizenship through critical thinking activities based on a variety of frameworks that the CLIL methodology adopts such as the concepts of Bloom's (1956) Higher Order Thinking Skills (HOTS), Cummins' (1984) Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), and what Dalton-Puffer (2011) calls cognitive discourse functions (CDFs). The aim of the course was to help promote the concept of global citizenship and awareness of global issues and help students present their ideas in a clear and coherent manner in both discussions and presentations.

The class was taught in the second semester of the 2020/21 academic year and was conducted entirely on Zoom in light of the COVID-19 pandemic. In the previous year the class has been taught in a traditional face-to-face environment. Unlike the first semester the university decided to ease restrictions and students were allowed to attend the campus and partake in club activities providing preventive measures and precautions were taken with respect to preventing the spread of the COVID-19. Therefore, the mindset of students, it can be argued, was in a better place as students could feel 'student-like' and enjoy campus life to a certain degree. Classes however, were, in principle, to still be conducted online and all language classes at the university were to remain online. Teachers had the option of creating on-demand or real time classes and the distribution of lesson materials and the main tool of communication was conducted through Google classroom. As Zoom allowed for breakout rooms and educational users were given the benefit of having the 40-minute meeting restriction lifted, the author decided to run courses through this online platform. Students and teachers who had used this software in the first semester were acquainted with how it worked and in the first lesson of the course a brief training session was given to students on how to share screen and audio when presenting or sharing materials, and how to go in and out of breakout rooms.

5. Methodology

This study aimed to look at an online SDG CLIL class predominantly from the perspective of the students who took the course. The data was taken from the first and last class. Through a discussion of SDG4 in the first class of the course which focuses on 'Quality Education' students were introduced to how COVID-19 has disrupted schools of all levels around the world and also within the Japanese context. Through the exposure to infographics, articles and video clips in the first-class, students were asked to discuss, and then write their ideas in a Google form. The data was collected from the following question:

In what ways has COVID-19 affected the quality of student's education?

This question was based on student sentiment of the first semester of 2020 and their reflections on how COVID-19 has influenced their education at their university, whether it be positive or negative, and on the overall sentiment held towards online education in general.

In a questionnaire given at the end of the course, this study aimed to examine the following three research questions through a series of Likert scale survey statements.

1. How easy or difficult do students perceive online learning and the tasks requested of them in this CLIL class?
2. Does an online CLIL course on SDGs help students deepen their understanding of the subject / content?
3. Does an online CLIL course on SDGs help students improve their reading, writing, speaking and listening?

The Likert scale statements were divided into two sections and five categories. They were:

Section 1

1. Difficulty level of completing tasks within the online platform of this class
2. Interaction

Section 2

3. Technological considerations
4. Perceived English improvement
5. Perceived learning of the content of the class

Category 1 and 2 statements were rated along a 5-point scale of Easy- somewhat easy-neither easy nor difficult (Just about right) - somewhat difficult - difficult. The statements for category 1 and 2 can be found in Appendix B. This scale attempted to evaluate student perceptions of online classes with respect to the practicality and ease of completing activities and tasks within the course and whether interaction with other students and the teacher was either easy or difficult with the option of a neutral ‘neither’ choice.

The statements for categories 3, 4 and 5 were rated along a six-point scale as in the following:

Strongly agree – Agree – slightly agree – slightly disagree – disagree – strongly disagree

These choices meant that the students had to select whether they agreed or disagreed with the statements given but were given choices as to what extent they agreed or disagreed. The statements for category 3, 4 and 5 can be found in Appendix C.

For each Likert scale statement students were given the option of writing a reason for their choice. The survey was completed through Google forms in the last class of the course and was anonymous. Unlike the data taken in the first class which was part of the actual class, this final survey was written in both English and Japanese and students could write the reasons for their choices in Japanese if they wished.

6. Results

The results are broken down into a summary of what students wrote in their first class with regards to how COVID-19 has affected their overall university education and the results of the survey they completed in their last class.

6.1 A summary of first-class reports based on the question in what ways has COVID-19 affected the quality of your education?

These answers were based on the students’ experiences of their university education in the first semester of the 2020 / 21 semester. As they are second year students, they also had the benefit of experiencing university life and education pre COVID-19 in the 2019 / 20 academic year. This allowed students to compare that year to their experiences in the first semester. The main issues students had with respect to COVID-19 affecting their level of education was centered around communication difficulties.

Many students wrote that online classes through Zoom created a feeling that they were not

taking ‘real’ classes and some lamented the fact that “It’s hard to acquire knowledge (in online classes) compared to fieldwork and face-to-face lessons.” Others suggested that a lack of communication with their fellow classmates created a sense of loneliness as they are only exposed to their classmate’s voice over a screen. This can lead to a reduction in motivation and a difficulty in retaining concentration. One student wrote:

Excerpt 1

Not all online lessons are bad, but the worst problem is we cannot see our friends. We cannot discuss sufficiently and feel lonely. This is very stressful. However, through online classes, I can take them flexibly so that cuts out lost time. By eliminating commuting time, I can use my time effectively.

Other students could also see some positives in online education, mostly with respect to on-demand classes, but the general consensus was that communication opportunities and the exchange of opinions online is greatly decreased in an online setting. This student seemed to capture the general mood of the class.

Excerpt 2

“Generally, the quality of my education has improved. Above all, there are no restrictions on the location where students take their classes. I came to make use of my own time especially in the morning. However, although the lessons taught by the professor are still acceptable, the quality of the lessons for discussion and exchange of opinions has greatly gone down compared to face-to-face communication before COVID-19 because we can’t see each other’s faces.”

Many of the students, it seems, had their first semester primarily conducted through on-demand classes. Here, the students could download video lectures, handouts, and lesson materials in their own time. It was flexible, but as the students’ state, it also led to a feeling of isolation as little to no contact could be made with classmates. This led to many students creating online communities through online communication platforms such as Twitter.

When the students were questioned about their English language classes, many of them stated that their classes were conducted through ‘Google Meet’ and that they were ‘teacher fronted’ with no chance to speak with the teacher or classmates. A limitation of Google Meet is that it did not have breakout rooms at that time. Breakout rooms were incorporated in the Google Meet platform in October 2020 which was too late for the first semester. One student wrote that “with the elimination of face-to-face classes, there were fewer opportunities to talk to people. I didn’t improve my language and conversational skills at all, which are gained by actually speaking.”

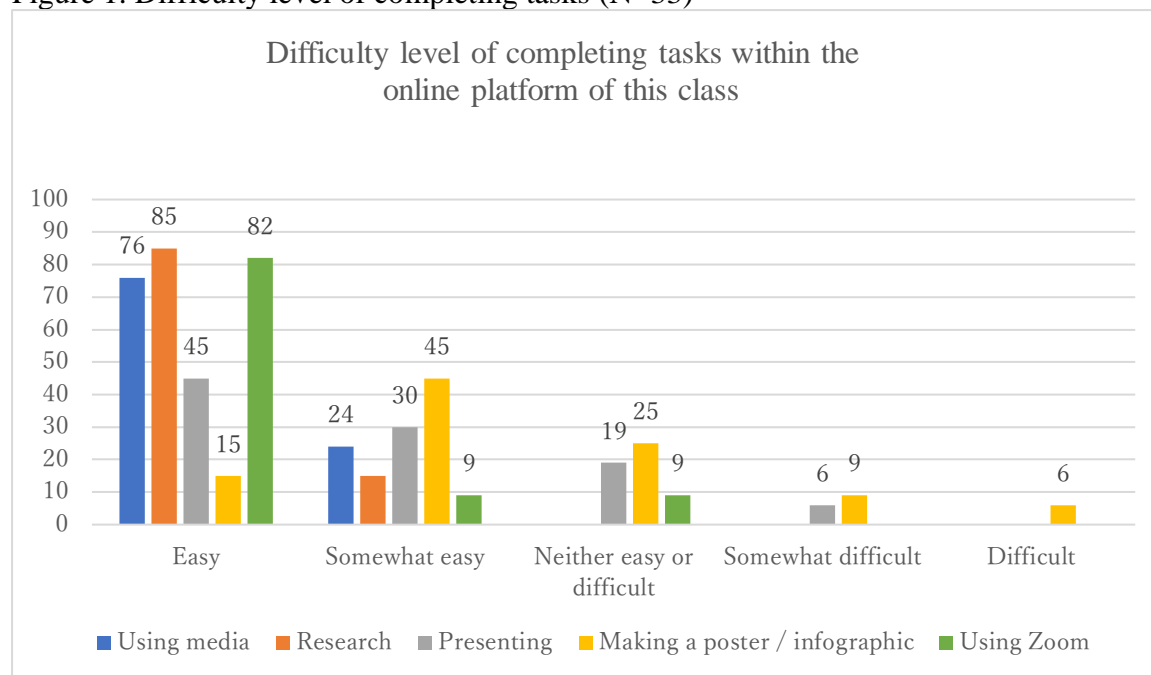
Although the majority of student answers and comments were resigned to the fact that online classes were unavoidable, and that the content of the classes themselves was adequate, it was a lack of communication with other students which every student mentioned in their writing and this was amplified by the fact that in the first semester of the 2020 / 21 academic year, the majority of students could not attend university and therefore this sense of isolation was amplified. Although students were quite philosophical on the pros and cons of online education, they were clearly not satisfied.

6.2 Results of the survey given in the last class

• **Category 1:** Difficulty level of completing tasks within the online platform of this class

Figure 1 below gives the results of the first section (category 1) of the survey which asked students to rate how easy or difficult using media, doing research, presenting, making a poster / infographic, and using Zoom was in an online environment.

Figure 1. Difficulty level of completing tasks (N=33)



Using media in an online environment, which included the playback of video files, the sharing of media files, using online language tools such as online dictionaries, was considered to be easy by 25 (76%) of the 33 students. Although there was a slight learning curve many students commented that they had learned the basics of Zoom in the first semester and those that were not familiar with Zoom said that they could quickly adapt to it because of the ease of use and the explanations that were given to them each time media files were used as part of lesson material in class. It was not surprising then that 82% of students stated that using Zoom was easy. Watching video clips and working on worksheets was also considered easy by the students.

Doing research in an online setting was also deemed to be 'easy' for the students, some noted that this was made easier because the teacher provided the students with a list of good websites to look at that would help them to write a report and give presentations. The teacher showed them these websites and how to use them and provided students with online tools such as Rikai.com which help students read online text. By copying and pasting text into Rikai.com students can place their mouse cursor in each word of the text and a Japanese translation appears. This benefits language learning more than by merely translating text by using online tools such as 'DeepL' or 'Google translate'. In a regular face-to-face class, the use of these tools would be harder to show and illustrate.

Presenting and making a poster were considered to be the least easy thing to do in an online CLIL SDG class. Only 5 students considered making a poster / infographic (through PowerPoint) to be difficult to some degree with only 2 students classifying 'presenting' as

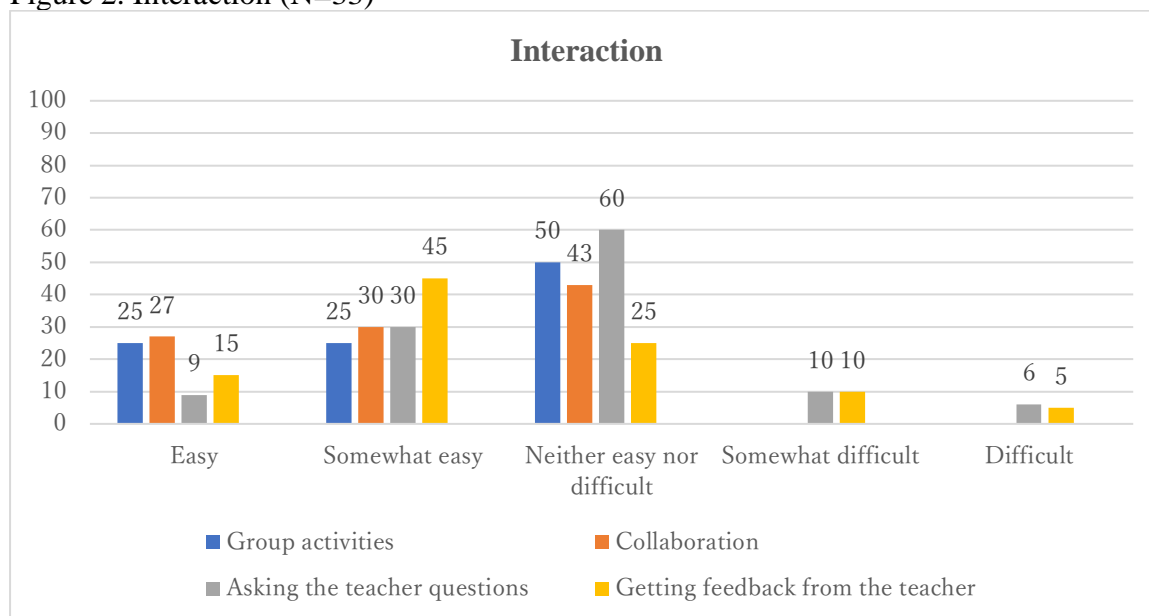
somewhat difficult.

Although the majority of students said that it was easy to varying degrees or that it was neither easy nor difficult, this did not mean that they liked giving an online presentation. The students had to give small 5-minute presentations in small groups within the breakout rooms. Making the PowerPoint slides was easy (an explanation on how to make a good PowerPoint presentation was also provided) but the delivery of the presentation felt uncomfortable for some students. They mentioned that they felt like they were talking to themselves, and they were anxious if the other students could actually hear them and see their power point. Interestingly, however, some students who had experience of making presentations in their first-year classes suggested that online presentations were easier as it was not as stressful. In comparison, other students suggested that a face-to-face group presentation is better because you can see the other student's reaction. Eye contact, posture and body language can be 'invisible' in an online presentation. Also, some mentioned that students are more likely to ask a question about their presentation in a face-to-face setting and therefore more interaction and discussion can occur as a result of this.

- **Category 2: Interaction**

Figure 2 below gives the results of the first section (category 2) of the survey which asked students to rate how easy or difficult it was to conduct group activities (discussion, analyzing and creating), collaborate with other students (debating and problem solving together etc.), ask the teacher questions, and get feedback from the teacher in an online environment.

Figure 2. Interaction (N=33)



The students were split 50/50 across selecting easy / somewhat easy and neither with respect to the ease of doing group activities and collaborating with one another. These statements addressed how easy performing activities and collaborating in a group or in pairs such as discussion and problem solving was in an online classroom. Although students did not perceive the activities themselves as being difficult, many students commented that a real face-to-face class would improve motivation, allow students to 'read the atmosphere' and would be more fun. Some students addressed concerns of students only using Japanese or not using their camera, which could feel 'awkward' when completing tasks. It can be argued that the reason

why most students selected ‘Neither easy nor difficult’ for this Likert scale item was because they were resigned to the fact that this situation could not be avoided.

The majority of the class suggested that asking the teacher questions in class was neither easy nor difficult but that it could be inconvenient. In small groups within the breakout rooms students were given the opportunity to ask questions and the teacher always confirmed that the students could understand the instructions given but there was often a reluctance to ask questions. Some students attributed this to embarrassment or the fact that they had no real questions. However, many of the students asked questions through email. These questions were usually to do with technical difficulties using a Google form, being absent for medical reasons and rarely about the language and content of the class. The teacher did, however, tell students that upon the conclusion of the class students who had a question could remain to ask it, but this opportunity was rarely taken.

The majority of students felt that getting feedback from the teacher was ‘somewhat easy’ to ‘neither easy nor difficult’ but some students suggested that because the teacher had to move from one breakout room to the next, the teacher was not always present to give feedback. Students also mentioned that although detailed feedback was given in Google form assignments and homework, the chance to ask questions about such feedback was difficult to do in front of other students. In a face-to-face setting one student suggested that they “could consult with the teacher about their work after the class and with no other students present.” Some students did do this when other students left the class as mentioned earlier or wrote to the teacher in private in the chat section, but these were rare cases. The main method of communicating with the teacher was therefore done through email.

- ***Category 3: Technological considerations***

As well as factors such as the lack of ability to communicate face-to-face with their peers, technological factors were also seen to be influential in the student’s general satisfaction with the class. In response to the statement ‘I have never had computer trouble when I have online classes’, 76% of students disagreed. The majority of this trouble was usually the result of a weak Wi-Fi connection. Within this class there were incidents of students disappearing and then returning due to Wi-Fi problems. Although not specific to this course, one student mentioned that “online classes require electronic devices such as computers and smartphones, but not everyone has them. There is an inequality in that the quality of education we receive is affected by whether or not you have a good internet connection.”

Some students opted not to use their cameras in class. This was evident when addressing the class as a whole and is perhaps to be expected as Zoom automatically turns cameras off when they enter the meeting. However, when students were placed into breakout rooms some of them elected to keep their cameras off. When students were asked to respond to the following statement ‘Using a web camera for online lessons makes me feel uncomfortable,’ 67% of students agreed (14% Strongly agree, 40% Agree with the rest slightly agreeing). When asked for the reasons for this the students gave the following reasons:

- Untidy room/did not want people to see their room.
- Appearance – no make-up, bad hair day.
- Felt it was not necessary at certain stages of the class.
- Other students turn their camera off in the breakout rooms, so I do the same.

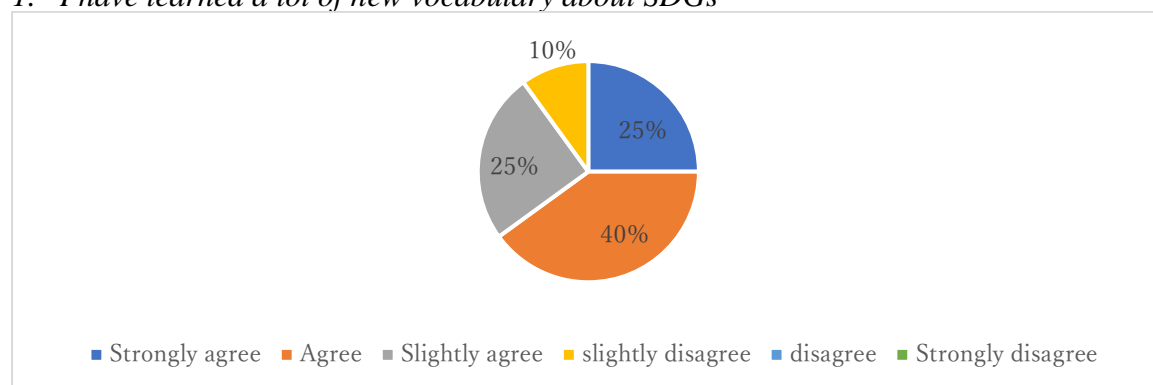
The first and second reasons are understandable but are subject to change. Some students commented on cleaning their room before class. Even though you can place yourself in a virtual background when your camera is on, some students did not know how to do this, or their computer did not have a strong enough CPU to achieve it. The third reason is understandable from the point of view of having cameras turned on when the teacher is addressing the whole class. This is also the default option of Zoom when you enter the Zoom meeting. The fourth reason was one of the biggest reasons. It was also sometimes evident when students readily had their cameras on in group work but when groups changed via the breakout room's function, the same student turned off their camera in a room where no student had their camera on. Peer pressure or the feeling of being uncomfortable being the only student with their camera on may have been an influential factor here.

- **Category 4: Perceived English improvement**

A good CLIL class aims to teach both the content and the language that the content is taught in. The following results aim to show how students perceived the learning of the English language in this course. These questions also aimed to cover the C's for communication and cognition (critical thinking).

Figure 3. SDG Vocabulary (N=33)

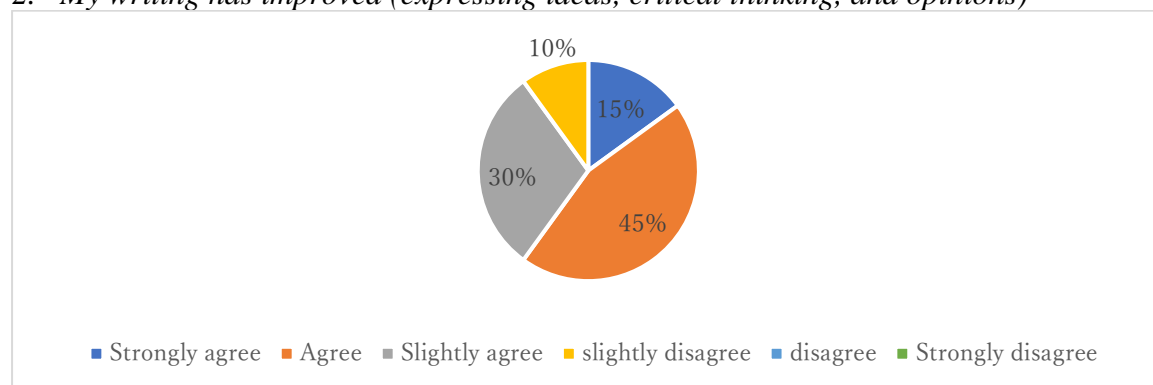
1. *I have learned a lot of new vocabulary about SDGs*



An overwhelming majority (90%) of students agreed to various extents that they learned a lot of new vocabulary in the course. Students commented this was especially prevalent in the learning of key phrases and terms which were at times of a scientific nature such as those related to climate change and plastic polluting the oceans. Some of the vocabulary they had heard of before. The fact that vocabulary items were pre-taught, and that scaffolding was given in each class, was stated as a reason for the 'learning' of new vocabulary.

Figure 4. Writing Improvement (N=33)

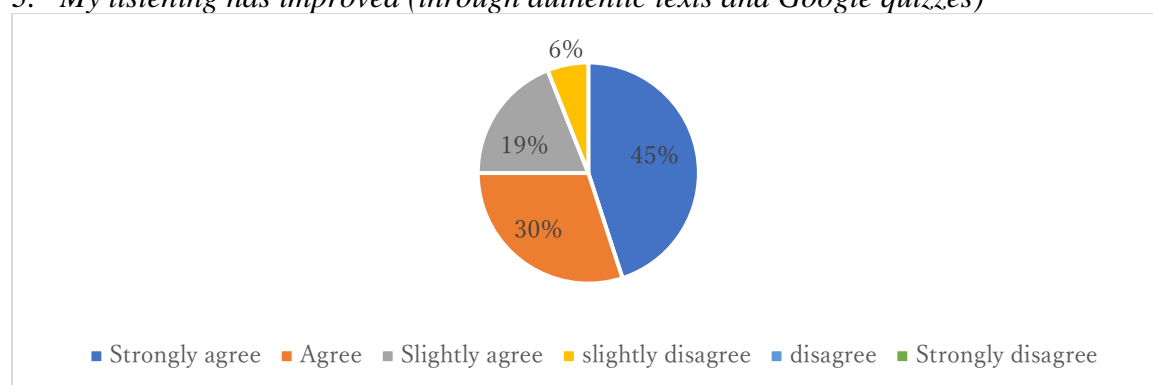
2. *My writing has improved (expressing ideas, critical thinking, and opinions)*



Writing was also considered to be a skill that all the students perceived to improve on. Many of the classes consisted of writing assignments or a worksheet whereby students had to give opinions and solutions about particular problems within the SDG context. Again, scaffolding was given to students on how to express their opinions, use connotations, cite sources, and write a short 5-paragraph essay summarizing the goals and issues of an SDG of their choice.

Figure 5. Listening Improvement (N=33)

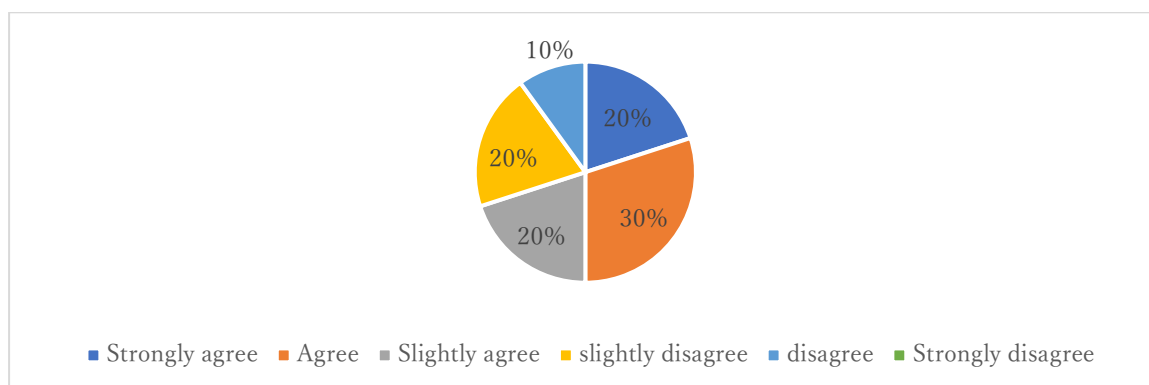
3. *My listening has improved (through authentic texts and Google quizzes)*



Many of the homework assignments consisted of listening quizzes based on SDGs. Some were based on YouTube videos while others were original recordings created by the author. Students commented that the listening tasks were level appropriate and because they included vocabulary learned in class, they helped vocabulary acquisition and how the lexical item can be used in other contexts.

Figure 6. Talking and Presenting about SDGs (N=33)

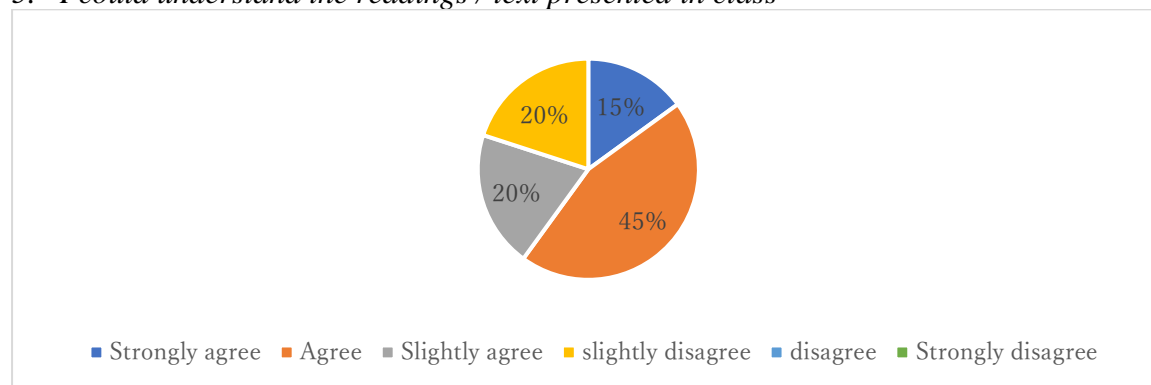
4. *I feel that I can talk about SDGs and explain their basic goals (Presentation, Presentation Q&A, Discussion, critical thinking skills and giving opinions has improved)*



This statement produced the most disagreement, with 30% of students suggesting that they feel they still cannot talk confidently about SDGs and their basic goals. Some of the students stated that the online environment was partly to blame for this. They suggested that some students only spoke in Japanese when they were in their breakout rooms when the teacher was not present. This led to frustration and a division between students who were eager to communicate and those who were perhaps suffering from ‘Zoom fatigue.’ One student commented that communicating through a computer screen every day gave them headaches and that they needed a break from it.

Figure 7. Reading Comprehension (N=33)

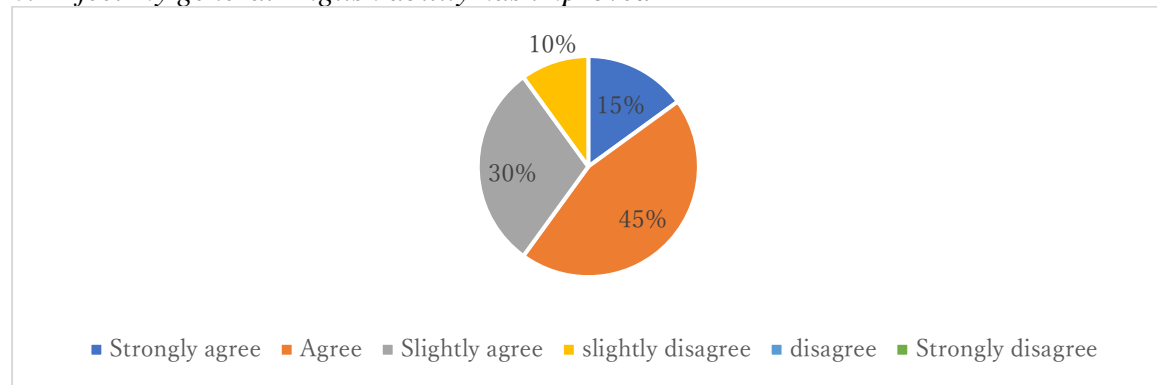
5. *I could understand the readings / text presented in class*



All the readings given in class were preceded by scaffolding activities, which helped students understand the vocabulary and technical expressions that were to be learned in the lesson. Although some students found the readings to be difficult, some stated that the pre-teaching of the vocabulary and the introduction of online tools such as rikai.com made the process much simpler.

Figure 8. General English Ability (N=33)

6. *I feel my general English ability has improved*



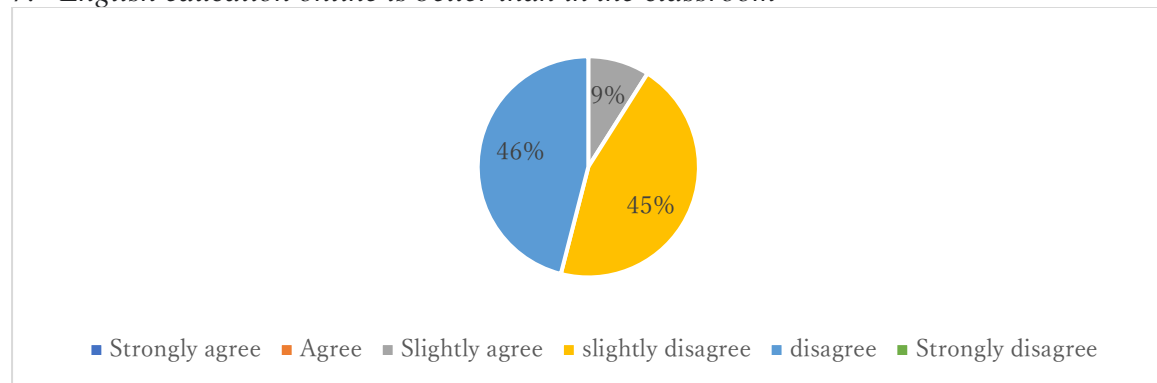
The majority of students agreed that they felt that their overall English ability improved as a result of the course. Some students mentioned that the passive skills of reading, writing, and listening improved the most as much of this could be done in isolation as homework. Although most of the students agreed that their speaking improved, many suggested that a face-to-face setting would have further improved their overall communication skills. One student wrote:

Excerpt 3

Firstly, if I am in a classroom with my friends, I can exchange views with them and get the other perspective. Secondly, in past days, friends who study hard beside me had a significantly positive effect on me. Watching them motivated me to improve my English skills, try a new thing, resolve a question and so on .

Figure 9. English Education Online (N=33)

7. *English education online is better than in the classroom*



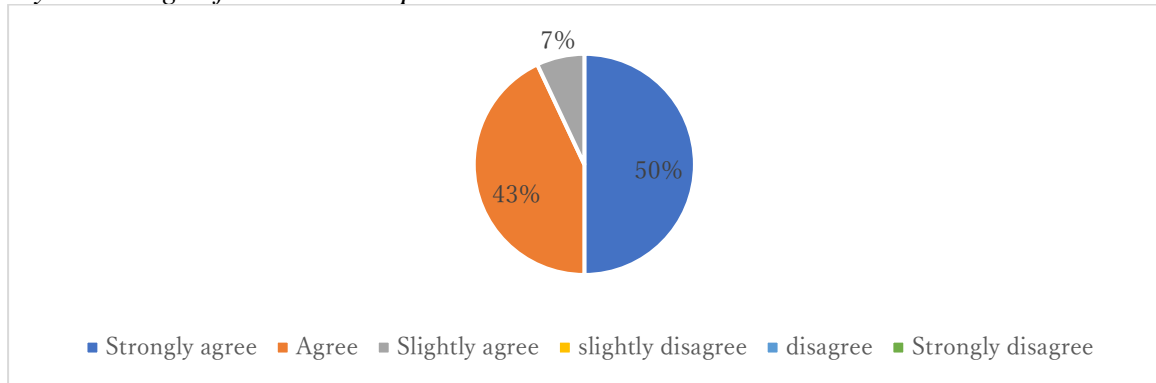
All of the students disagreed with this statement and the reasons stated confirmed the general consensus found throughout the data in this paper that for the improvement of communication skills and student interaction a traditional face-to-face approach is best suited for an English class at university level.

Category 5: Perceived improvement of learning content in the online class

The following results aim to show how students perceived the learning of content (the subject of SDGs) in this course. These questions also aimed to touch upon the Cs for content and culture.

Figure 10. Knowledge of SDGs (N=33)

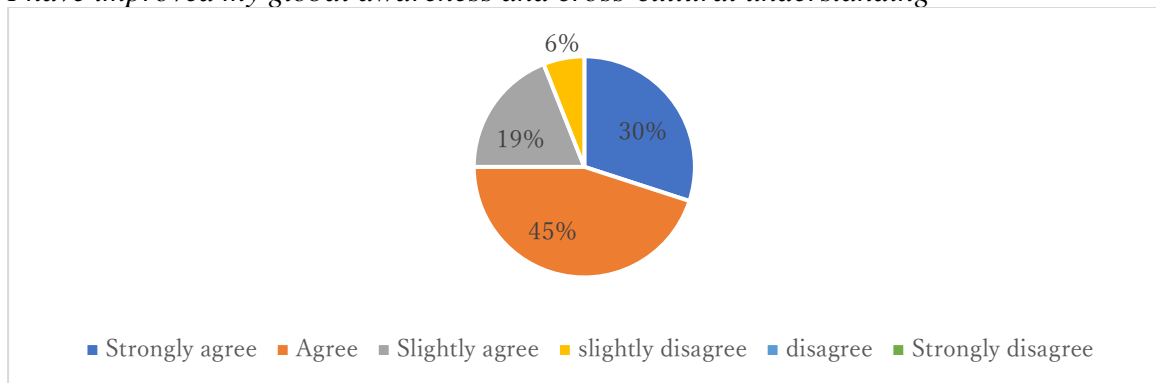
1. *My knowledge of SDGs has improved*



All of the students agreed that their knowledge of SDGs improved and that the subject of SDGs was 'in fashion' as it was often on TV and class lectures at their university discussed some of the SDGs. Therefore, students commented that it was a worthwhile subject to learn and the knowledge obtained can be easily transferred to other disciplines that the students are studying. For many of the students, SDGs were new to them, for others, they had heard of them, but not really read about them in any depth.

Figure 11. Global Awareness (N=33)

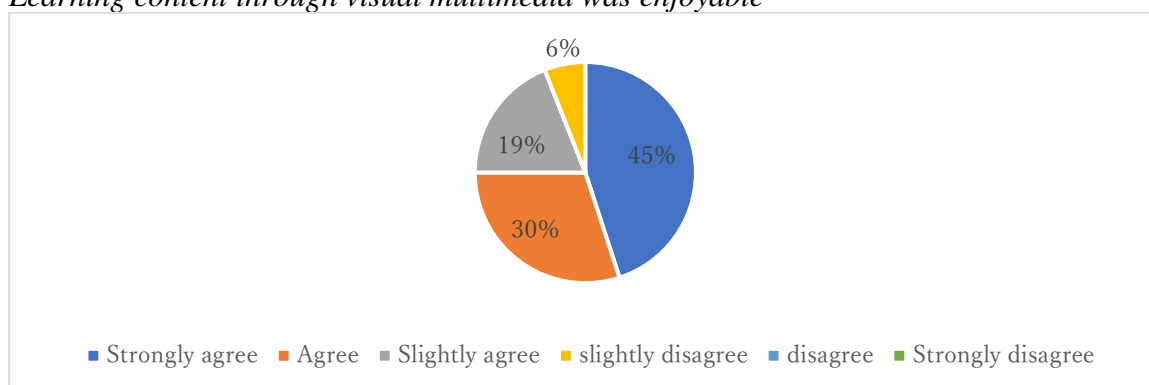
2. *I have improved my global awareness and cross-cultural understanding*



The SDGs were taught in both a global and national context and because of this many students commented on being surprised by some of the facts and statistics that they learned about Japan and the rest of the world in terms of social issues such as gender equality index and why Japan has ranked so poorly.

Figure 12. Visual Media (N=33)

3. *Learning content through visual multimedia was enjoyable*



Much of the content selected and used in the course was taken from authentic sources that presented and discussed each SDG issue in an easy and understandable way. Students' reasons for agreeing with this statement was that the visual nature of learning provided a better experience than by just reading lengthy texts which they said some English teachers have done in their other English communication classes.

7. The online CLIL SDG class: students' perspectives

Results suggest that the students had little difficulty when completing tasks, such as presentations, doing research, using media, and creating infographics, within the online platform of the class. The majority of students suggested that these tasks were easy to somewhat easy. This may not be surprising as the generation we teach are considered to be digital natives and have grown up with such technology. The learning curve in using this technology was also a short one as many students had used Zoom and already had some experience with it. When appropriate, in terms of the tasks involved in the course the students were pre-taught how to use various software to complete tasks such as doing research, giving presentations, and making posters. Both teacher and the student therefore had built up a user experience of the online platform in the first semester which helped for a smoother learning and teaching experience in the second semester.

However, in terms of interaction, there is a shift in perspective from easy / somewhat easy to a more neutral stance of neither easy nor difficult on Likert statements regarding classroom interaction. Students commented that although the breakout rooms were close to a face-to-face environment, it was not the same. Some students did not turn on their camera, some left their microphone off, and the teacher could not always be present in the breakout room. This resulted in a decrease in motivation. One student commented that "I have less chance to talk with my friends (within the class) and deepen my learning. And I think that having to keep facing the computer has a physical impact on my lack of concentration." Other students, however, appreciated the Zoom breakout rooms, especially as other 'English communication' classes were conducted without group or pair work. One student commented "I like group work because I want to get opinions and other points of view from other students."

8. Lessons learned and opportunities gained: a teacher's perspective

Although this paper does not include survey data from English language teachers, this section will examine the author's experience of teaching this online CLIL SDG class and give a brief overview of the lessons learned and opportunities gained.

8.1 Lessons learned

Creating original CLIL materials can be very time consuming but rewarding. As the teacher of this CLIL course, the transition to online teaching increased this preparation time. As this course was originally created and taught in the 2019 / 20 academic year, all the materials were geared towards the traditional face-to-face classroom. This meant that I had to change the way I delivered classes, and although there are many online resources and multimedia options to choose from, this required time to look through, and find material that was class appropriate. Collaboration and creativity amongst the students (creating posters / advertisement campaigns) was much harder to do both in terms of instruction and student delivery. Therefore, some team presentations were excluded from the course. Although most of the students were comfortable with the technology in the second semester, this did not mean that everything ran smoothly. As a teacher, the majority of feedback I gave was done through written communication, which is obviously more time consuming than face-to-face direct communication. The lack of opportunity to directly speak to students also meant that discussion and further comments on student feedback was limited. Online classes also meant that tracking a student's progress, having a good understanding of the strong and weak students was difficult compared to a traditional class. A CLIL class is based on a student-centered active learning approach and although this was achievable through breakout rooms, which allowed for group and pair work, it was not easy gauging whether or not students were actually listening actively as there were no faces to look at when giving instructions. Even if students were to all put their cameras on, it would mean scrolling through the students one by one whilst talking to try to gain some clues on their comprehension level.

Also, some students took their classes at the actual university. This usually meant that they were wearing masks which made 'interpretation' even more difficult. As a basic observation, I felt that online CLIL classes are achievable, but concessions must be made as it is difficult to expect the same level of performance, at least speaking wise, to a traditional face-to-face class. It is also harder to evaluate a students' speaking ability.

8.2 Opportunities gained

A big merit of the class was that it became a completely paperless course. Everything was conducted and delivered online. This meant there were no cases of students forgetting or losing handouts and the time required to make copies of course materials could now be used elsewhere to prepare for the course. For me personally, this paperless approach led a more logically way to organize files digitally rather than with hard copies. Needless to say, it also benefits the environment and keeps university costs down. The sudden transition to online class delivery also meant a larger use of visual materials. The use of simple infographics and short videos that introduced the SDGs were used on a regular basis and I found these very helpful in visualizing facts, figures, and statistics. Quizzes on content (knowledge of the SDGs) were also very easy to put together through Google forms. There are also many online quizzes with answers explained that students particularly liked. I will now try to incorporate these merits into the traditional face-to-face class as I plan to center my classes around a hybrid approach, whereby an increase in the usage of multimedia and online tools will be used in the delivering of content. This is also helped by the new university BYOD (Bring your own device) policy whereby students are required to bring in their computers.

9. Conclusion

There is no question that some lectures or classes lend themselves more to the online teaching platform than others, but the fact remains that face-to-face classes are an important part of the university experience for both teachers and students. This sentiment can also be applied to a

CLIL class. Although many of the observations and data presented in this paper could be equally applicable to other 'English language communication' classes, the main finding that was omnipresent through the data and the students' comments, was that in this CLIL class, the learning of content was easy in an online setting. The learning outcomes with respect to learning both the language and content was also achieved. However, interaction, communication, and the chance to speak was somewhat hindered by the technology and the issues surrounding it, which meant that most students preferred a face-to-face approach for communicative activities and interaction. As we have heard from students, the university is a place where students can exchange ideas with one another, and it provides them with a physical environment for learning. This notion represents the principle of deeper learning and studying that students can experience through interaction with one another and university staff. To answer the title of this paper, 'Can online CLIL be a replacement for its face-to-face counterpart?' Then the answer is 'no,' mainly for the reasons previously stated. However, through the experience of teaching this online CLIL course, adopting some of the merits or good components of the online platform and incorporating them into a face-to-face SDG CLIL class may be a future direction that is worth taking note of and attempting in the future. It is also a possible research area that can be investigated further.

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Appendix A: The themes and basic content of the course

Class 1	Introduction to the course. SDG4 'Quality Education' and the impact of COVID-19
Class 2	SDG: Gender equality 1. World perspective / Presenting online tips and advice
Class 3	SDG: Gender equality 2. The Japanese context / the language needed for presentations
Class 4	SDG: Climate action 1 / Asking and answering questions after a presentation
Class 5	SDG: Climate action 2 /
Class 6	SDG: How we can make the world a better place by 2030
Class 7	SDG: Being a Citizen of the world
Class 8	SDG: Responsible consumption and production / Choosing a presentation topic
Class 9	SDG: Good Health and well-being. / Writing a presentation script
Class 10	SDG: Life below water / Designing the visuals of the presentation
Class 11	SDG: Clean water and sanitation / Presentation expressions
Class 12	SDG: Affordable clean energy
Class 13	SDG: Zero Hunger / Practicing the main presentation
Class 14	Student presentations
Class 15	Review of the course. Feedback given on presentation. End of course questionnaire given.

Each class consisted of scaffolded lessons of vocabulary and grammar for the students to discuss and present on SDG topics in class and or prepare for mini presentations in the Zoom breakout rooms.

Appendix B: Likert scale survey given in the last class of the course

Section 1

Category 1

Difficulty level of completing tasks within the online platform of this class

Please rank the following in terms of how easy / difficult they were to do in this online class

- Using media
Easy – somewhat easy – neither easy nor difficult (Just about right) -somewhat difficult – difficult
- Doing research (for reports, presentations)
Easy – somewhat easy – neither easy nor difficult (Just about right) -somewhat difficult – difficult
- Making a presentation online
Easy – somewhat easy – neither easy nor difficult (Just about right) -somewhat difficult – difficult
- Making a poster / infographic
Easy – somewhat easy – neither easy nor difficult (Just about right) -somewhat difficult – difficult
- Using Zoom in general
Easy – somewhat easy – neither easy nor difficult (Just about right) -somewhat difficult – difficult

Section1

Category 2

Interaction

Please rank the following in terms of how easy / difficult they were to do in this online class

- Group activities
Easy – somewhat easy – neither easy nor difficult (Just about right) -somewhat difficult – difficult
- Collaboration
Easy – somewhat easy – neither easy nor difficult (Just about right) -somewhat difficult – difficult
- Asking the teacher questions
Easy – somewhat easy – neither easy nor difficult (Just about right) -somewhat difficult – difficult
- Getting feedback from the teacher
Easy – somewhat easy – neither easy nor difficult (Just about right) -somewhat difficult – difficult

Appendix C: Likert scale survey given in the last class of the course

Section 2

Category 3

Technological considerations

Please choose the best answer for whether or not you agree / disagree with the following statements

- a. I have never had computer trouble when I have online classes
Strongly agree – Agree – slightly agree – slightly disagree – disagree – strongly disagree
- b. Using a web camera for online lessons makes me feel uncomfortable
Strongly agree – Agree – slightly agree – slightly disagree – disagree – strongly disagree

Category 4

Perceived learning of the content of the class

Please choose the best answer for whether or not you agree / disagree with the following statements

- a. *I have learned a lot of new vocabulary about SDGs*
Strongly agree – Agree – slightly agree – slightly disagree – disagree – strongly disagree
- b. *My writing has improved (expressing ideas, critical thinking, and opinions)*
Strongly agree – Agree – slightly agree – slightly disagree – disagree – strongly disagree
- c. *My listening has improved (through authentic texts and Google quizzes)*
Strongly agree – Agree – slightly agree – slightly disagree – disagree – strongly disagree
- d. *I feel that I can talk about SDGs and explain their basic goals (Discussion, critical thinking skills and giving opinions has improved)*
Strongly agree – Agree – slightly agree – slightly disagree – disagree – strongly disagree
- e. *I could understand the readings / text presented in class*
Strongly agree – Agree – slightly agree – slightly disagree – disagree – strongly disagree
- f. *I feel my general English ability has improved*
Strongly agree – Agree – slightly agree – slightly disagree – disagree – strongly disagree
- g. *English education online is better than in the classroom*
Strongly agree – Agree – slightly agree – slightly disagree – disagree – strongly disagree

Category 5

Perceived improvement of learning content in the online class

Please choose the best answer for whether or not you agree / disagree with the following statements

- a. My knowledge of SDGs has improved
Strongly agree – Agree – slightly agree – slightly disagree – disagree – strongly disagree
- b. I have improved my global awareness and cross-cultural understanding
Strongly agree – Agree – slightly agree – slightly disagree – disagree – strongly disagree
- c. Learning content through visual multimedia was enjoyable
Strongly agree – Agree – slightly agree – slightly disagree – disagree – strongly disagree

The Effects of L1 Use in CLIL on the Syntactic Complexity in L2 Academic Paragraph Writing

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Abstract

This paper examines the role that translanguaging plays as a type of verbal scaffolding in facilitating content and language integrated learning (CLIL). Since CLIL requires a high level of cognitive involvement and places a high cognitive demand on the learner, as they have to study both content and language simultaneously, immediate efforts are warranted to identify effective scaffolding strategies. Among the three types of scaffolding---verbal, content, or learning process---this paper focuses on verbal, translanguaging, in particular. The study was conducted in a freshman class with 30 students from a university in Japan. A comparison-group design was utilized: one class received translanguaging interventions, and the other used only L2 (second language, English) as preparation for writing an essay. Their writing outcomes were compared using the vocabulary level analyzer (CVLA), which automatically assigned CEFR levels to the input text based on the four textual features. The research findings showed that the CEFR levels of the students in the experimental group were higher than those of the control group, thus challenging the monolingual approach to L2 teaching. A questionnaire survey was also conducted to shed light on the students' attitudes toward the use of L1 (first language, Japanese) in class. Based on the results, the pedagogical implications of translanguaging for CLIL are discussed.

Keywords: academic paragraph writing, pedagogical translanguaging, scaffolding, transregister, CEFR-J, higher-order cognitive skills

1. Introduction

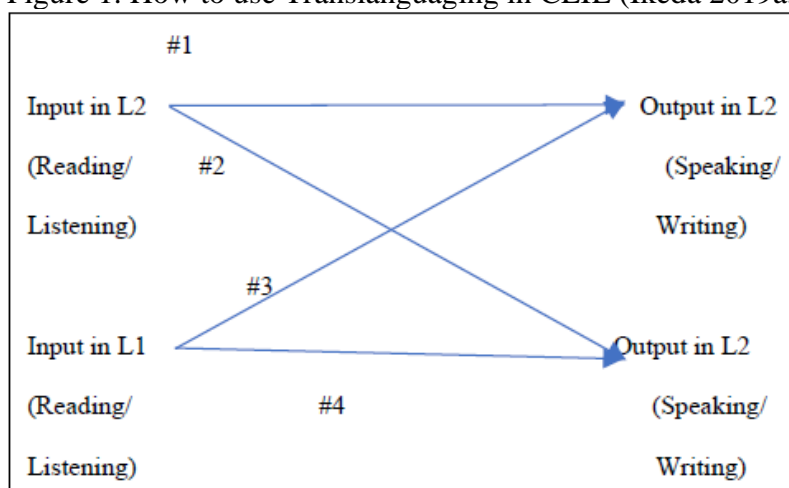
The aim of this paper was to explore how translanguaging works as a scaffolding for students studying English in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) classes at a Japanese university. CLIL is aimed at simultaneously achieving 4Cs: cognition, culture, content, and communication. It requires balancing content and language learning, hence demanding a high level of cognitive ability. Therefore, much more scaffolding may be required in a CLIL class than in a usual language class, especially in a country like Japan, whose native language is far from English in terms of grammar, word order, vocabulary, phonetics, etc. According to Gibbons (2002, p.10), scaffolding is "the temporary assistance by which a teacher helps a learner know how to do something, so that the learner will later be able to complete a similar task alone." Mehisto et al. (2008, p. 29) incorporate scaffolding in CLIL as one of the six core features of CLIL methodology along with "multiple focus," "safe and enriching learning environment," "authenticity," "active learning," and "co-operation." They go on to discuss some of the practical guidelines concerning building scaffolding in the CLIL classroom: a) building on students' existing knowledge, b) chunking and repackaging knowledge, c) fostering creative and critical thinking, d) responding to different learning styles, e) developing creative and critical thinking, and f) challenging students to step outside their "comfort zone." In terms of how it functions, Linares et al. (2012) divide scaffolding into two types: a) assistance provided in classroom interaction and b) task scaffolding. Gibbons (2002) articulates these two types as: "contingent or interactional" and "designed-in." This paper focuses on "designed-in" scaffolding.

2. Translanguaging Practices for Scaffolding

Ikeda (2019b, p. 8) defines translanguaging in CLIL as follows: “Translanguaging in CLIL classrooms concerns proactive and reactive classroom activities and interactions in which students actively and purposefully use their own language and the target language in order to maximize their learning in context-specific knowledge, versatile thinking skills, and second language proficiency.” Translanguaging (TL) originally referred to an alternate use of Welsh and English in the context of bilingual education, which aimed to develop both languages in a balanced way. Cenoz and Gorter (2017) point out that the concept of TL has been increasingly accepted in recent years, and that it has been extended from the original “pedagogical practice” to an “umbrella” term and diversely defined by different scholars. Therefore, translanguaging varies in definition, but one of the most popular definitions is the one provided by García and Wei (2014, p.20): TL is “both the complex language practices of plurilingual individuals and communities, as well as the pedagogical approaches that use those complex practices.” In other words, the more traditional view of translanguaging has been expanded to include bilinguals’/multilinguals’ language practices of switching from one language to another consciously or unconsciously in their daily lives. Therefore, as Cenoz and Gorter (2017) suggest, translanguaging can also refer to “spontaneous multilingual practices” that are applied in a pedagogical way. This is an interesting emerging field of study that is currently being explored by many scholars and requires further research. However, it is beyond the scope of this paper which narrowly focuses on “pedagogical translanguaging practices for designed-in scaffolding,” and not on “spontaneous translanguaging.”

According to Cenoz and Gorter (2020, p. 300), pedagogical translanguaging is “understood as intentional instructional strategies that integrate two or more languages and aim at the development of the multilingual repertoire as well as metalinguistic and language awareness.” Teaching methods utilizing pedagogical translanguaging in CLIL classes can be diverse. For example, reading a text and discussing the content in L1 (first language) and writing a report in L2 (second language), or conversely, using L2 in reading comprehension and making a summary in L1 is also conceivable. Ikeda (2019a) uses a simplified yet very useful model to explain how L1 can be used in both input and output (Figure 1).

Figure 1. How to use Translanguaging in CLIL (Ikeda 2019a, translated by the author)



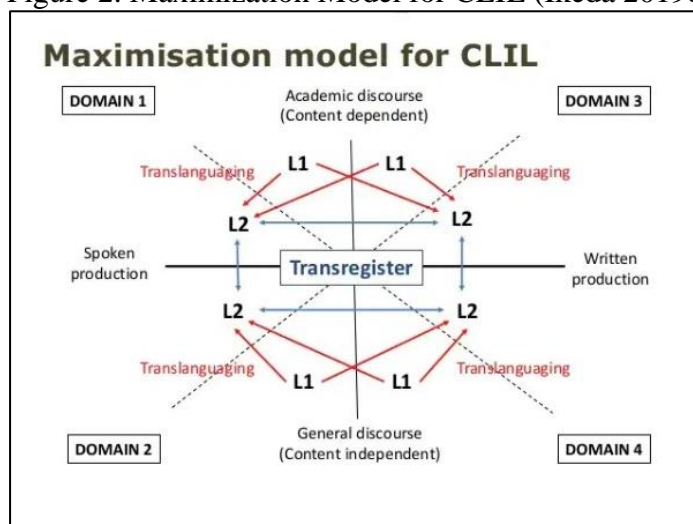
Arrow #1 shows that the information on the content is provided through reading or listening in L2, and some kind of speaking or writing output is produced in L2. This does not include any translanguaging, nor does arrow #4, where all the input and output are conducted in L1. TL is employed in arrow #2, in which input is given in L2 in the form of text, audio, or video, and

learners produce some kind of output such as a discussion, presentation, or report in L1. Arrow #3 is in reverse, and learners produce output in L2 based on the information given in L1. Either way, it results in the reinforcement of both languages. The definition of TL proposed by Lewis et al. (2012, p. 643), namely the “planned and systematic use of two languages for teaching and learning in the same lesson,” seems to fit these kinds of activities.

The use of L1 has become increasingly considered as a resource and an effective tool. Bruen and Kelly (2014) argue that by using L1 to explain complex terminology and concepts, students’ cognitive overload can be diminished. Swain and Lapkin (2000, p. 269) argue that “to insist that no use be made of the L1 in carrying out tasks that are both linguistically and cognitively complex is to deny the use of an important cognitive tool.”

CLIL learning requires not just what Cummins (1980) terms “Basic Interpersonal Conversational Skills (BICS)” but “Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP),” which is the language proficiency needed for higher-level cognition and complex learning. Especially when students produce some kinds of outputs, such as writing, discussing, or giving a presentation, such learning processes classified high in Bloom’s (1956) Taxonomy as applying, analyzing, evaluating, and creating are required. These higher-order cognitive skills should entail the use of academic language. This suggests that it is not just moving back and forth between the two languages (L1/L2), but more complex linguistic activities exploiting the entire linguistic repertoire of the learner, which is required in learning content and language concurrently. Ikeda (2019b) further gives a detailed account of the output results (Figure 2) by incorporating the concept of “transregister,” which means “the intentional fusion of academic and everyday language,” and claims that transregister and translanguaging are attributes of successful CLIL learning along with the integration of content and language. He claims that “CLIL learning is maximized not only by the integration of content and language (e.g., maths and English), but by the intentional fusion of academic and everyday language (i.e. transregister), and L1 and L2 use (i.e., translanguaging)” (Ikeda 2019b p. 12).

Figure 2. Maximization Model for CLIL (Ikeda 2019b)



This is highly intellectually demanding for students, and without scaffolding, some of them may feel that it is too daunting. Therefore, training for deep and critical thinking in academic language should be provided in L1 as the first step toward achieving it in L2 and that the best way to come up with ideas and organize complex thoughts is through writing. Espinosa and Herrera (2016) appear to endorse this idea by reporting that there is evidence that the use of

translanguaging in academic writing helps students access content and think critically. Ascenzi-Moreno and Espinosa (2018, p. 14) propose the following as the core principles in designing writing instruction through a translanguaging frame:

- Writing is a tool for thinking. To fully construct meaning, the student needs to be invited to leverage his or her entire linguistic repertoire throughout all aspects of the writing process.
- Writing is writing regardless of the language. Although there are cultural- and language-specific conventions that mark writing, at the heart of writing is the construction of meaning.
- Writers need agency to draw from their entire linguistic repertoire to produce complex texts. To enact their own agency when accessing deeper and more complex thinking, writers need to make their own choices rather than relying solely on the teacher's permission.
- Writers need to capitalize on their entire linguistic repertoire throughout the writing process regardless of the language the final product will be in. Emergent bilinguals benefit from engaging in literacy practices in their home language, such as reading, taking notes, conferencing and sharing, and translating to reach the goals of the final product.

As stated above by Ascenzi-Moreno and Espinosa (2018), the use of translanguaging can be a powerful tool to engage in deeper, more complex thinking. However, there has been little research validating this process and assessing the complexity of writing by converting the results into a scaled score and showing the effect of translanguaging numerically. *Therefore, this study attempted to* ascertain how translanguaging helps students overcome the challenge of producing academic writing with complex ideas by addressing the following research questions (RQ):

RQ1: How does L1 used in preparation for writing a paragraph improve the quality of writing outcomes?

RQ2: How do participants consider the use of pedagogical translanguaging as a scaffolding?

3. Materials and Methods

3.1 Quantitative Research

The participants in this study were 30 Japanese freshmen studying English as a second language at the Intercultural Studies Department of the Faculty of Humanities at a private university in Japan. The department is intended to develop students' English language proficiency to the standard required to study abroad after the first three quarters (the study abroad program that year was suspended because of the pandemic restrictions though). Their English proficiency level was B1-B2, judged by the results of the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) test they took before the course started in the 3rd quarter. The 30 students were divided into two classes with the same level of language proficiency (the data on their scores are presented in the Results section). The final goal of the course was to develop their discussion skills, using a CLIL approach, and they were to discuss a proposition (e.g. "Japan should grow genetically modified organisms (GMOs)") after reading the articles and data that provided knowledge and information on a different current event each time. The course was provided solely through the medium of the English language, similar to almost all other courses they take. However, like most Japanese students, they were not fluent speakers, and silence was expected if they started a discussion without any preparation. Therefore, as a first step, they were instructed to write three reasons to support

their perspective (pros/cons) and develop them into an agree/disagree paragraph of 100-150 words. The experimental group ($n=16$) was instructed to use L1 to write three reasons to support their perspective (see the Appendix for an example), while the control group ($n=14$) used only L2. Then, both groups wrote a paragraph in English.

Based on the assumption that language reflects our cognition, and hence a higher level of lexical and syntactic complexity of written outputs is a reflection of conceptual and cognitive complexity, the level of the paragraph text was assessed and compared between the two groups. For the text analysis, the CEFR-based Vocabulary Level Analyzer (CVLA) Ver. 2.0, (created by Satoru Uchida) was used. Uchida and Negishi (2018, p. 1) define it as “a system that assigns CEFR-J levels to English texts based on textual features calculated from the input text.” The CEFR-J is a Japanese version of the CEFR and it was developed by Tono (Ed.) (2013) to provide a more accurate assessment for Japanese students whose proficiency levels mostly range between A1 and A2. These two levels are subdivided into four and two subdivisions, respectively. In total, it has the following 12 levels: PreA1, A1.1, A1.2, A1.3, A2.1, A2.2, B1.1, B1.2, B2.1, B2.2, C1, and C2. The level is calculated based on four textual features (ARI, VperSent, AvrDiff, and BperA). Uchida and Negishi (2018, p. 3) describe each variant as follows:

ARI (Automated Readability Index) is calculated using the following formula: $4.71(\text{characters/words}) + 0.5(\text{words/sentences}) - 21.43$. This index is sensitive to sentence and word lengths. If this index is high, the text level can be lowered by separating sentences or using shorter words.

VperSent, which stands for “Verbs per Sentence,” is the average rate of verbs included in each sentence. If this index is high, the text level can be lowered by using simpler constructions (e.g., avoiding passive, gerund, and past participles).

The AvrDiff index shows the average of word difficulties when A1 is 1, A2 is 2, B1 is 3, and B2 is 4. Word levels are determined based on the CEFR-J Wordlist (hence, the system does not consider C1 and C2 words). Functional words were excluded from the calculations. If this index is high, the text level can be lowered by replacing higher-level words with easier ones (e.g., “inform” (B1) -> “tell” (A1)).

BperA shows the ratio of B-level content words to A-level content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs). If this index is high, the text level can be lowered by avoiding B-level words.

The passage that the students wrote was 100-150 words per unit of the textbook, and the first, second, and last two passages were put together to improve the accuracy of the analysis, since Uchida and Negishi (2021) claim that approximately 400-word-texts are desirable so that the CVLA can assign the CEFR level with approximately 80% accuracy.

3.2 Qualitative Research

After all classes were completed, a questionnaire about the use of L1 was administered to both groups. It was made clear to the participants that their responses would be used for research purposes only. The questionnaire consisted of the following questions (Q1--10), which the students rated on a six-point Likert scale (1= strongly agree, 2= agree, 3 = slightly agree, 4= slightly disagree, 5=disagree, 6= strongly disagree). Finally, the respondents were asked to share their ideas in the open-ended question (Q11) at the end of the questionnaire.

The questions were as follows:

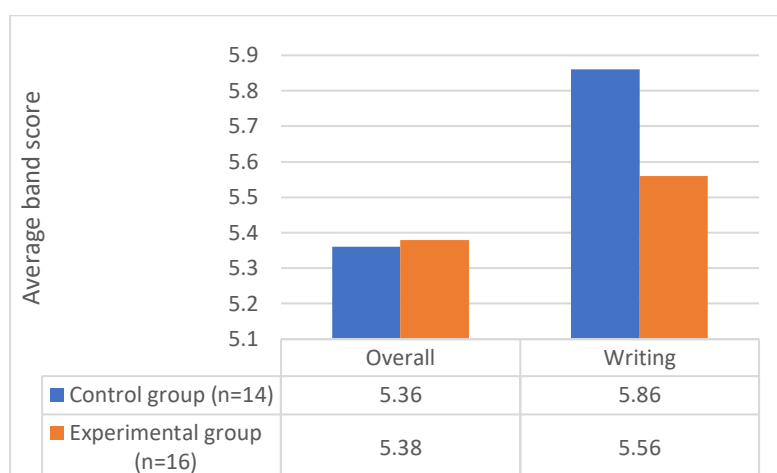
1. I think students should use only English in class.
2. I think the teacher should use only English in class.
3. When writing a paragraph, I think students should write in English from the beginning.
4. When writing a paragraph, I think using L1 helps put my thoughts together.
5. It is difficult to put my thoughts together in English.
6. Using L1 helps me understand the meaning of English words.
7. Using L1 helps me understand the content of English text.
8. Using L1 helps me think deeply.
9. I would like to request that the teacher uses L1 more frequently in class.
10. I would like to be allowed to use L1 more frequently in class.
11. Write your thoughts about the use of L1 in class. (open-ended question)

4. Results

4.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

As mentioned above, the students were divided into two classes based on their IELTS overall score so that the linguistic proficiency levels would be practically equal between the two classes, with the control group and experimental group having an average band score of 5.36 ($n=14$) and 5.38 ($n=16$), respectively. Their writing scores were not considered in the placement process, but it was notable that the average writing score of the experimental group was later found to be 0.3 points lower than the score of the control group at the time of placement.

Figure 3. The results of the IELTS Test used as the placement test



The values of ARI, VperSent, AvrDiff, and BperA of the first, second and last rounds are shown respectively in Tables 1 to 3, and the results of the t-tests are shown in Table 4.

Table 1. The results of the CVLA analysis #1 (Units 1&2)

Round #1	ARI	VperSent	AvrDiff	BperA
Control group ($n=12$)	5.67	2.66	1.76	0.25
Experimental group ($n=16$)	6.19	2.79	1.77	0.3

Note. In this round, the number of students in the control group was less than 14, due to the absence of students and other causes.

Table 2. The results of the CVLA analysis #2 (Units 3&8)

Round #2	ARI	VperSent	AvrDiff	BperA
Control group (n=13)	7.23	2.57	1.62	0.2
Experimental group (n=16)	7.47	2.93	1.68	0.25

Note. In this round, the number of students in the control group was less than 14, due to the absence of students and other causes.

Table 3. The results of the CVLA analysis #3 (Units 10&11)

Round #3	ARI	VperSent	AvrDiff	BperA
Control group (n=14)	6.64	2.32	1.78	0.3
Experimental group (n=16)	7.72	3.08	1.72	0.27

The ARI, which shows the sentence and word length, was higher in the experimental group than in the control group throughout the course, especially in the third round, with a difference of 1.08 (7.72-6.64). The mean score of the control group was 6.51 and that of the experimental group was 7.13, but the difference was not statistically significant ($p>.05$) (see Table 4 below for details).

Table 4. T-test results for ARI and VperSent

t-Test:Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances [ARI]		
	Control group	Experimental group
Mean	6.51	7.13
Variance	0.62	0.67
Observations	3	3
Pooled variance	0.65	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	4	
t	-0.933853757	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.201623054	
t Critical one-tail	2.131846786	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.403246107	
t Critical two-tail	2.776445105	
t-Test:Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances [VperSent]		
	Control group	Experimental group
Mean	2.52	2.93
Variance	0.03	0.02
Observations	3	3
Pooled variance	0.03	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	4	
t	-3.162783746	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.017046433	
t Critical one-tail	2.131846786	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.034092866	
t Critical two-tail	2.776445105	

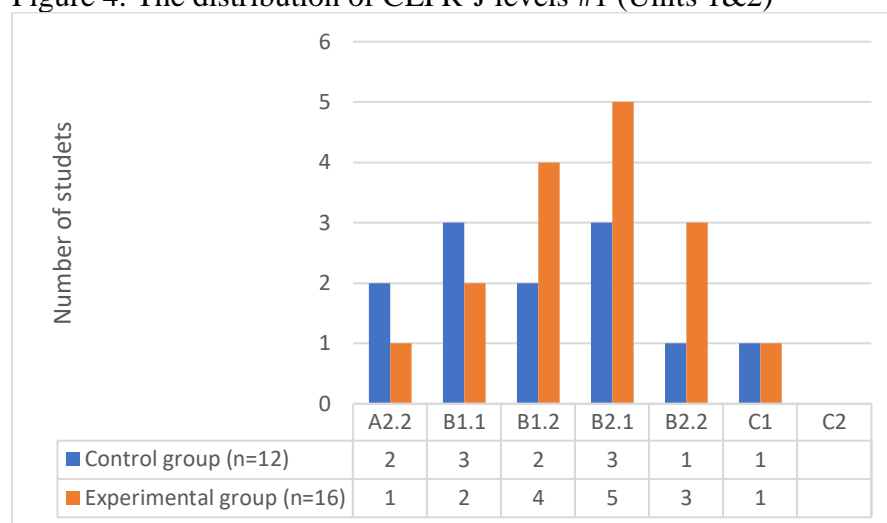
Regarding VperSent, the index for complex sentence structure, a similar pattern was observed. The experimental group consistently showed a higher value, and the difference was the largest in the last round. The mean score of the control group was 2.52 and that of the experimental group was 2.93, with the difference being statistically significant ($p<.05$) (see Table 4 below

for details).

As for the AvrDiff, word level index, and BperA, the latter of which shows the ratio of B-level content words to A-level content words, the values were not very different, and in the third round, the score of the control group exceeded that of the experimental group. This negligible difference between the two groups can probably be attributed to the fact that the words originally used in the textbook, such as “productivity,” “fertilizer,” and “nutrient,” which belong to a higher level (CEFR C1 or C2 level), were used in the essays by the students in both groups.

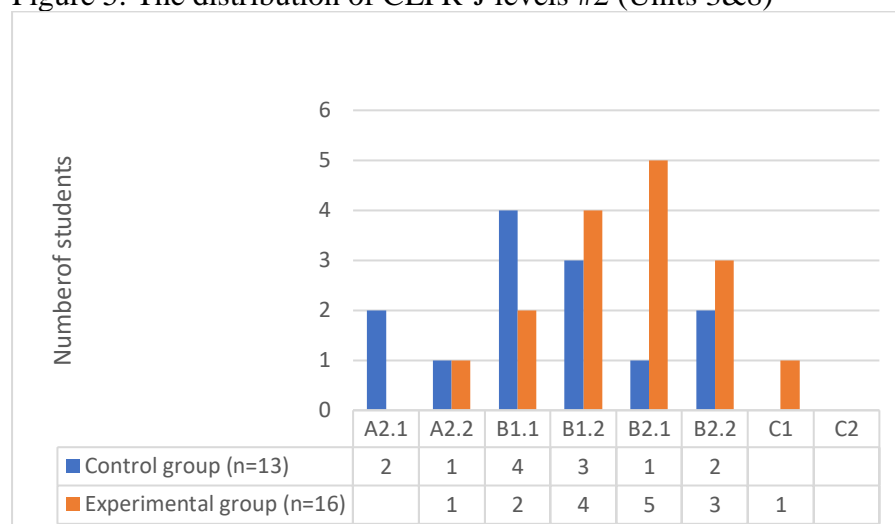
Figures 4 to 6 show the distribution of the estimated CEFR-J levels of the students’ writing outcomes based on these four features in each round.

Figure 4. The distribution of CEFR-J levels #1 (Units 1&2)



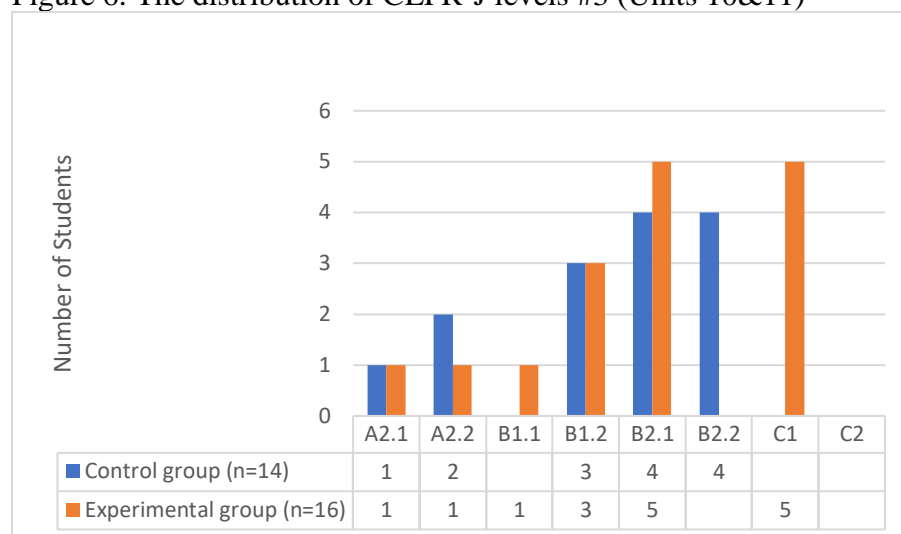
Note. In this round, the number of students in the control group was less than 14, due to the absence of students and other causes.

Figure 5. The distribution of CEFR-J levels #2 (Units 3&8)



Note. In this round, the number of students in the control group was less than 14, due to the absence of students and other causes.

Figure 6. The distribution of CEFR-J levels #3 (Units 10&11)



Looking at the distribution of CEFR-J levels, it seems evident that the experimental group outperformed the control group. In the 1st and 2nd rounds, the total number of students in the control group whose writing level was estimated to be B2.1 and above was 5 (3+1+1) and 3 (1+2), respectively, whereas the equivalent in the experimental group was 9 (5+3+1) in both rounds. In the third round, the gap seemed to be bridged. The number increased to 8 (4+4) in the control group, and the number in the experimental group was 10 (5+5); however, it is worth noting that as many as five of them were estimated to be at the C1-level in the latter.

4.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

Figures 7 and 8 show the results of the questionnaire survey on attitudes toward the use of L1 in class in the control group and the experimental group, respectively.

Figure 7. The questionnaire survey results of the control group (n=14)

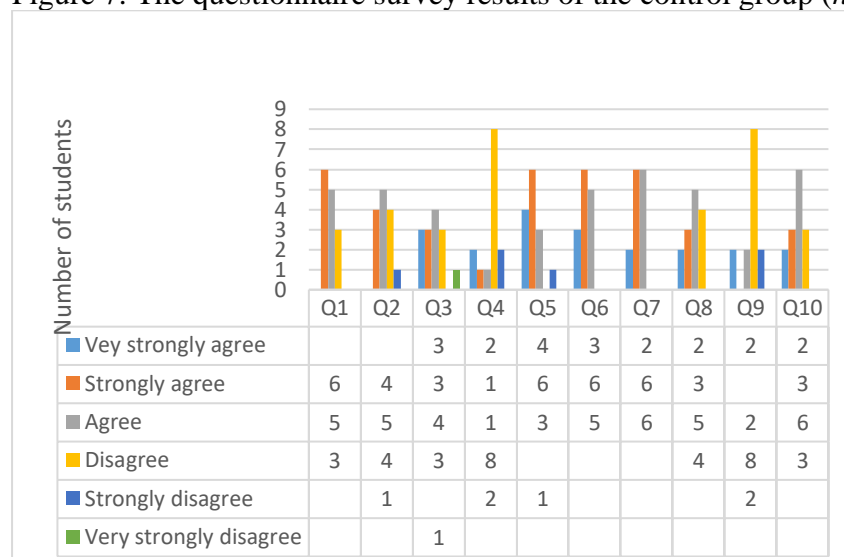
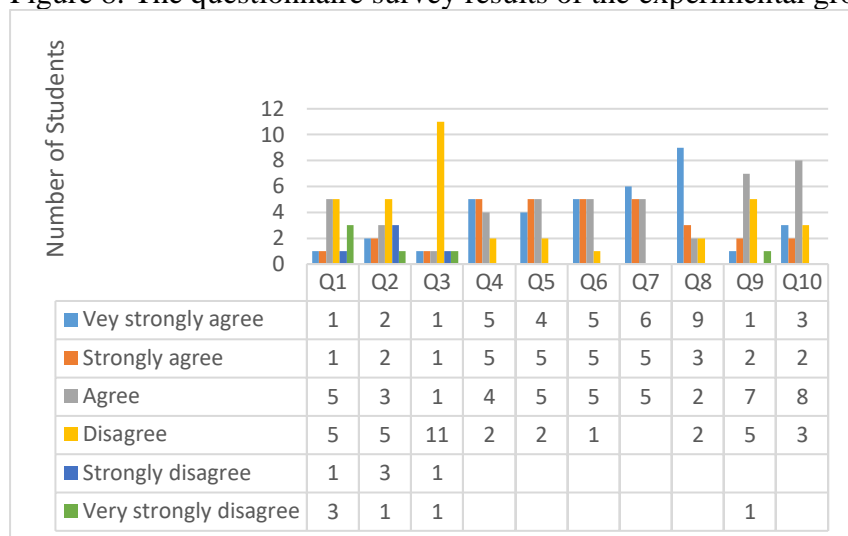


Figure 8. The questionnaire survey results of the experimental group ($n=16$)



Due to space limitations, this paper cannot present the details of the analysis of all the above-mentioned questions (Q1 to 10); only those with distinctive results are provided.

Figures 7 and 8 illustrate the responses of the control group and the experimental group, respectively, with the number of students selecting each alternative. Regarding Q1, “I think students should use only English in class,” 78.6 % (11 out of 14 students) in the control group responded “Strongly agree” or “Agree,” whereas 56.4% (9 out of 16 students) of the students in the experimental group chose “Disagree,” “Strongly disagree,” or “Very strongly disagree,” indicating a stark contrast. The responses to Q3, “When writing a paragraph, I think students should write in English from the beginning,” were even more striking. The total percentage of students who answered either “Very strongly agree,” “Strongly agree,” or “Agree” was 71.4% (10 out of 14 students) in the control group, whereas the experimental group responded in the completely opposite direction: the total percentage of students who answered either “Very strongly disagree,” “Strongly disagree,” or “Disagree” reached 81.4% (13 out of 16 students). As for Q8, “Using L1 helps me think deeply,” only 14.3% (2 out of 14 students) of students in the control group chose “Very strongly agree,” while the percentage students in the experimental group who chose that category was 56.3% (9 out of 16 students). The students’ opinions were also divided regarding “the use of L1 by the teacher (Q9).” Specifically, 85.7% (12 out of 14 students) of students in the control group chose either “Very strongly disagree,” “Strongly disagree” or “Disagree,” whereas 62.5% (10 out of 16 students) of students in the experimental group chose either “Very strongly agree,” “Strongly agree” or “Agree.”

The reflective accounts students provided about the use of L1 (Q11) revealed their perceptions and needs. Some comments made by the students in the control group are as follows (translated from Japanese by the author): “Although L1 should be used when we cannot say the words or how to express what we want to say, it is desirable that we try to use L1 as less frequently as possible”; “If we cannot understand the teacher’s explanation in English, we will get more confused. I think we can understand more deeply if the explanation in L1 is followed by that in English”; “The mother tongue allows us to discuss more deeply.” The following comments are made by the experimental group: “The class should be basically conducted in English, and the use of L1 should be admitted on the condition that it is used infrequently”; “Only when we cannot come up with the right word or get our message across, L1 should be used.” Two students said, “I didn’t want the teacher to explain the meaning of words in English.”

5 Discussion

In this research, to seek to answer Research Question 1, “How does L1 used in preparation for writing a paragraph improve the quality of writing outcomes?” the experimental group received translanguaging as a learning strategy, and the control group received a monolingual approach. The quantitative study showed statistically significant results only in one index of the ARI, and further study is needed to categorically conclude that the use of translanguaging enabled the students to achieve higher levels of writing. A limitation lies in the fact that the CVLA was originally developed to analyze the level of the reading text and show its readability, not to evaluate the quality of writing. It analyzes only certain aspects of the writing, such as, sentence and word lengths, sentence complexity, and vocabulary level. Thus, the study may not be adequate for analyzing in detail all aspects of the students’ writing outcomes. However, it seems practically meaningful in that the CVLA can provide objective numerical data, instead of relying on a teacher’s subjective evaluation based on some kind of rubrics. Likewise, it is worth noting that the distribution of the CEFR-J levels of the writing outcomes of both groups showed a remarkable difference between the two groups: the level of the experimental group was consistently higher than that of the control group.

With regard to Research Question 2, the qualitative study also showed some differences in the students’ attitudes toward the use of L1. The students in the experimental group had stronger belief that the use of L1 helps them think deeply when they make a rough structure of the English essay than the students in the control group. Additionally, their opinions were sharply divided over the instructor’s use of L1. Such striking differences were not expected since the only one variant between these two classes was L1 interventions as a preparation for the essay writing, and everything else including reading, listening, vocabulary explanation, and discussion was taught in the same manner, that is, only in L2 by the same teacher. These results may imply that the teaching method or strategy arbitrarily employed by the teacher could significantly affect the students’ attitudes and ways of thinking; large-scale experimentation is required to elucidate this.

However, overall, both groups seemed to share the opinion about the usefulness of L1 in language class. Regarding the answers to the open-ended question, “Write your thoughts about the use of L1 in class,” there was no distinct difference between the two groups; both groups seemed to agree that the judicious use of L1 is helpful, especially when they have difficulty understanding the meanings of words or coming up with the right words during discussion. The use of L1 should not be forbidden, but rather considered as a helping hand for scaffolding. As one of the students in the control group asserted that “everyone has the right to use Japanese,” translanguaging should be leveraged more as a scaffolding strategy.

6 Conclusions

In this paper, the author compared the experimental group and the control group to seek to find out whether pedagogical translanguaging works effectively as a scaffolding, that is, the writing outcomes of the students in the experimental group would be superior to those produced by the students in the control group. Regarding the first research question on the improvement in the quality of writing outcomes with the use of L1, this research revealed that the students produced better outcomes when L1 was used as a scaffolding, although further research is needed because the study relied on a small sample size.

Regarding the second research question on the students’ perception of translanguaging, the results of the questionnaire suggested that the respondents share the belief that the use of L1 is especially helpful when they have difficulty in understanding higher-level vocabulary and

content. They perceive L1 as a useful learning strategy and one of them even said that they have the right to use it in their learning.

However, several limitations make it difficult to generalize the potential implications of this study. First, the present study is a small-scale study with a limited number of writing samples, and thus caution should be exercised in interpreting the data, while calling for a replication with a larger sample to assess its effectiveness. Additionally, this study focused mainly on the syntactic complexity of writing and did not consider the content or structure; thus, further research including these aspects is required. It is hoped that future research will delve into how the use of L1 in writing can be transferable to the discussion that follows it.

Despite the limitations of this study, it can be humbly said that it demonstrated, to some extent, that the use of L1 can work as a helpful scaffolding when students face a daunting task of understanding content and improving language skills simultaneously in CLIL classes, and that translanguaging can be a useful pedagogical strategy in CLIL classes. It is hoped that the study will contribute to the improvement of CLIL practices. Ascenzi-Moreno and Espinosa (2018) claim that the entire linguistic repertoire that students possess enables them to engage in deep thinking and understand the content with great depth. Rafi and Morgan (2021) claim that leaving multiple semiotic resources for students at the classroom door does not meet students' needs, even though L1 and L2 writings are "strategically, rhetorically and linguistically" different from each other. Cenoz and Gorter (2017) state that it enables multilingual speakers to access the resources they have when faced with a task like writing, and they can develop some competencies across languages and strengthen both content and language by not building hard boundaries between languages. The author would like to conclude the paper with the following quote from Cenoz and Gorter (2017, p. 319), "Translanguaging as a pedagogical tool is still in its infancy but has an exciting and promising future."

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Appendix

Example of Reasons for Agreement Written in Japanese and an English Essay by a Student in the Experimental Group.

Reason1: 遺伝子組み換えものを作ることで食料の収穫量を増やすことができるので、日本産の食料が国内や国外の市場に多く出回るようになり、日本の農作物の輸出額が増える。

Reason2: 病気や害虫に強い作物が育てられるので農薬を使わない食料を食べることができる。

Reason3: 輸入が出来なくなったとしても、国内で遺伝子組み換え食品を作っていると、それで需要を少しでもまかなうことができる。

I agree with the opinion that Japan should grow GMO crops. First of all, Japan has a low food self-sufficiency, but if the country start cultivating genetically modified crops, the yield of the crops will increase. This will have the export value of Japanese agricultural products go up because many crops can be exported. Moreover, people can eat foods that do not use pesticides because they grow crops that are resistant to diseases and pests. Finally, even [sic] if it becomes impossible to import foods, people can meet the demand as much as possible if they make GMO crops domestically [sic]. Therefore, growing GMO crops [sic] gives our society [sic] to various profits, for example, covering the domestic demand of crops, and contributing to the production of pesticide-free foods. I think Japan should start growing GMO crops and increase the self-sufficiency.

Choice, Creativity, and Contingency: CLIL at the Tertiary Level of Education in Japan

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Abstract

As part of a reactive response to the challenges Japan is facing, globalization mandates that university students need not only be able to communicate in English, but they also need to be able to collaborate across cultures in their field of expertise (METI, 2010). This implies there needs to be English education at the tertiary level of education that prepares learners to engage in their careers at a global level. In this paper, the author will conceptualize an approach to this education in Japan using CLIL as the underpinning pedagogy, yet attempting to shift Japan away from the Soft CLIL approach. Using a competence-based approach based on a weakly framed and weakly classified syllabus (Bernstein, 2000), the learners are given agency in choice, creativity, and contingency (Leung & Morton, 2016) to develop their understanding of the content and language through interaction. The focus, therefore, is not on the language nor the content, but on the integration of the two, placing more emphasis on the emerging interaction and intersubjectivity between the learners (Wertsch, 1985) and their understanding of the content through knowledge building (Berietter & Scardamalia, 2014). This also implies that the role of the educator will change and the role of the community will become paramount.

Keywords: cognitive discourse functions, intersubjectivity, competence-based, knowledge-building, tertiary education

1. Introduction

Japan's history with English language education has been turbulent (Fujimoto-Adamson 2006; Tsuchiya, 2019), yet, in this postmodern world, language education continues to be in turmoil, particularly through the forces of globalization (Coyle et al., 2010). English is increasingly becoming the language of the globalizing economies. Hence, regarding language learning, the classroom, particularly with the methodologies used by teachers, can determine the successes or failures of any nation's citizens (Marsh, 2006).

Categorization of competencies in language teaching has been propounded by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR) (2020). The CEFR lists general competencies related to knowledge, skills and know-how, existential competence, and the ability to learn. Bereiter (2002) also identified a shift from a post-industrial society to a knowledge society which has, in turn, shifted the views of education for the twenty-first century to one where personal qualities need to be cultivated. These qualities included: planning and creativity, working in groups, communication, information-finding skills, technological literacy, and problem-solving skills. Pérez-Cañado (2013) indicated as well that the TUNING Project in Europe (2007) is the most influential taxonomy of competencies in higher education in Europe, and they list their generic type competencies as a) instrumental competencies, b) interpersonal competencies, and c) systemic competencies. Since 1995, educational systems worldwide have adopted forms of content and language integration and English as a medium of instruction to some degree, with swift adoption of this educational approach across Europe in 2000 (Marsh, 2006).

Despite these changes happening in other parts of the world, the continuing turmoil in Japan's English language education has only exacerbated its economic problems. In response, in 2010,

Rakuten, an online retailer, announced that English would be the official language of this predominantly Japanese company, citing that the language barrier between Japanese and speakers of other languages prevents companies from being competitive in the global marketplace (Wakabayashi, 2012). Also, in 2010, the Japanese Ministry of Economy, Trade, and Industry (METI) released a report which outlined the economic downturn of Japan and the fact that once-dominant Japanese made products were now being overshadowed by foreign-made products, and young Japanese graduates were tending to stay and work in Japan. The biggest problem for overseas business development was identified as the lack of training of 'Human Resources' (METI, 2010). In the report, the METI mandated universities to develop syllabi to create 'Global Human Resources', namely graduates who could use English as a language to communicate to engage in business and research overseas. The abilities required to become a Global Human Resource were listed as:

1. Fundamental competencies for working persons, including the ability to take action and work with others, abilities to plan and create, and be able to work in a team to achieve a goal.
2. Communication ability in a foreign language (particularly in English)
3. Ability to understand different cultures and be able to take actions while being aware of differences in values and communication methods based on diversified backgrounds and histories. (2010, *ibid.*, p7)

Other events in Japan in recent years (Katsumura, 2011; METI, 2016; MEXT, 2014) aimed to make Japan once again a competitive player in the global economy. However, Japan is an insular nation, and English is not an official language. Also, Japan's English education history had developed such that learning to communicate in English or other languages is not deemed a priority.

2. English education in Japan

Over the last 100 years, there have been disagreements in Japan between learning English through *yakudoku*, i.e., grammar-translation or through a more communicative approach (Fujimoto-Adamson, 2006; Green, 2016; Nishino & Watanabe 2008; Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). The issues within the English education system seemingly direct their attention to the various methodologies and approaches of learning and teaching English. Grammar translation is taught by introducing grammar rules with accompanying word lists and translation exercises (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). This does not foster communication skills for learners, nor does it intend to, since the objective of the lessons is to prepare the learners for high-stakes university entrance exams (Green, 2016; Nishino & Watanabe, 2008; O'Donnell, 2005), and these test students' knowledge of the grammatical structures of the language and vocabulary (Ishikawa & Otaki, 2021; Iwamoto & Kramer, 2020), not communication abilities. There is also a perceived fallacy of traditional grammar instruction, in that grammar must be learned prior to the language being used in conversation (Bereiter, 2002). Throughout junior and senior high school English language education in Japan, English is taught as a subject in itself. Indeed, there is very little evidence of it being used as a medium of instruction to teach content subjects (i.e., maths, history, biology).

Nevertheless, even at the university level, faculty continue grammar-translation methods of instruction, or in a final effort to introduce conversation strategies (Tidmarsh & Kurihara, 2018), instructors use ready-made daily-conversation textbooks that are not pertinent to learners' careers post-graduation. There is the possibility that the grammar points taught in these textbooks in university have already been learned by the students in their junior and senior high school English language classes, making the material redundant. Still, these conversation

textbooks provide busy teachers with ready-made materials. Although these textbooks have benefits for helping learners become engaged with daily conversation topics such as discussing weekend activities or favorite foods (see Richards, 2012), these topics, while useful for everyday conversation, have no relevance to the career of an applied chemist and do not emphasize a global outlook.

There are additional issues at play at the university level of English education. Once Japanese students pass the challenging competitive university entrance exams, they lose their motivation for studying. Landsberry's (2018) study shows that 89.9% of the students reported that they studied less after being accepted. For Japanese high school students, the main focus for learning English is to pass the high-stakes university exams. Still, upon matriculation, even the highly motivated students do the minimum to pass their English language courses (Landsberry, 2018). In Landsberry's study of learning methods used by public university learners (N = 327), the majority of them studied in class (61.4%), while less than 15% actually took notes. Only 3% of the students talked to or asked the teacher questions. Only 4.7% did extra homework outside the classroom, and 38.9% did the assigned homework (Landsberry, 2018, p. 155).

Also, despite the METI's emphasis on globalization, the emphasis on grammar and studying, the various changes in globalization policies, and English education policies, Japan has consistently low in Asia in scores for the TOEFL iBT test (Educational Testing Service (ETS), 2011). The most current report from 2019 shows that out of the 29 countries' scores listed from Asia, Japan ranked 27th ahead of Laos and Tajikistan (Educational Testing Service (ETS), 2020). In addition, Japanese learners have low perceived abilities, resulting in fewer students wanting to go abroad (Burden, 2020; METI, 2010).

Hino (1988) stated that teachers are aware that English needs to be learned as a means of communication, but the practice of teaching English through grammar is accepted as tradition, and the longer the tradition, the more difficult it is to make a change. Saying that, there have been positive changes in Japan's English education system, yet *yakudoku* and grammar studies are very much ubiquitous in Japan's context with a strong focus on vocabulary (see Ishikawa & Otaki, 2021; Iwamoto & Kramer, 2020), and there are several reasons that educational overhaul does not happen (Clavel, 2014). High-stakes exams continue to be prominent and traditional teacher-centered, grammar-focused classrooms are still ubiquitous (Green 2016). Yet, as Vygotsky stated, "It is not necessary to teach the irregular verbs as if they were the center of the intellectual universe" (1997, p. 341).

Prior to reaching university, students have acquired a significant amount of vocabulary knowledge. Research indicates that junior high school learners at the end of the third year have an average vocabulary size of just over 1,000 words (Sato, 2017). At the high school level, learners, again, are exposed to three years of English language learning and are required to learn a considerable volume of grammar and vocabulary to pass the high-stakes university exams. A study of the vocabulary in junior and senior high school textbooks revealed that learners are exposed to approximately 3,000 words by the end of high school (Chujo, 2004), or 1,200 words in junior high school and 1,800 words in high school, to prepare for the National Center Test (Iwamoto & Kramer, 2020). Indeed, students entering university do not come "as empty vessels" (Engestrom, 1991, p. 254).

Using the learners' histories of English language learning, CLIL is an alternative that creates opportunities to use a foreign language for authentic communication (Dalton-Puffer, 2007), especially at the tertiary level of education.

3. Problems with Soft CLIL in Japan

CLIL is still in the emerging stages in Japan (Ikeda et al., 2013). With the many faces of CLIL (Mehisto et al., 2008), CLIL is an umbrella term covering educational approaches ranging from immersion and bilingual education to enriched language programs, designed to be a solution that emerges from the classroom to solve the economic issues that Japan continues to face. There is evidence of a growing grassroots movement to bring CLIL into the classroom, evident through the emerging literature (see Tsuchiya & Perez-Murillo, 2019; deBoer & Leontjev, 2020, Ikeda et al., 2021), to name a few. There are also reports of CLIL being used in tertiary education (Uemura et al., 2019; deBoer, 2020; Kunschak, 2020; Nanni & Hale, 2020) beginning to emerge. The J-CLIL community (J-CLIL.co.jp), well established with over 400 members, has also had an impact on developing the grassroots community for CLIL education in Japan. This is certainly ideal, as grassroots initiatives at parental and teacher levels were also instrumental in the European context (Dalton-Puffer et al., 2014).

In terms of the degree of content versus the degree of language, the integration of content and language has been perceived over a continuum ranging from a Soft CLIL to Hard CLIL. Soft CLIL is used to describe the language objectives that a language teacher brings to the subject classroom, whereas Hard CLIL refers to the subject-based objectives (Ball et al., 2015). However, while this continuum can be useful for understanding the integration of content and language at a very superficial level, it does not take into account the dynamics of the classroom, and it assumes that there is a fixed integration depending on the context. Therefore, as will be argued, these labels such as Soft CLIL and Hard CLIL, while indicating the extent of the content or language orientation, suggests that one is more important than the other, rather than focusing on how the *integrated* content and language learning can be developed based on the context (Coyle & Meyer, 2021).

Ikeda et al. (2013) specify that without reforming the English language education system, Japan's technological supremacy and ability to be a contender in the international business market would continue to decline. This was also the view of the METI (2010) in their research on the need to create more global human resources through reforming language education. Implementing CLIL is a reactive response to this crisis it faces in the global markets (Coyle et al., 2010).

In their recent volume, Ikeda et al. (2021) provide a comprehensive account of Soft CLIL as “a potentially powerful way to overcome many of the issues which have plagued Japan's foreign language education over the decades” (p. 192). Their volume is timely as it provides a solid background on Soft CLIL and its implementation in Japan, considering the issues that have caused English education in Japan to be stagnant. Indeed, as Ikeda et al. (2021) state, for an EFL context such as Japan, where English proficiency is essential, the language is treated as a subject, and there is little opportunity for it to be used outside the classroom, Soft CLIL better suited.

While Soft CLIL has gradually become more prevalent (Ball et al., 2015), English as a foreign language (EFL) lies outside of the Soft CLIL end of the continuum “as it does not perceive integration of content and language as a goal” (p. 13). However, Saito (2020) and Ikeda et al. (2021) do build the argument for the value of integrating content with language in their contexts, which are essentially EFL with some emphasis on content.

An example shown in a junior high school classroom in Japan (Saito, 2020) indicated on the teacher's reflection sheet as the learners giving “convincing opinions with reasons and

examples” and giving “short explanations” (p. 179), in which there is an example of the teacher mediating the student’s performance through their explanation of fair trade. In Spain, Basse and Peña (2020) also illustrate in their primary school research how the teachers’ strategies provide learners opportunities to increase their spoken production, giving opportunities to the teacher to assess their linguistic abilities and promote learner autonomy. The dialogue also shows the teacher’s efforts to link the everyday language with the academic language to encourage a fuller understanding of the content. In an example of the development of a course (Uemura et al., 2019), there are initial elements of teacher-centered instruction; to teach the learners about the departments in a typical manufacturing company, and the teachers identified this as a Soft CLIL approach, with teacher-centered instruction of vocabulary terms. The authors stated explicitly that this course was designed not to teach engineering but to develop students’ English skills.

The focus on the term Soft CLIL has seemed to have provided the stakeholders in the Japanese English language education field a way to label their efforts (see Uemura et al., 2019; Ikeda et al., 2021). Sasajima indicates clearly that Soft CLIL fits the Japanese context, primarily “since such language-focused CLIL pedagogy matched the needs in the current curriculum which aims at integrated language learning in Japan” (2019, p. 296).

The issue with CLIL in the Japanese context is the danger that it is being adapted to fit the Japanese educational approaches rather than being adopted as a content and language integrated construct. In other words, as will be argued in this paper, Japan needs to take heed when adopting CLIL to ensure that they embrace CLIL for change in pedagogical practices centered around the CLIL principles. The issue seems to lie with the conceptualization of CLIL and how there is a perceived need to advocate Soft CLIL rather than examining the integration of content and language at a higher level of abstraction.

While there is merit in this Soft CLIL approach in Japan, I would suggest an alternative way of implementing CLIL, as it would embrace the CLIL principles and take a more integrated approach. In the following section, I will discuss integration from a different perspective and examine the function of the language in CLIL, namely cognitive discourse functions.

4. The cognitive discourse functions

Cognitive discourse functions (CDFs) are identifiable functions of language through which learners externalize their cognitive processes using subject-specific facts or concepts, for example, while co-creating knowledge (Dalton-Puffer, 2013). Learning cannot be observed directly, so CDFs can be conceptualized as an interface between content and language or between thinking and language (Meyer et al., 2015). Although cognition is not visible, CDFs are visible and can be observed in classroom discourse (Dalton-Puffer, 2013). In Dalton-Puffer’s search of the literature, she recognized that Bloom et al.’s taxonomy (1956) has been very influential in test design and curriculum development, but she opted away from the essentialist ranking, i.e., *applying* is cognitively more demanding than *remembering*. Although Anderson et al.’s revised edition (2001) had been restructured, the cognitive process dimension (remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating, creating) did not include anything where learners would actively do something with their knowledge. (Dalton-Puffer, 2013). The final construct that Dalton-Puffer created (see Table 1) is a list of academic functions that represent ways that students demonstrate content knowledge.

This construct of CDFs stemmed from the need to make learners’ subject-specific thought processes intersubjectively accessible” (Dalton-Puffer, 2013, p. 230), and learners are required

to communicate about concepts, content, or facts (Dalton-Puffer, 2013). In other words, CDFs are an externalization of the thought processes, making their learning intersubjectively available so learners can jointly construct new meanings and knowledge. Intersubjectivity exists when learners make their own unique understandings ‘intermentally’ available through communication (Wertsch, 1985).

Table 1. The construct of CDFs. Adapted from Dalton-Puffer (2016, pp. 31-32).

Communicative Intention	Type	Members
I tell you how we can cut up the world according to certain ideas	classify	<i>classify, compare, contrast, exemplify, match, structure, categorize, subsume</i>
I tell you about the extension of this object of specialist knowledge	define	<i>define, identify, characterize</i>
I tell you the details of what I can see (also metaphorically)	describe	<i>describe, label, identify, name, specify</i>
I tell you what my position is vis a vis X	evaluate	<i>evaluate, argue, judge, take a stance, critique, comment, reflect, justify</i>
I tell you about the causes or motives of X	explain	<i>explain, reason, express cause/effect, deduce, draw conclusions</i>
I tell you something that is potential (i.e., non-factual)	explore	<i>explore, hypothesize, predict, speculate, guess, estimate, simulate</i>
I tell you something external to our immediate context on which I have a legitimate knowledge claim	report	<i>report, inform, summarize, recount, narrate, present, relate</i>

In subsequent research, Dalton-Puffer et al. (2018) did a study on several CLIL classrooms in Austria as steps toward an empirical validation of the CDF construct. Observed in their research was that in all subject areas, CDF types were evident, albeit performed by the teacher or co-constructed between the teacher and the students, yet students rarely produced CDFs on their own (ibid.). Morton (2020) conceptualized CDFs as a way to understand learner performance. He used texts from different learners to illustrate that a learner with a lower language proficiency was able to express different CDFs based on the requirements of the task, more than the more language proficient peer. From this research, Morton argued against focusing on the assessment of the language only (ibid.).

CDFs offer insight into understanding learner performance, through the integration of content and language and as an interface between content and language, or thinking and language (Meyer et al., 2015) and how the development of each influences the other. Leung and Morton (2016) conceptualized the integration of content and language through understanding how they are used in the classroom, how the lessons unfold, and finally, through the role of the learner in the classroom. I will use their conceptualization of integration of content and language as a means to propose an alternative way of implementing CLIL in Japan.

First, Leung and Morton (2016) draw on two concepts from Bernstein (2000), namely ‘performance’ and ‘competence’. These two terms are to do with the instruction. Bernstein indicated that a competence approach to learning is one in which the natural abilities of the learner are fostered, building on the learner’s current abilities and developing those further. On the other hand, a performance orientation requires the learner to perform pre-specified knowledge and skills-based upon an inventory of standards (Leung & Morton, 2016).

4.1 Classification and framing

For the learners to demonstrate this knowledge, there needs to be a well-defined and structured

syllabus, namely, strong classification and strong framing (Leung & Morton, 2016). Classification refers to the school subject, or how each subject is made distinct or separated out from the other subjects. Framing refers to the way that the content is unfolded for the learner throughout the course, through various stages of acquisition. These terms classification and framing are related to the terms competence and performance. For example, a pedagogy that is strongly classified and framed is more likely to be performance-oriented. In contrast, a weakly classified and framed pedagogy would be more likely to be competence-oriented.

Bernstein (2000) uses the terms visible and invisible pedagogy to refer to how these orientations can be understood. A visible pedagogy is performance-oriented and has a strong classification and framing, whereas an invisible pedagogy is weakly classified and framed and builds upon the competencies of learners. Drawing from these sets of concepts from Bernstein (2000), Leung and Morton (2016) conceptualized integration of content and language, developed through the ConCLIL project (<http://conclil.jyu.fi/>) (Nikula et al., 2016; Leung & Morton, 2016), based on two specific areas: the visibility of the language pedagogy and the disciplinary orientation to language.

4.2 Visible language pedagogy and disciplinary orientation to language

A more visible language pedagogy and a higher disciplinary orientation to language would imply a focus on subject literacies. In other words, the language competence required is closely tied to the meaning of the content. To learn a specific subject, there would need to be very explicit references to the knowledge required. Also, there should be very clear descriptions of the language acquisition and have clear stages for the process of this acquisition. The language used to discuss content here, as in an example of a history lesson, would be specific so that learners could discuss historical events without distorting the meaning (Leung & Morton, 2016).

A less visible language pedagogy and a higher disciplinary orientation to language would imply that the language would be required to participate in the understanding of the content (Leung & Morton, 2016). This implies a strong focus on the discipline-specific concepts and less focus on the language that is to be integrated.

A more visible language pedagogy and a lower disciplinary orientation to language is a conceptualization of content and language in an area that might be more recognized in a Japanese context, mainly because the focus is primarily on the language. In fact, there could be a strong classification in that the language is distinguishable from the content, but the content will lack strong framing.

A less visible language pedagogy and a lower disciplinary orientation to language is where there is a weak classification in that a) there is no specific classification of subjects or language nor is there any particular language that is preselected for linguistic focus, and b) there is no specific content that is preselected. There is also no specific framing that structures the focus around specific items to be learned; therefore, there is no specific progress through stages envisaged (Leung & Morton, 2016). In this quadrant, there are more ‘centrifugal’ tendencies in the language (Bakhtin, 1981), where learners can exercise more agency in the ways they can build on their linguistic proficiency (Leung & Morton, 2016). In other words, this represents a more ‘invisible’ pedagogy, in that through dialogic inquiry in teacher-learner or learner-learner interaction, conditions for learners’ communicative repertoires will grow (Leung & Morton, 2016). As learners successfully (co-)construct understanding, they can move from the academic language to the everyday language and vice-versa (Meyer et al., 2015). The use of the everyday language assists the learners in building their conceptual understanding, as demonstrated in the

research by Leontjev and deBoer (2020a). Morton and Jakonen (2016) also demonstrate that meaning-making is multilingual and multimodal involving group participation.

There are disagreements within the CLIL community, specifically with reference to Leung and Morton's matrix (2016). Coyle and Meyer (2021) caution that these types of frameworks should not be misinterpreted in terms of what is good or otherwise, yet they acknowledge that Leung and Morton's (2016) matrix is a useful planning heuristic for developing integration. Alternatively, Leontjev and deBoer (2020b) perceive the matrix as a lens to understand what is happening in the classroom in terms of the integration of content and language.

Saying that, a mind shift is necessary if Japan is to be able to embrace CLIL. Van Lier (2008) points out that language is not the only constituent of the meaning-making process, as the surrounding environment also plays a constitutive part. Meyer et al. (2015) point out that the foreign language teachers around the globe may have been influential in their conceptualization of the role of language in content teaching in CLIL. This is exemplified by the push for Soft CLIL in Japan (see Ikeda et al., 2021). Mohan et al. (2010) note that the difficulty with the L2 community is that they have difficulty in understanding how content fits in with their theory of language to which Meyer et al. (2015, p. 45) state that Mohan et al.'s statement points to the heart of the matter, that there is "the absence of a conceptualisation of the role of language and its relation to conceptual development, knowledge construction and meaning-making".

Indeed, Lin (2016) uses the term 'intercurricular disconnect' to describe the lack of coordination between the content subject curricula and the curricula of the languages. What is learned in the language classrooms does not necessarily provide the learners with the ability to transition between everyday and specialized languages. Cummins (1999) makes the argument clear that it is not appropriate to have minimal English literacy instruction, such as may be found in Japan's junior high school classrooms, but then enter an all-English content classroom with no support for language learning. Students require a strong English literacy program in the early grades (ibid.). Interestingly, Ikeda et al. (2021, p. 90) state rather explicitly that BICS are "by definition, not primarily used for the discussion and transmission of academic content". However, as Dalton-Puffer argues (2016), participation in CLIL classrooms is where learners are socialized into academic discourse, and the role of the teacher is to make the learning objects' intersubjectively accessible' through mediation, including the use of both BICS and CALP.

Saying that, and congruent with Meyer et al.'s thinking (2015), it is not the division between BICS and CALP, but rather how the language relates to the situation, context, and purpose—that is the socialization into academic discourse—that I argue a less visible language pedagogy and a lower disciplinary orientation to language should be developed as an alternative approach to Soft CLIL in tertiary education in Japan. For this approach to be adopted, the roles of the teacher and the learners need to change.

5. The role of the teachers in the university setting

To begin, Dale and Tanner (2012) define the content-oriented subject lessons such as math or geography as taught by CLIL subject teachers and language-oriented language lessons as taught by CLIL language teachers. Airey (2016) indicated three possible ways to implement CLIL from the perspective of the teachers involved. One option is for the language teacher to teach both the content and language, which is not a viable option as the content at the tertiary level of education is too specialized for the language teacher. A second option is for team-teaching to occur with the content teachers teaching alongside the language teachers, which

through collaboration, Lo (2020) has shown to be promising. The third option is that the language teachers and the content teachers share the teaching responsibilities. Due to financial constraints, these last two options are not viable long-term options (Airey, 2016).

What I propose is a fourth way not explored by Airey, which is building a syllabus that does not focus on the explicit *teaching* of language and content, i.e., has a less visible language pedagogy and a lower disciplinary orientation to language as discussed with reference to the matrix by Leung and Morton (2016). The orientation to CLIL would focus on choice, creativity, and contingency. This implies that there is a focus on the co-construction of knowledge and the development of language with the instructor preparing a starting point for learners to work from, fostering their ability to acquire knowledge and use it (Vygotsky, 1997). This puts the onus on the learners to research in groups on specific concepts or issues and gives the learners agency. Leontjev and deBoer (2020a) demonstrated this, showing that learners, through collaboration, can use the language they know to begin and understand concepts, building towards using academic language to discuss those same concepts. Wells (1999, p. 112) has also argued that as teachers, we need to “trust in students’ ability to take an active role in their own learning”, essential for collaborative knowledge building. The role of the teacher could oscillate between sage on the stage and guide on the side, as King (1993) argues, essentially assisting the learners with the content and language they need when they need it. The CDFs become a heuristic tool for the teacher to help guide the learners in their integration of content and language (see deBoer, 2020). For example, when guiding learners, the instructor can ask them to explain, or describe, or evaluate something, as a means to assess their current level of understanding. The learners’ responses provide the teacher with valuable information whether the concepts are understood, and the language that is used in explaining, describing, or evaluating those concepts (see also Morton, 2020).

In implementing a Soft CLIL approach to their engineering classes, Uemura et al. (2019) indicate that outside faculty were invited to participate and build a more collaborative relationship between content and language faculty during a workshop. In addition, they worked with additional content faculty to foster partnerships as these kinds of classes are easily implemented with the collaboration between the language specialist and the subject faculty (ibid.). Different approaches emerged from the development of an ICT Platform (deBoer et al., 2012) that was shared and expanded between faculties but focused on teaching content through English. One approach was to invite various faculty to enter the General English language courses and give sample lectures, and learners were free to leave the classroom during the lesson to gather information from professors on campus (de Boer, 2017). Drawing a comparison of the METI mandates with specific benchmarks of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR, 2001), stemming from the general competencies (2001), deBoer (2017) indicated that learners gained such abilities as e-mailing companies and learning to gather information from professors (both on campus and in other universities). Learners were given more agency to develop their own educational needs by using the community of the university faculty for information and guidance, which meant leaving the classroom during class time if needed. The classroom was used to meet and focus on specific tasks to collaborate with their group members, and classroom time was for face-to-face discussions on their group projects and for consultations with other groups (deBoer, 2020; see also Leontjev & deBoer, 2020a).

Llinares, Morton, and Whittaker’s studies (2012) also show learners participating using dialogue that would typically be controlled by the teacher. In tasks that encouraged learners to participate through self-initiated interactions, they found a positive difference in the amount

and functional variety of the language produced compared with other learners. They acknowledge that group work in CLIL should be more frequent to allow learners to practice more social aspects of the language.

6. Knowledge building and the role of learners

The theoretical framework for invoking change in the understanding of CLIL in terms of the integration of content and language is the theory of knowledge-building (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 2003; 2014; Scardamalia & Bereiter, 2014). This theory of knowledge-building is rooted in the epistemological socio-constructivist paradigm, and through individual learning as a by-product, the focus is on the advancement of knowledge (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 2014). As a collaborative group, learners are given agency to advance their knowledge through conceptualizing the issue, setting goals, monitoring their progress, and following new and unexpected courses (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 2014). Knowledge building should advance the current understanding of individuals beyond their initial knowledge level and should foster learners' understanding of the topic. Elkonin (1998, p. 300) uses the train metaphor of various speeds of a train along a track as efficiency of learning. However, as Lantolf and Poehner (2004) state, it is more important to assist the learner in laying down new track towards a location that has the potential to change.

Scardamalia (2002) outlines twelve principles of knowledge building, from which I will use to outline learners' roles as a collaborative group, based on the conceptualization of a less visible language pedagogy and a lower disciplinary orientation to language syllabus. First, based on the initial prompt provided by the teacher, learners have the agency to bring in their own ideas, and all become legitimate contributors during the process of learners' discussions. These ideas create new artifacts or 'improvable objects' (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1996), which can take many forms, such as creating a model, a presentation or speech, or a report (Wells, 1999). The improvable object goes through an indeterminate number of improved iterations until complete. All learners' ideas are all treated as improvable, but most importantly, all learners are legitimate contributors towards the goals established by the learners. The teacher is available to guide through this process, as Leontjev and deBoer (2020a) illustrated when the learners went through the process of creating a PowerPoint presentation. Through the learners' knowledge exchange, the discourse they use can also refine the knowledge, both through the constructive use of authoritative sources inside and outside the classroom and through their own understanding of the world. The discourse, as Meyer et al. (2015) argue (see, also Dalton-Puffer, 2016), is through the language of their current level of proficiency, with the intent to develop that further through the discussion of concepts and with the intention of attaining higher levels of intersubjectivity (see Wertsch, 1985). The purpose is to promote idea improvement and knowledge building as "*connecting* content and language learning is not enough for deep learning" (Meyer et al., 2015, p. 53).

The goal is that the learners become more autonomous through this process. The collaboration through these types of activities helps them foster their abilities, such as those outlined by the METI (2010).

7. Conclusion

In this paper, I have attempted to show how languages are taught and learned in Japan and illustrate how Japan has begun to adopt CLIL. Soft CLIL does have a place in Japan's classrooms, and this Soft CLIL approach assists learners, teachers, and practitioners in developing their understanding of the concepts of CLIL. CLIL has begun permeating classrooms through the current grassroots approach and is slowly catching on. What differs

between the CLIL approaches in the European versus the Japanese context is primarily that CLIL has entered via the language learning classrooms in Japan, not the content classrooms. The onus has been placed on the language teachers to develop an understanding of the CLIL concepts, namely, beginning with the 4Cs and the language triptych (Coyle et al., 2010).

What I have proposed, as an integrated approach in CLIL offers, is a way to shift the language education system that has troubled Japan for over 100 years. This dichotomy of hard versus soft CLIL approach has teetered the adoption of CLIL in Japan closer towards EFL rather than a true integration of content and language as CLIL offers. Through knowledge-building principles and the role of the teacher becomes one of both ‘sage on the stage’ and ‘guide on the side’ (King, 1993), teachers can adopt a competence-based approach guiding the learners as they develop their understanding of concepts. Cognitive discourse functions offer means to assess learners’ externalization of their cognitive processes when making their knowledge intersubjectively accessible. The classroom becomes a cognitively rich learning environment and motivates activities for content learning (Leung & Morton, 2016).

The context for the adoption of CLIL at the tertiary level of education depends on institutional constraints; however, it also depends on the instructor and the syllabus that the instructor builds to move away from the concept of Soft CLIL, to one where the classroom becomes a “mosaic of different pedagogies and learning practices” (Leung & Morton, 2016, p. 248). This may help Japan shift from its current approach to language education away from the grammar book. As van Lier (2004, p. 108) so eloquently stated, “the grammar book is about the dissection of linguistic cadavers. Dead bones (sentences) are piled up, sequenced, labeled and catalogued, like in a paleontological museum”.

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