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Foreword

Isn’t it Necessary to Develop CLIL Pedagogy in Asia?

The Journal of the Japan CLIL Pedagogy Association (JJCLIL) Volume 2 was published in March 2020 in the midst of the novel coronavirus disease (COVID-19) outbreak thanks to the contributions of the authors and the editors. Nobody knows how dangerous this virus is, nobody can see it and many are afraid of fatal infection. However, many scientists and doctors have been trying to find a solution. It is necessary to develop a vaccine for COVID-19.

Can you see CLIL? No, I’m afraid not. However, there is no harm in CLIL, which is surely different from the coronavirus. Do you have a positive perception of CLIL or not? Have you experienced any translanguaging situations around you? Do you expect CLIL to change something within our learning community? I hold the expectation that CLIL has the potential to change our mindset of language learning in the whole of Asia as well as Japan, which has exclusively highlighted English language learning.

In this volume, there are seven articles which are all concerned with CLIL in Japan or its related topics. All the articles are very interesting and unique in terms of CLIL pedagogy and represent how J-CLIL aims to develop outside Europe. The theme at the 2nd J-CLIL Annual Bilingual Conference held in July 2019 was on the *Collaboration of CLIL pedagogy in Asia.* I am sure that the collaboration of CLIL pedagogy in Asia or East Asia has been in demand since the original CLIL was implemented in the European context. However, CLIL outside Europe cannot always follow European CLIL. In Asia, we should consider another type of CLIL or integrated learning, which may be closely related to English language learning or global understanding in different contexts from Europe. J-CLIL tries to develop collaboration with Asian countries as well as CLIL in Europe.

In such situations in Asia, the role of JJCLIL is to help readers understand what kind of CLIL approaches are conducted among CLIL practitioners in Japan and how they interpret CLIL pedagogy within their own contexts. For example, in this JJCLIL vol. 2, there are seven articles you can read. First, the special article ‘Collaboration of CLIL Pedagogy in Asia’ discusses CLIL continuum and EMI (English Medium Instruction) focusing especially on the contexts of Japan and Taiwan. The other six articles are titled as follows: ‘Proposal for CLIL Lessons in Environmental Issues Using ICT Equipment in Elementary and Junior High Schools’ (Hazuki Nakata & Yukiko Ito), ‘Developing Leadership Skills and Language Proficiency in CLIL Lessons through Teaching Experiences in Japan and the U.S’ (Yukiko Abe), ‘Learners’ Beliefs About Target Language Use Only in the CLIL Class’ (Ikuko Ueno),

'A Reflective Practice for Improving Teacher Students' Abilities in Conducting CLIL in Physical Education Classes in an Overseas Teaching Project' (Takayuki Shishido & Kazuko Kashiwagi), 'A Review of the Critical Literature on CLIL and Steps to Move Japan-CLIL Forward' (Brian J. Birdsell), and 'The Potential of CLIL for Heritage Language Learners in the UK: A Case Study of a Japanese Language Supplementary School for Bicultural Bilingual Children' (Barry Kavanagh). As these titles show, several common features can be identified in these articles: e.g. a variety of CLIL activities inside and outside Japan, focusing on English, bilingualism, and other languages along with the knowledge and skills that develop through language learning. In other words, all the articles do not just discuss CLIL approaches but also integrated and intercultural learning by adding some particular situational factors to them. I therefore propose three areas that can be added to our discussion: 1) a CLIL continuum, 2) a bilingual or translanguaging classroom, and 3) pluriliteracies teaching for learning (PTL) (https://pluriliteracies.ecml.at).

Regarding 1) a CLIL continuum, I assume that CLIL in Asia can be equal to or a compatible part of English language learning or EMI. In some cases, for example, CLIL can be ESP (English for Specific purposes) because most learners need support for English language learning when they study a specific field of knowledge and skills which should be closely related to the specific target discourse community. Although English is the dominant language as a communication tool in Asia at the moment, some Asian languages, such as Chinese and Japanese, are also necessary in socioeconomical contexts. CLIL approaches should focus on such plurilingualism and pluriculturalism, in which CLIL needs to be diverse and flexible. If you want to define what CLIL is, then I believe you should think of CLIL as a continuum and understand that CLIL is a process but not a product.

In terms of 2), a bilingual or translanguaging classroom, CLIL can be part of a bilingual or sometimes multilingual approach, but in Japan as well as other Asian countries, the point is, to what extent teachers use English in the classroom or how they use English and Japanese to help their students use the target language in their classroom activities appropriately. If teachers simplify their English use too much along with learning content, and they also use too much Japanese when teaching, it might not be good for their students' study and progress. I wonder whether these learning activities could be called CLIL or not. Bilingual approaches are now basic in CLIL pedagogy, so CLIL is not EMI in this definition. 'In education, translanguaging goes beyond codeswitching and translation because it refers to the process by which bilingual students perform bilingually in the myriad multimodal ways of classrooms' (Garcia, 2017: p.17). In CLIL, it should be important for teachers to try to create a translanguaging situation in the classroom. Translanguaging classrooms are therefore essential in CLIL pedagogy in Asia. However, the problem is, how do we do translanguaging activities and what kind of translanguaging activities can teachers create.

As for 3) pluriliteracies teaching for learning (PTL), on the website of the pluriliteracies approach to teaching for learning at the ECML (European Centre for Modern Languages), pluriliteracies teaching for learning (PTL) is explained as follows:

> PLT shows teachers and materials developers ways of fostering deep learning by paying attention to the development of students' subject specific literacies as well as their conceptual understanding and automatization of subject-specific procedures, skills and strategies. …. PTL not only makes the links between content and language learning visible, but it also shows how teachers can create learning trajectories taking students' current abilities as a starting point, and tracing their progress along the learning pathway.

The concept of PLT is strongly related to deep learning, which is a subset of machine learning and uses a hierarchical level of AI (artificial intelligence) neural networks to carry out the process of machine learning. PLT in CLIL aims to develop subject literacies and transferable skills. PLT is now proposed as necessity for knowledge and skills in the CLIL curriculum, and I agree that it will be targeted in Asia. However, PLT must be applied according to the particular context.

JJCLIL vol.2 includes seven articles and each can clearly show the Japanese reality of CLIL implementation in 2019. As you see, English is still a foreign language in Japan. Most people including me do not have much confidence in writing their thoughts in English, although ELF (English as a Lingua Franca) is gradually accepted in the global world. Here in this journal, we try to disseminate CLIL practices in Japan, hoping many CLIL practitioners can understand what J-CLIL members are thinking, doing and reflecting on when they seek for better CLIL pedagogy. JJCLIL is an open access journal so that many CLIL practitioners can read it and hopefully give feedback to J-CLIL from all over the world.

Here in this foreword, I consider three future agendas: 1) a CLIL continuum, 2) a bilingual or translanguaging classroom, and 3) pluriliteracies teaching for learning (PTL). As J-CLIL aims to 'study and promote practices for the implementation of integrated education called CLIL or CBLT,' I hope more CLIL practitioners will write about their actual practices in this journal. I would like to know a lot more about CLIL pedagogy in Japan and its related areas. If you are interested in CLIL practices, I would like you to join us with our J-CLIL activities. Your actual practices are very important to all CLIL practitioners, so I hope you will write about what you are teaching in your CLIL classrooms. As president of J-CLIL, JJCLIL should focus on CLIL practices or practical reports, which represent how teachers believe, thinkband reflect on their CLIL pedagogy. I am sure it is necessary to develop CLIL pedagogy further in Asia.

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Editorial

We edited this second volume of JJCLIL in the midst of a global emergency due to the COVID19 outbreak. This pandemic has often compared with the spread of the Spanish flu in 1918 at the end of the first world war - or between the two world wars. One might then wonder what the society was like at that time – "What was the landscape of language use in Japan a hundred years ago"?

The Hokkaido Former Aborigine Protection Act (Hokkaido kyudojin ho) was implemented in 1899, and brought relocation, agriculture and schools to Ainu communities. Their lives and language were transformed, and by 1924 school enrollment of Ainu children reached 99% (Howell, 2004). In a similar vein in Okinawa, the Ordinance to Regulate the Dialect (hogen torishimari-rei) was issued in 1907. The Movement for Enforcement of the Normal Language (Futsugo reiko-undo) was promoted through the formal school system. This caused the fatal decline of speakers of other languages in Okinawa (Heinrich, 2004). Thus, *monolingualisation* was prevalent under the pressure to modernize the nation (or nations). Society faced radical changes in social infrastructure, nationalism, recession, uncertainty and anxiety. One might ask again – "Wait a minute, these things sound familiar to us. Are we in the middle of a major social change again? If so, what can we do?" One answer might be CLIL, which provides space for teachers and students to think and perform better in a complex and uncertain global society.

Examples of such practice are compiled in the second volume of JJCLIL. It starts with a featured article, which is a collective proceeding of the plenary lecture and the symposium at the 2nd J-CLIL Annual Bilingual Conference. The featured article is preceded by an introduction by Shigeru Sasajima on the theme of "Collaboration of CLIL pedagogy in Asia", and then begins with Angel Lin and Peichang He's proposal of a CLIL continuum with two poles, a content-driven Programme Learning Goals (PLGs), and language-driven PLGs. This is followed by Wenhsien Yang's informative review of CLIL implementation in Taiwan, where the bilingual policy has recently been implemented. From a perspective of English medium instruction (EMI), the next contribution by Tetsuo Harada, examines the benefit of implicit focus-on-meaning scaffolding for learning content in English at tertiary level in Japan. While, Keiko Tsuchiya posits CLIL in the history of language education in Japan and describes how pedagogic theories/practices are localised. These featured article discussions are then concluded by Makoto Ikeda, who draws on urgent research areas proposed by Dalton-Puffer at her plenary talk at the 2nd J-CLIL West Conference in November 2019.

Six original articles are contributed to this volume. They are categorised into four themes. The first theme of 'CLIL in Practice' consists of practical reports of CLIL lessons. Hazuki

Nakata and Yukiko Ito share the CLIL activities and materials they developed for Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) at elementary and junior high schools. At tertiary level, Yukiko Abe discusses how she implements CLIL-based leadership training sessions. In both of these reports, the use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) is effectively applied.

The next theme focuses on 'Learners and teachers of CLIL.' It begins with Ikuko Ueno's statistical analysis on learners' beliefs towards the exclusive use of the target language in CLIL classrooms at university. While, Takayuki Shishido and Kazuko Kashiwagi report on a collaborative teacher education project with a Finnish university for prospective CLIL teachers of primary physical education.

The next section on 'Contextualising CLIL Programmes in Japan' starts with a paper by Brian Birdsell who proposes a CLIL taxonomy for categorisation of local programmes. The latter part of this article then highlights areas for future CLIL research, e.g., CLIL learners' cognitive processes and English proficiency. The last article by Barry Kavanagh addresses the final theme of this volume on 'CLIL in languages other than English'. The case study explores the potential of CLIL for Japanese as a heritage language through ethnographic research at a supplementary school in the UK.

As seen in this volume, JJCLIL is willing to embrace a broad range of themes from CLIL classroom practice and curriculum design, students and teachers' perceptions of CLIL, CLIL in English and other languages, to CLIL and plurilingualism, pluri/multiliteracies and multimodality. Multilingualism is also within this scope. Coincidentally, just after the publication of this volume, the National Ainu Museum and Park (https://ainu-upopoy.jp/) is due to open this April quietly like the dawn after a long and dark night.

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Featured Article

Collaboration of CLIL pedagogy in Asia

1. Introduction and rationale

Shigeru Sasajima
Toyo Eiwa University

At the 2nd J-CLIL Annual Bilingual Conference held at Waseda University on July 13th, 2019, Angel Lin presented a plenary talk titled ‘Charting Out Programme Options Along the CLIL Continuum’ in the opening session, followed by the plenary symposium on *Collaboration of CLIL pedagogy in Asia* under the conference theme. All the symposiasts there discussed their thoughts and practices of CLIL based on their own expertise, such as the continuum of CLIL and EMI (English Medium Instruction) within Taiwan and Japan. However, there was unfortunately not enough time for discussion among the symposiasts and floor participants due to time constraints of the one-hour session. Had there been time, each speaker might have stressed how CLIL practitioners could collaborate in Asia or spoke of what has happened in terms of CLIL implementation in Asia. This short collection of panel proceedings therefore aims to extend this discussion on CLIL pedagogy in Asia.

In Asia, which is different from the European context, we should reconsider that language education has been generally focused on the national language and early English learning (e.g. Simpson, 2007; Tsui, 2004). However, Asia is the largest and most populous area in the world and has diverse languages as well as cultures, and there are multilingual and multicultural contexts in many Asian countries, whose language policies may be characterized by the national language, bilingual education, and mother tongue-based multilingual education (Kirkpatrick & Liddicoat, 2017). Asian people need to speak several languages to communicate with each other for several reasons, but English is the most important language in the global business world (cf. British Council, 2013). Accordingly, language education needs in Asian countries will be more diverse so that people can move freely and communicate with each other for social, economic and cultural purposes. In such situations, CLIL can possibly be key to meeting the needs for more diverse language education and can have the potential to develop another phase of CLIL methodology and pedagogy appropriate for the Asian context.

As Lin and Harada argued about CLIL continuum in their presentations. There actually exists

a continuum of integrated learning from subject content learning to language learning. That is because CLIL is referred to as a superordinate or umbrella concept and can be dependent on contexts and needs as well. The website called *Onestopenglish*, which is a teacher resource site, part of Macmillan Education, introduces the definition of the term CLIL by David Marsh who coined it in 1994: 'CLIL refers to situations where subjects, or parts of subjects, are taught through a foreign language with dual-focused aims, namely the learning of content and the simultaneous learning of a foreign language.' (http://www.onestopenglish.com /clil/what-is-clil/) This definition was probably the old one and connotated how simple the concept of CLIL was. It meant that CLIL might have had no specific methodology. Phil Ball also says on the website that 'the true nature of CLIL still remains elusive,' but he points out that there are some characteristics of CLIL in Europe: 1. CLIL is a member of the Curriculum Club; 2. CLIL has a dual focus; 3. CLIL buys us time; 4. CLIL causes change - and you don't need to be a genius to benefit from it; and 5. CLIL motivates. Namely, CLIL can just comprise of flexible integrated learning principles even in Europe.

Language education in Asia, however, is more complicated with approximately 2,500 languages being used in different contexts and a variety of cultures, which probably cannot be identified specifically due to the long range-colonization by western countries and Japan. After World War II, many countries became independent from those colonial authorities, but their influence has still remained inherent in their society, culture, economy and language education. Due to continuing conflicts in many countries such as the Philippines, Indonesia, Cambodia and Vietnam, a number of people have not received stable education. Moreover, it has been difficult for minority children to keep their mother tongues because they could not study any subjects through their own languages (cf. Lin & Man, 2009). In many cases, mother-tongue based education has been substantially ignored due to the teaching of the national language and English for the sake of economic, political and social stabilization.

As some Asian countries could afford to take initiatives in managing and improving their status, they gradually came to consider education for children's literacy and numeracy, and moreover began to implement early English learning in primary schools. Most Asian countries have had in their policies that English is a necessary language to survive in the global economic trend. Although some countries such as the Philippines and Singapore have a different context in which English is an official language, bilingual or international schools in urban areas in Asia are rapidly increasing. Accordingly, there are complex language education issues in terms of the national language policy and bilingual education including minority languages and EMI. Kirkpatrick & Liddicoat (2017: p. 28) discuss the language policies in some ASEAN and East Asian countries and conclude that: 'We thus envisage a situation in which the majority are monolingual in the national language and an elite are bilingual in the national language and English becoming the norm for East and Southeast

Asia.’

Whether it is good or not, the English language is actually the primary foreign language in almost all Asian countries and has been a lingua franca even in Asia (Kirkpatrick, 2011). CLIL pedagogy in Asia is now emerging and growing in diverse contexts. As discussed, CLIL and EMI, which are apparently very similar in Asia, are both significantly familiar approaches in bilingual schools, IB diploma courses and international schools. Also, when including other learning approaches or methods concerning integrated learning or cross curricular teaching, now is the time to start to share ideas about CLIL pedagogy with each other and find better ways of CLIL implementation in Asia. In addition, all the educators and teachers who are interested in CLIL pedagogy in Asia will need to collaborate with each other.

J-CLIL has started to find better ways for the collaboration of CLIL pedagogy in Asia since the symposium at the 2019 annual conference. This short collection of panel proceedings examines one of the objectives that J-CLIL is pursuing from now on in addition to the initial attainment target: to study and promote practices for the implementation of integrated education called CLIL or CBLT. Collaboration of CLIL pedagogy in Asia therefore will need to include the following topics that each writer discusses in these proceedings. We hope our discussion will be the first step for CLIL development in Asia.

2. Charting Out Programme Options Along the CLIL Continuum

Angel M. Y. Lin
Simon Fraser University

Peichang He
University of Hong Kong

In many Asian contexts (e.g., Japan, Taiwan, China and Thailand) where very often language teachers are taking up the responsibility of implementing CLIL, the innovative notion of ‘Soft CLIL’ (Ikeda, 2013) has encouraged efforts in indigenizing programme models of CLIL to suit local needs in different Asian contexts. To further build on this valuable effort, We propose the ‘CLIL continuum’ to chart out a range of programme model options for programme planners and education policy makers to design different possible models of CLIL according to their own needs and specificities in different contexts.

2.1 CLIL in Asia: divergent contexts, convergent issues

Although educational contexts in Asia are diversified, one common issue is the continued domination of English due to the interplay of historical, sociopolitical and economic factors

(Tsui, 2004; Lin and Man, 2009). The emergence of English Medium Instruction (EMI) in the education scene in many Asian countries has resulted from not only the history of colonisation under English speaking powers but also the dominant status of English as a lingua franca in the globalised neoliberal market economy (Tupas, 2018). However, recent research about language education policy and practice in East and Southeast Asia concluded that, although the schools of most countries in the region have English education for all students, the quality of the programmes are "low" and the achievements of the majority of students are "limited" with only the students from elite backgrounds achieving high-level English abilities (Kirkpatrick & Liddicoat, 2017). This is echoed by Tupas (2018) who argued that EMI is "problematic" in terms of implementation. Despite the unsatisfactory effects, research on EMI in Asian education should not be neglected as the increase of EMI education around the world is relentless (Macaro, 2015).

EMI is one of the educational approaches under the umbrella term "CLIL" which shares the characteristics of using students' additional language to teach content with the dual aim of achieving both content learning and additional language learning. In recent decades, EMI/CLIL has been the focus of research about language education practices and policies in East Asian countries and regions such as China (e.g., Li & Zhu, 2010), Hong Kong (e.g., Lin, 2016; Lin & Lo, 2018), Japan (e.g., Ikeda, 2013; Kubota, 2002), Korea (e.g., Jeon, Lee & Lee, 2015), and Taiwan (e.g., Yang, 2015), etc. While these studies have enriched the literature, research findings regarding programme planning, curriculum resources, pedagogical strategies and teacher professional development of EMI/CLIL in Asian contexts are still inadequate (Kirkpatrick, 2018; Kirkpatrick & Liddicoat, 2017; Tupas, 2018). Ball, Kelly and Clegg (2015) argued that good practices of CLIL as a methodology can be applied to other contexts across national boundaries; however, such application needs to be conditioned by the national circumstances and adapted according to the situational variables in the particular context. Although a plethora of EMI/CLIL studies have emerged around the world, the typological differences between many Asian languages and English make EMI/CLIL more "problematic" or challenging than it might be in contexts where the local languages are typologically closer to English such as those in European Union (Kirkpatrick, 2018). Therefore, it is crucial for programme developers to indigenize programme models of CLIL to suit the local needs and specificities in different Asian contexts.

2.2 Holistic, flexible and collaborative CLIL programmes for multiple educational contexts

The CLIL continuum

To explore culturally and linguistically compatible programmes for CLIL education in Asia, decisions made during programme planning need to reflect the goals of the curriculum and the particular settings of and beyond the classroom. Due to diverse sociocultural backgrounds, language policies and programme planning in different countries also vary,

and the integration of content and language reflects a broad range of CLIL approaches with different degrees of emphasis given to content or language according to the programme goals. The different CLIL approaches are equally important depending on the specific constraints and resources in different school contexts (Lin, 2016). Met (1998) proposed a model for classifying various approaches to integrating language and content along a continuum (Figure 1).

Content-driven					Language-driven
Total Immersion	Partial Immersion	Subject courses	Subject courses plus language classes/ instruction	Language classes based on thematic units	Language classes with frequent use of content for langauge practice

Figure 1. Content-based language teaching: A continuum of content and language integration (From Met, 1998, p.41)

Met's model visualizes varying degrees of integration of content and language in different approaches along the continuum which provides flexibility in integrating content and language teaching. Whether a more content-driven or a more language-driven approach is selected, it is essential that the programme should not aim at either content or language development, but the discipline-specific competences which are achieved based on the synthesis of both content and language competences. This is because language and content are always already integrated (Halliday, 1993) and ontologically and practically inseparable (Ball et al., 2015). In this sense, it is better to understand the content-led approaches along the continuum as "hard" CLIL – "subject-based aims and objectives, where subjects from the conventional curricula are taught in an additional or foreign language", or "soft" CLIL – where "the broad linguistic aims that a language teacher brings to the classroom" are privileged (Ball et al., 2015, p.27). The elusive nature of the CLIL continuum thus provides a set of eclectic methods from which programme planners and education policy makers may select and adapt whichever option that is fit for their school contexts.

Charting out programme options along the CLIL continuum

To plan a CLIL programme, it is necessary to decide on the programme learning goals (PLGs) to be achieved. Building on and extending Met's (1998) model of CLIL continuum, Lin (2016) developed a framework for mapping out the programme options on a content-driven – language-driven continuum (Figure 2).

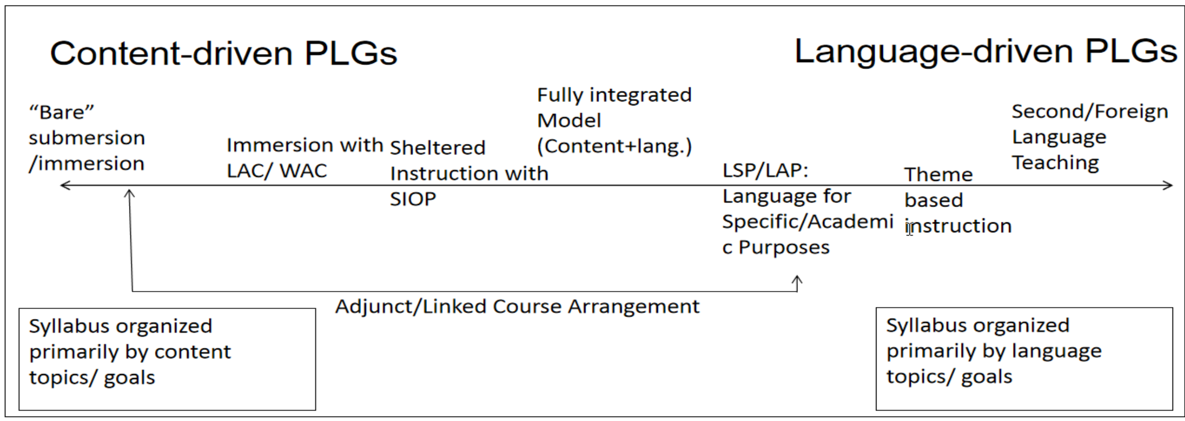

Figure 2. Mapping out programme options according to Programme Learning Goals (PLGs) on a content-driven—language-driven continuum (From Lin, 2016, p.148)

Close to the content-driven pole, although the programme options of "bare" submersion/immersion, immersion with LAC/WAC and Sheltered Instruction with SIOP all focus on learning of subject-based content and organize their curriculum by content topics and goals (Hard CLIL), the language support they provide ranges from minimum (i.e., "bare") to "language aware" with different degrees of explicit language instruction and opportunities for content-specific language practice. Close to the other end of the continuum, programme options may be exemplified by those programmes including Second/Foreign Language Teaching, Theme-based instruction and Language for Specific/Academic Purposes (LSP/LAP). These programmes all have language learning as their PLGs (Soft CLIL), but they utilize varying types of content topics or themes to contextualize the language teaching and learning. The Fully Integrated model at the middle of the continuum represents an idealized CLIL programme which gives equal attention to the content goals and the language goals by balancing the integration of language and content in both curriculum topic sequencing and classroom pedagogies. Similarly, the Adjunct/Linked Course Model also aims at full integration of content and language, but the dual focus is not achieved via the same CLIL course but dealt with in separate courses linked closely together by a subject content teacher and a language teacher collaborating with the latter providing explicit instruction on the subject-specific language genres and features required to fulfill the content learning tasks. Based on Lin's (2016) framework of programme option continuum, school programme developers may plan CLIL programmes depending on varying degrees of content-driven or language-driven PLGs and the resources available.

A CLIL programme may have several courses which have corresponding course learning goals (CLGs). To develop a CLIL curriculum that systematically integrates content and language learning, curriculum leaders need to design three interrelated components: syllabus, assessment and pedagogy. Drawing on Biggs' (2003) model of constructive alignment in curriculum design, the curriculum developer may start with formulating the intended

learning outcomes of the curriculum and then develop the assessment criteria based on the learning outcomes. Once the assessment criteria have been designed, the teaching and learning activities can be designed accordingly. The teaching and learning effects resulting from the teaching and learning activities in the CLIL classroom will provide ongoing feedback to the formulation and revision of intended learning outcomes. Due to the special nature of CLIL, the syllabus of CLIL courses needs to be organized by the CLGs which are composed of both content and language learning outcomes. Curriculum designers need to map out the "sequence-related concerns for 'soft' and 'hard' CLIL" (Ball et al., 2015, p.33). For instance, the language teachers (Soft CLIL) need to think about the sequencing of the conceptual content in the units of work, the relationship between conceptual learning goals and language learning goals as well as the relationship between subject-specific conceptual knowledge and skills and subject-specific linguistic knowledge and skills at any point in the sequence; while the subject teachers (Hard CLIL) need to consider how language affects students' ability to understand and express the content, how language may be different at different points of a sequence, how to highlight the key subject-specific language features, and how to provide scaffolding to facilitate students' oral and written production (Ball et al., 2015). The syllabuses driven by content and language respectively need to be coordinated to support the development of both content and language knowledge and skills. According to the intended CLGs, the language support may be either embedded into the content classes as mini-units and taught by the content teacher or provided by the language teachers in Adjunct/Linked courses (Lin, 2016). After planning the CLIL syllabus, it is important to design assessment tasks and grading criteria to guide and evaluate the implementation of the CLIL pedagogy based on which the teaching and learning materials and activities are prepared and practised in the CLIL lessons.

Holistic, flexible and collaborative CLIL programmes

Given the complexity of curriculum design and classroom practices in CLIL programmes, it is essential that a whole-school approach is adopted. Effective implementation of CLIL is affected by many factors such as students' L2 proficiency, literacy, cognitive and emotional skills, teachers' L2 proficiency and CLIL pedagogical skills, teaching resources tailor-made for learner needs in CLIL, subject teachers' effective deployment of language supportive strategies, the mutually facilitating collaboration between language teachers and content teachers as well as the successful planning and implementation of the CLIL programme at different levels of school practices (Ball et al., 2015). Therefore, CLIL programme planning should be flexible and responsive to particular school and societal conditions. The role of the school administrators and programme planners is thus crucial; apart from co-designing a suitable CLIL programme with the stakeholders, they also need to coordinate the collaboration of teachers across different subjects, ensure that the assessment criteria are supported by the parents, and provide CLIL teacher professional development opportunities in the school.

2.3 Collaboration of CLIL researchers in Asia: turning deficit into asset

Regarding the challenges facing EMI/CLIL programmes in Asia (Kirkpatrick & Liddicoat, 2017; Tupas, 2018), the continuum model (Met, 1998) and the CLIL continuum (Lin, 2016) provide a planning tool that allows schools in diverse Asian contexts to overcome the EMI/CLIL challenges by selecting and trying out culturally and linguistically responsive programmes, curriculums and pedagogies for their particular school situation. In view of the convergent issues of CLIL in the divergent Asian contexts, collaboration between CLIL researchers of different countries and regions as Communities of Practice (CoPs) (Wenger, 1998) may help to turn the deficit-based models to asset-based models. For example, many East Asian schools tend to encounter challenges from the heavy pressure of high-stakes, standardized public exams (e.g., reliant on multiple-choice type questions) whose assessment criteria and formats are often not compatible with CLIL programmes. The research and reform of high-stakes public exam assessment criteria in some countries may be useful references for the re/formulation of language policies and the reform of assessment criteria in other countries of similar contexts.

In light of some common challenges and characteristics shared by CLIL courses in many Asian contexts, collaboration between CLIL researchers and practitioners may focus on three main research areas: first, translanguaging (García & Li, 2014) as an innovative pedagogical approach in CLIL classrooms; second, "Soft CLIL" (Ball, et al., 2015) as a programme option for schools where CLIL is mainly taught by language teachers; and third, paying attention to the Confucian heritage culture as the sociocultural background in many East Asian education contexts. In many CLIL classrooms where the content teachers are not proficient in their L2 (e.g., English), the selection of a "Soft CLIL" programme can be pragmatic and realistic. Research studies may thus focus on how the language teachers prepare and implement the CLIL lessons by integrating the language goals and content goals appropriately. In many Asian schools, both teachers and students share familiar first languages. In this situation, translanguaging and trans-semiotizing (Lin, 2015) can be both scaffolding strategies and effective pedagogical approaches where teachers and students as bilinguals may deploy the available multilingual and multimodal communication resources (e.g., oral/written L1/L2, images, diagrams, gestures, etc.) to make sense of the CLIL topics. The application of translanguaging as a pedagogical approach to CLIL is critically and pedagogically essential for EMI/CLIL education in Southeast Asian contexts (Lin & Lo, 2018). It deconstructs the hierarchy between different languages and raises language policy makers' awareness that the students' L1/more familiar language is no less important than the target language (e.g., English). In CLIL classrooms, as students usually have developed some literacy in L1, they may have understood the subject content already in their L1. Hence, translanguaging can provide cognitive scaffolding and emotional support for the students during their meaning making of the CLIL topics. The challenges of CLIL in Asian contexts

may also include issues such as students' anxiety about speaking up in class, face-saving needs, reluctance to voice one's ideas against the background of Confucian heritage culture that has dominated the education of China, Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, Singapore, Taiwan, Vietnam as well as many other Southeast Asian countries (Littrell, 2005). To emotionally support students and engage them in CLIL lessons, apart from allowing students to use translanguaging and trans-semiotizing as communication strategies, CLIL teachers may also incorporate the Internet Technology resources and multimodal facilities in CLIL lesson planning following the Multimodalities-Entextualisation Cycle (MEC) (Lin, 2016) in three interrelated and developmental stages.

By introducing the CLIL programme option continuum (Lin, 2016) and proposing the three research areas for collaboration, we hope that communication among CLIL practitioners in diverse Asian contexts through conferences and academic journals or through collaboration in international workshops or projects will help to raise the awareness of policy makers, teachers and administrators about CLIL theories and enhance their capacities in designing CLIL practices that are fit for their own contexts. Any research findings concerning pedagogy, curriculum design, programme planning as well as teacher professional development of CLIL in Asia will enrich the literature and enhance the development of CLIL around the world.

3. Toward a bilingual Taiwan by 2030: How can CLIL help?

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3.1 Initiatives of promoting bilingual policy in Taiwan

In order to increase its people's English proficiency and compete with its neighbouring Asian counterparts in such a globalised society, the Taiwan government officially announced the policy of becoming a bilingual nation by 2030 (NDC, 2018)[1]. The rationales behind this initiative build upon four dimensions. Firstly, English should be taught and learnt from a demand side, rather than merely for testing purposes. In other words, English can be authentically employed in people's lives for living, working, or studying successfully. Secondly, it is hoped that the implementation of the bilingual policy can narrow the development gap between urban and rural areas with the assistance of digital technology in English learning. Thirdly, declaring a bilingual policy does not imply abandoning the native language or the superiority of English status; rather, the two languages, Mandarin Chinese and English, should run in parallel in both educational and non-educational situations. Lastly, promoting a bilingual nation can forge the competitiveness of the talented youth of Taiwan. With enhanced English proficiency and professional knowledge or skills, university graduates are expected to be equipped with mobility and employability in order to move and

survive across national borders. The specific targets of this bilingual policy are to provide Taiwanese people with quality job opportunities, elevate Taiwan's economic development, and empower Taiwan citizens with sufficient English four-skill competencies.

To realise the above aims and targets, the government has proposed a series of measures and strategies in English education across various education levels. Thus, a new infrastructure for bilingual education has to be built. The strategies include the following: bilingual education will be extended to preschool caretaking activities in the kindergarten curriculum, a thorough implementation of bilingual teaching at science park experimental high schools, CLIL textbooks will be designed by the central government, the TEIE (Teaching English in English) policy in primary and secondary education will be administered, the CLIL approach will be promoted in designated primary and secondary learning domains or subjects, and ESP (English for Specific Purposes) teaching and learning for vocational schools will be delivered. It is seemingly the first time that CLIL education has appeared in a government publication in Taiwan and is explicitly advocated in educational settings.

The Taiwan MOE (Ministry of Education) (The Lens News, 2018) also announced that the target language, namely English, should be integrated into each education domain and into some content subjects. The essential starting point is to ensure that there will be a sufficient number of qualified CLIL teachers. The MOE requires that student teachers trained in the teacher universities should be able to instruct STEAM (science, technology, engineering, arts and mathematics) courses in the target language in their practicum in order to become qualified CLIL practitioners at secondary level. It is estimated that 2,000 CLIL teachers will be ready in the next three years. However, so far, only some private language institutes have begun to offer certified CLIL training courses for current teachers who are interested in applying the CLIL approach; however, such training has not yet been officially recognised. These determinations and changes either from the public or private sector evidence that CLIL is becoming popular and its effects are prominent in Taiwan.

3.2 Why can CLIL help?

As discussed earlier, it is the very first time that the Taiwanese government has officially addressed the administration of the CLIL approach in Taiwan education settings, although CLIL has been widely implemented and researched extensively in its original context, i.e., Europe, for a couple of decades. In many Asian contexts, CLIL is still in its infancy (e.g., Brown, 2013; Leung, 2015; Wei, Feng & Ma, 2017; Yang, 2016b), but it is emerging quickly due to its dual focuses on integrating content and language. Differing from the ESP and EMI approaches which are situated at two extremes of a continuum catering to either language or content and have obtained great popularity at tertiary level in Asia, CLIL attempts to achieve a relatively well balanced language and content mix to accommodate learners' needs (Yang, 2016a).

As reviewed previously by Yang (2013, 2014, 2015, 2016 a.b., 2017, 2018, 2019) in his various works[2], due to the driving force of socio-economic globalisation, there has been a surge in the number of CLIL programmes in the last decade, with it becoming a mainstream form of education in many European countries at both the secondary and tertiary levels (Maljers, Marsh, & Wolff, 2007; Gefaell & Unterberger, 2010). The language of instruction of these CLIL programmes is predominantly English (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010). Much of the previous research has provided evidence of the positive effects of the CLIL approach in terms of linguistic improvement, although it has been noted that the improvement in skills may not be balanced, with several studies finding that learners' comprehension abilities or receptive skills tend to improve more than their productive skills (Aguilar & Rodriguez, 2012; Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Jiménez-Catalán & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2009). The findings indicate that, overall, CLIL learners' language proficiency and affect improve, but it is their receptive skills that tend to benefit the most (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010; Sylvén & Ohlander, 2014; Yang, 2014).

CLIL is also considered as a change agent for improving learners' real-life communication skills, helping them efficiently operate in intercultural interaction situations, a skill that could well ensure them a position in the competitive global labour market. Enhancing learners' mobility and employability, two of the key non-language contributions of CLIL education, has thus been considered a matter of course by many European CLIL researchers (Camiciottoli, 2010; Coyle, 2013; Georgiou, 2012; Gonzalez-Rodrigo & Puyal, 2012; Hunt, 2011). CLIL not only facilitates cognitive development, but also contributes to economic gains (Mehisto & Marsh, 2011). Most importantly, due to its widespread adoption in Europe, there is abundant research on how to prepare qualified CLIL practitioners. For instance, the European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education offers a set of principles and ideas for designing CLIL professional development curricula (Marsh, Mehisto, Wolff, & Frigols Martín, 2012), while Ruiz de Zarobe and Lagasabaster (2010) address many successful examples of CLIL programmes in Spain, and also critique a range of in-service and pre-service CLIL teacher education models across the different educational levels. It is assumed that "linking classroom initiatives with teacher education underlines the importance of addressing this often neglected or ignored area" (Coyle, cited in Ruiz de Zarobe and Lagasabaster, 2010). While the effectiveness and usefulness of CLIL instruction has been widely reported mainly in European contexts, to date there has been no large-scale execution or systematic research in Asian EFL countries, in particular in Taiwan.

3.3 Current CLIL implementations in Taiwan

CLIL has recently attracted both researchers' and practitioners' attention and gained in popularity across various educational levels in Taiwan, although it is still in its infancy and has a limited scope. In some elementary and secondary schools, the CLIL approach is

conducted as an experiment, and is course-based and non-mandatory. However, differing from the mainstream of using the CLIL approach where English is often the only target language to be learnt in Taiwan, the CLIL approach is adopted to teach foreigners Mandarin Chinese in some Chinese Language Learning Centres, to teach the new generations whose parents mainly immigrated to Taiwan for work or marriage from southwest Asian countries with mother tongues such as Vietnamese, or to teach indigenous kindergarten children their mother tongues as minority languages compared to Chinese or Taiwanese. The purpose of implementing the CLIL approach is not only for learning and preserving the mother tongues but also for protecting the cultures from the invasion and assimilation of the stronger language, i.e., Mandarin Chinese (Chou, 2016).

Ideas of applying the CLIL approach in various subject courses are burgeoning, in particular in elementary schools. The Office of English as Second Official Language of Tainan City Government would be the first public sector to explicitly promote using CLIL in school. In total, 13 schools have joined the CLIL experimental programme. It has been reported that CLIL helps motivate learners to learn and use English, and practitioners can design learning materials from the demand-side. Besides, teachers have a chance to collaboratively work as a team (OESOL, 2018). Some interesting examples of delivering CLIL courses in elementary schools are the Makers-CLIL where practitioners taught learners ArtRobot design, the Tea-Culture CLIL course in which CLIL students learnt both tea knowledge and English in order to offer foreign visitors tea tour guidance in English, a Leaf-Art CLIL course in which young learners collected leaves on campus, used them to create an art piece, and presented the work in English, and a play performance CLIL course where CLIL practitioners explained different stages and various emotions connected to different stages in English and had each student demonstrate a role on stage (Chien, 2019). Apparently, all these CLIL courses have very clear expectations of subject knowledge and language performance and are also learner-centred, the two keys of creating CLIL courses (van Kampen, Meirink, Admiraal, & Berry, 2017).

However, CLIL has not yet been widely adopted at the secondary or higher education levels in Taiwan. To date, no CLIL implementation has yet been reported or documented at secondary level. The reasons may vary and need further investigation, but one major hesitancy may lie in the fact that designing CLIL courses and producing materials can be time and effort consuming, adding extra workload for teachers (Perez Cañado, 2016). It can delay their tight teaching schedules and also has no positive effects on learners' English scores in the joint entrance examinations. In contrast, Taiwan universities are keen to use the EMI method to instruct disciplinary courses instead of applying the CLIL approach. At present, to the best of our knowledge, CLIL implementations are only found in some hospitality and tourism courses at a polytechnic university, where the effects have been found to be positive (see Yang, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016 a.b., 2017, 2018, 2019).

In addition to actual classroom practices, research on CLIL in Taiwan is growing and the outcomes are also encouraging. Recently, the Ministry of Science and Technology (MOST, 2019) has sponsored at least 14 CLIL research projects with a subsidy of nearly 10 million NT dollars (equal to 35 million JPY) for scholars to investigate the possibility of implementing the CLIL approach across various subjects or disciplines at different education levels. The scope of these projects ranges from studying the situation in a very specific local setting to a wider collaboration with neighbouring contexts such as Japan or Hong Kong. In the research output, several academic papers about Taiwan CLIL can be found in international journals. They are mainly experimental, empirical or comparative studies on CLIL programme efficacy, effectiveness, learners' outcomes in content and language, learners' and practitioners' perceptions and attitudes towards CLIL education, language learning strategies under the CLIL approach, practitioners' teaching performance, material design, the development of intercultural intelligence under the CLIL approach, or its comparison to other educational approaches (Google Scholar, 2019). Although the previous studies have evidenced the positive effects of the CLIL approach, it is suggested that further examinations could be conducted from a more critical perspective to identify the likely strengths and weaknesses in the local context (Cenoz, Genesee, & Gorter, 2014).

Besides, a number of CLIL academic gatherings have also been held island-wide, including conferences, workshops or short training courses. For instance, National Kaohsiung University of Hospitality and Tourism has continuously invited well-known CLIL scholars such as Professor Makoto Ikeda, Professor Angel Lin and Dr. Yuen-yi Lo to share their CLIL expertise and research with Taiwan teachers at conferences or workshops. However, currently, in Taiwan researching or adopting CLIL is mostly still individually-initiated; a professional CLIL organisation/association such as J-CLIL is urgently needed in order to provide a platform for both local researchers and practitioners to share and exchange ideas and experiences.

3.4 Concerns and conclusion

The CLIL approach is now being explicitly promoted by the Taiwan government and is attracting both practitioners' and researchers' interest, but some concerns or doubts have been raised as well. For instance[3], some CLIL practitioners commented that some schools practising the CLIL approach greatly depend on native English-speaking teachers. A co-teaching model between native speakers and non-native local teachers is usually used, but teachers with the same workloads are paid differently. Supports, facilities, teaching resources or budgets cannot be secured from schools or the government, worrying practitioners that the CLIL approach cannot be continued in the future. Besides, CLIL subjects are mainly offered as supplementary rather than obligatory courses, raising concerns about it being 'an elitist approach' where only selected students can be exposed to

this instructional approach (Burton, 2011). The most serious challenge of using the CLIL approach lies in the huge divergence of English proficiency among Taiwanese learners who are placed in the same classroom, leading to increasing difficulties of applying CLIL. Cultural concerns such as feeling face-threatened also prevent learners from using English as a medium for learning content in the classroom. Similar concerns or doubts such as downgrading the status of mother tongues have been reported in other Asian contexts too (Yang, 2015).

To overcome these concerns, several measures can be taken (NDC, 2019). These may include using technology such as AI (artificial intelligence) or AR (augmented reality) devices to bridge the gap of learning resources and learners' language proficiency between urban and rural schools, fully implementing the CLIL approach in designated subjects at elementary and secondary schools, producing contextualised CLIL materials and preparing sufficient qualified CLIL teachers for various educational levels. Then, to verify the effects of CLIL education, it is suggested that cultural exchange activities can be practiced in schools. For example, schools can arrange a short period of overseas learning or internship to offer learners opportunities to use the target language and content knowledge in authentic situations. To what extent CLIL learners are able to adapt themselves to intercultural contexts can prove if cultural awareness is developed as CLIL claims. Finally, we argue that both content and language teachers should abandon parochialism, open their classroom territory, transform mindsets and teaching beliefs and reposition their teaching roles. As a growing context of using CLIL, a multifaceted involvement and engagement with all stakeholders, i.e., a close collaboration between content and language teachers, between native English-speaking and non-native teachers, between schools and teachers, between practitioners and students and their parents is indispensable. Genuine trust and communication help foster the success of applying a new educational approach.

To answer our question of whether CLIL can help Taiwan become a bilingual nation, we have no reason to doubt its possible positive effects on Taiwan education, judging from its extensive successes evidenced in other contexts. However, we also have to alert the Taiwan authorities that changing teachers' mindsets is always the priority when executing an educational change; otherwise, making Taiwan a bilingual nation by 2030 will be very demanding and tough to realise.

Notes

[1] In this section, the description and discussion of Taiwan's bilingual policy is based on the official data released by the National Development Council, Taiwan (NDC, 2018).

[2] This review part derives from a synthesis of the author's previous works (Yang, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016 a.b., 2017, 2018, 2019).

[3] A personal correspondence with Dr. H. H. Liang who is the author's colleague and who

joined a CLIL workshop, noting the participants' feedback on CLIL implementations in Tao-yuan City, Taiwan.

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4. EMI as sheltered instruction to provide sufficient scaffolding

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Many universities in Japan have already adopted English medium instruction (EMI) in both English-taught degree programs, where all content courses are taught only in English, and Japanese-taught degree programs, where a certain number of courses are offered in English. Since the enrollment for EMI courses in the latter programs consists mainly of Japanese-speaking students, they are likely to face serious difficulties resulting from a lack of language skills. This paper summarizes my presentation on EMI in East Asian contexts at the 2nd J-CLIL Annual Bilingual Conference held at Waseda University, Tokyo in July, 2019. It starts with the definition of EMI in East Asia, followed by concerns about linguistic skills among CLIL students, and EMI as sheltered instruction, and finally suggests some pedagogical implicit language support.

4.1 Definition of EMI in Asia

EMI is generally defined as "the use of the English language to teach academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions where the first language (L1) of the majority of the population is not English" (Dearden, 2015, p. 4). The European notion of EMI implies "no explicit English language-related learning outcomes" (Airey, 2016); however, the author argues that EMI in East Asia requires implicit language support or pedagogical scaffolding that helps users of English as a foreign language (EFL) learn content efficiently and effectively, following the view that English language learning is a by-product of taking EMI courses (Taguchi, 2014) and EMI is more like *content-driven* content-based instruction (CBI) (i.e., hard CLIL) in East Asian contexts. Brinton (2017) classifies EMI as a subcategory of sheltered instruction, which refers to one of the prototypical CBI models in which students who are still developing a second language (L2), separated from native speakers, are enrolled in a content course for the purpose of content learning in L2. This implies that since many students in Asia are still developing English skills, a certain amount of implicit pedagogical support is required in the EMI curriculum. The following section discusses why this is the case in East

Asian contexts.

4.2 Concerns about linguistic skills

Among many issues and concerns about EMI for both teachers and students, such as teachers' expertise and workload, mother tongue use in the classroom, less content knowledge, various English-speaking teachers, and concerns about linguistic skills (Institute for Advanced Studies in Education, 2017), the linguistic concerns are very serious to undergraduate students taking EMI courses. For instance, Murata, Konakahara, Iino, and Toyoshima (2019) found that EMI students were concerned about English language learning and use, above all, speaking skills rather than the content itself. In addition, according to Kudo, Harada, Eguchi, Moriya, and Suzuki (2017), undergraduate EMI students were reported to have strong anxiety toward their speaking skills, negative evaluation from other students, and communication anxiety during presentation and discussion activities. Further, vocabulary knowledge is a crucial factor in performing various EMI tasks. It is usually assumed that students need at least 5,000 word families for reading and 4,000 word families for academic listening (Schmitt, Cobb, Horst, & Schmitt, 2017), though more than 8,000 word families are recommended for both skills. Uchihara and Harada (2018) investigated the vocabulary size of Japanese-speaking English majors at a private university, and found that the majority of EMI students mastered the 2,000 (M = 97%) and 3,000 (M = 88%) word levels and academic words (M = 87%) in written form, but only the first 1,000 words (M = 97%) in aural form. This study revealed a substantial lack of vocabulary and a huge gap in the size between written and aural receptive vocabulary. But despite this problem, they successfully completed the EMI courses they enrolled for. The follow-up interviews showed that they had taken good advantage of strategy use and resources available through the courses.

With these findings in mind, the author suggests that EMI in Japan be like sheltered instruction, so that EMI instructors must make various forms of scaffolding available to students with limited English proficiency. Therefore, EMI in Asian contexts is an instructional model in which content mastery is primary, whereas English language development should be taken care of (Brinton, 2017). Some researchers refer to this type of EMI as language enhanced subject teaching (LEST) (Ball, 2016) or language enhanced content instruction (LEI) (Brinton, 2007).

4.3 EMI as sheltered instruction

Content teachers may be neither necessarily familiar with language teaching nor willing to give EMI students language support because they are likely to assume that content courses are not designed for language development. I would not argue that they focus on such linguistic items as often described in language courses, but that they change their mindset about the organization of content courses, including assignments and assessments. One of the well-known strategies for content teaching at different levels is the Sheltered Instruction

Observation Protocol (SIOP) (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2017). It consists of 8 components, including 1) lesson preparation, 2) building students' background knowledge, 3) comprehensible input, 4) instructional strategies, 5) interaction, 6) practice/application, 7) lesson delivery, and 8) review and assessment. These components are subdivided into 30 features. For example, Feature 14 in the SIOP emphasizes the importance of scaffolding techniques to help assist and support students' understanding.

Since EMI students are at an advanced level though still developing English skills, an implicit form of language support may work better than an explicit form of language support (For scaffolding and embedding see Ball, Kelly, & Clegg, 2016, p. 196). Implicit support may include instructional strategies (e.g., sufficient reading assignments which help students increase input and prepare for in-class activities), "frequent opportunities for interaction and discussion" in the classroom, which "encourage elaborated responses about lesson concepts" (SIOP Feature 16), "grouping configurations [to] support language and content objectives" (SIOP Feature 17), and even "ample opportunity for students to clarify key concepts in L1 as needed with aide, peer, or L1 text" (SIOP Feature 19), which can be given out of the classroom in case of a multilingual class. In the following section, the author shares with readers his pedagogical strategies for one of the EMI courses he is currently teaching at a university.

4.4 Pedagogical implicit language support

The course introduced here is offered in the Department of English Language and Literature in the School of Education at Waseda University, which is a required but elective undergraduate seminar for juniors and seniors on applied linguistics, focusing on second language acquisition and bilingual education. The seminar meets once a week for two hours. The students' English proficiency ranges from 500 to 900 on the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC ®) and from 480 to 610 on the Paper-based Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL ITP ®), which shows that students' language skills vary greatly, and pedagogical language support is required. Since most students in Japan are used to form-focused instruction often observed in traditional language teaching and the course is for content learning, the author has adopted implicit focus-on-meaning support, in which to organize the course in different ways instead of giving form-focused language activities or tasks. This idea is based on the counterbalance hypothesis that students used to form-focused instruction will find meaning-focused instruction more beneficial to language development and vice versa (Lyster & Mori, 2006, 2008).

The implicit focus-on meaning support includes the following content-based activities: 1) reading assignments for the preparation of a quiz and in-class discussion (**priming stage**), 2) weekly quizzes to provide opportunities for output, 3) students' **interactive** presentations of an assigned chapter or section, 4) teacher's **interactive** additional explanation, 5)

discussion in small groups of 3 to 4, 6) peer evaluation of students' presentations, 7) reflection papers on the assigned chapter, and 8) term papers. The following tables show students' pre-, in-, and post-class focus-on-meaning support activities with some underlying principles.

Table 1. Pre-class activities and the underlying principles

Focus-on-meaning support (Before class)	Underlying Principles
•Reading assignments: 15-20 pages	•Familiarity with content and content-obligatory vocabulary before class •**Priming Stage**: Preparation for the classroom activities
•One essay question given for a weekly quiz beforehand	•**Guiding input** (purpose of reading clarified) •Focus on main ideas relevant to the quiz and familiarity with vocabulary •Preparing to answer a given essay question will lead to **pushed output**.
•Presenter/discussion leader creates PowerPoint slides	•Selecting and summarizing main ideas (**higher-order thinking skills**: SIOP Feature 15)
Option •Independent study session only among students before the seminar	•**Key concepts in L1** (SIOP Feature 19)

Table 2. In-class activities and the underlying principles

Focus-on-meaning support (In class)	Underlying Principles
•Weekly quiz	•**Pushed output** •Preparation for the following class activities (presentations made by peer students and discussions of questions given by presenters)
•Students' presentations with sufficient examples	•**Pushed output** for the presenters •Input and familiarity with the content for other students •**Peer feedback**
•Teacher's additional explanation of key concepts with examples	•Teacher's **clarification** •Teacher's **content scaffolding**
•From discussion in small groups of 3 or 4 to whole class discussion (**Group configuration**: SIOP Feature 17) •Discussion questions created by presenters: students' perspectives •Some (essay) questions in the quiz recycled in group discussion: **Rehearsal effects**	•**Collaborative work** (i.e., scaffolding among peers) •**Interaction** (SIOP Feature 16) •**Negotiation for meaning** among peers •Feedback (e.g., **confirmation check**, **clarification request**)
Option •5 minutes' question & answer session in Japanese at the end of the seminar	•**Key concepts in L1** (SIOP Feature 19)

Table 3. Post-class activities and the underlying principles

Focus-on-meaning support (After class)	**Underlying Principles**
Reflection papers •Reflection on presentation and assigned chapter	 •Self-assessment of own performance and content
Term papers •Reading several academic journal articles •Writing a term paper	 •Reading: **Content support** •Writing: Integration of information (i.e., **cognitive and academic activities**) •**Pushed output**
•Peer feedback	•Peer assessment (e.g., **clarification request**) serves as **negotiation for meaning**.

4.5 Conclusion

This paper discussed EMI in Japan in terms of why language support is required and how it should be provided, referring to the SIOP model and one of the author's EMI courses. EMI students in East Asia, who are used to form-focused instruction, should be given implicit focus-on-meaning scaffolding to support both content and language learning rather than explicit focus-on-form support. This type of focus-on-meaning support leads to such elements beneficial to L2 acquisition as priming, guided input, pushed output, peer feedback, collaborative work, interaction, negotiation for meaning, confirmation check, clarification request, rehearsal effects, and cognitive and academic development. The author argues that these important elements are essential for interactive EMI classes.

5. A brief history of CLIL in Japan – Teachers as Primary Agency for Transformation[1]

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CLIL has its origin in Europe, but now it has been transmitted to countries in Latin America and East Asia. In each context, CLIL has evolved in various forms, adjusting to and altering local practices, and in Japan, CLIL practitioners are primary agency for transformation of the educational practices. As Pennycook (2001) describes, educational systems and practices, e.g., schools and classroom interactions, are "social phenomena" where "dominant social interests" are reflected and also challenged, and changes occur when teachers can "*actually do something"* (ibid., 2001, p. 127, my emphasis), which is thus transformative. This short panel proceeding starts with a brief history of language education in Japan and describes in what context the pedagogic transformation though CLIL has started and how CLIL practitioners have led and been leading the innovation in Japan.

To have better understanding of the transformation in language education in Japan, which CLIL has brought and will bring, it would be worth reviewing the history of language

education in our "nation" here briefly (also see Tsuchiya, 2019). In the pre-modern society of Japan in the Edo era (1603-1867), Chinese and Dutch were the two foreign languages only limited Japanese elites learned to access knowledge and technology of China and the West. Just before the opening of Japan, a British ship appeared in Nagasaki, which was the only port foreign ships entered at that time. That was the moment when Japanese people realised the necessity to learn English (Tanabe, 1987). In the process of the modernisation since the Meiji restoration in 1868, the first Minister of Education, Mori Arinori, even once considered to authorise English as a national language, which instead triggered the movement to recognise the importance of Japanese language, promoting the standardisation and education in Japanese (Heinrich, 2012).

In such context, the grammar translation method was introduced in foreign language education to translate publications from western countries to Japanese (Saitoh, 2007), and in the early 1890s, English, French and German were chosen as elective subjects taught in secondary education (MEXT, 1901). Another major educational reform happened after the Second World War under the US military occupation. The first *Course of Study* was published by Ministry of Education and disseminated as guidelines for primary and secondary school teachers (Aoki, 1947). Since then, the national guidelines have been reformed every ten years, and the revision of *the Course of Study* in 1998 defined English as the only compulsory foreign language subject in secondary education (MEXT, 1998). In terms of English language teaching approaches, the pendulum swayed from the grammar translation method to the oral method after the war, and since the 1960s, the communicative approach (cf. Hymes, 1972) has been proffered (Saitoh, 2007), which is still emphasised in the current *Course of Study* (MEXT, 2017). Since the late 1990s, university lectures in EMI (English medium instruction) have also been encouraged in order to provide human resources with English skills to strengthen the Japanese economy in the global marketplace (MEXT, 2002), and the government set up funding schemes to internationalise universities, e.g., the global 30 project (MEXT, 2009) and the top global university project (MEXT, 2014)

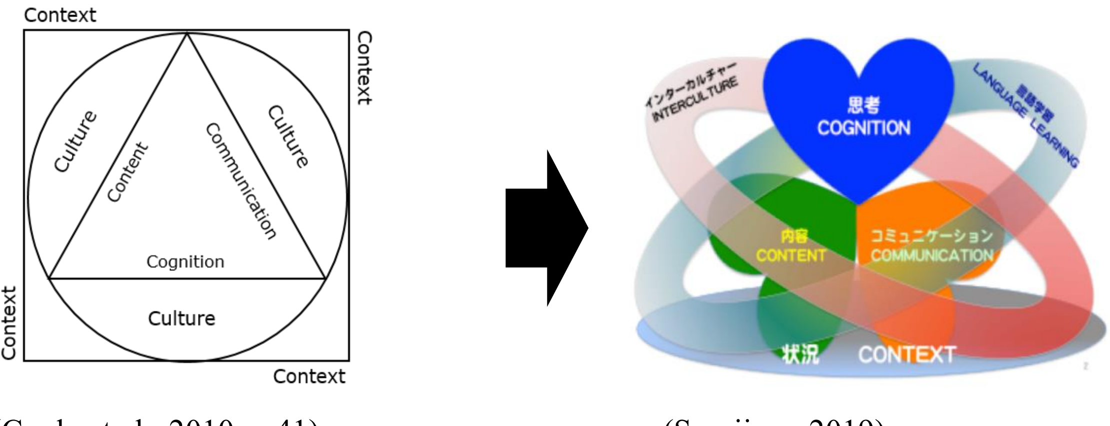
In the context of internationalisation of universities, Japanese CLIL first emerged in university English classes (Ohmori, 2014). It has then been gradually spreading to primary and secondary English classrooms in various forms. In the period from 2009 to 2017, more than 150 CLIL case studies were found in CiNii, the online academic journal archive (CiNii, 2018). More than half of them reported CLIL practices in higher education (95 articles), which includes nine case studies in CLIL in foreign languages other than English. There are more case studies published in primary (35 articles) than secondary education (21), and it was in 2013 the first CLIL article in secondary education appeared (see Tsuchiya, 2019 for a review of existing CLIL studies in Japan). Accordingly, since 2011, a good number of CLIL introductory books, which introduce its principles and practices, and CLIL-based coursebooks have been published in Japanese or both in Japanese and English (see Table 1).

Table 1. A short list of CLIL textbooks issued in Japan

Year	Title (Author, Publisher)
2011	CLIL (Sasajima Ed., *Sanshusha*) CLIL Vol1 Principles and Methodologies (Watanabe, Ikeda & Izumi, *Gyosei*)
2012	CLIL Vol 2 Practices and Applications (Izumi, Ikeda & Watanabe, *Gyosei*)
2013	CLIL Health Sciences, (Sasajima, Godfrey & Gilroy et al., *Sanshusha*)
2014	CLIL Global Issues (Sasajima, Ikeda & Yamazaki et al., *Sanshusha*)
2015	Hello, English—English for Teachers of Children (Aiba, Fujiwara, Byrd & Barrows, *Seibido*) From the UN News Centre (Muto, Ishiwata & Cho et al., *Sanshusha*)
2016	8 つの知能を生かした教科横断的な英語指導法 [A cross-curricular English language teaching approach for multiple intelligence (my translation)] (Nigo, *Keisuisha*) Shin-Chu-Mon [Mathematics textbooks for lower secondary education (my explanation)] (*Kyoiku Kaihatsu Shuppan*)
2017	英語で教科内容や専門を学ぶ [Learning academic subjects in English (my translation)] (Sawaki, Harada & Ikeda et al., *Gakumonsha*)
2018	日本語教師のための CLIL 入門 [Introduction to CLIL for teachers of Japanese (my translation)] (Okuno, Kobayashi & Sato et al., *Bonjinsha*)
2019	英語で学ぼうオリンピック・パラリンピック [Learning Olympics and Paralympics in English (my translation)] (Machida & Takizawa, *Kodomo no Mirai sha*) 学びをつなぐ小学校外国語教育の CLIL 実践 [CLIL practices in primary foreign language education for learning (my translation)] (Sasajima, Yamano & Isobe et al., *Sanshusha*) 小中学校で取り組むはじめての CLIL 英語授業づくり [Planning CLIL English lessons in primary and secondary schools (my translation)] (Kashiwagi & Ito, in press)

One of them is for teachers of Japanese language, and more publications of CLIL in English and languages other than English will follow (also visit: https://www.j-clil.com/books).

The attempts to localise the conceptual frameworks in CLIL have also been made by some CLIL practitioners. Sasajima (2019), for instance, modified the 4C framework (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010), altering the original element “culture” to “interculture” and adding one more factor, “language learning”, especially for learners in Japanese contexts (see Figure 1).



(Coyle et al., 2010, p.41) (Sasajima, 2019)

Figure 1. The contextualised 4Cs+2 framework for CLIL in Japan

Another example is found in Ikeda (2019), who recategorised factors in *key competences for lifelong learning* in the EU and the framework of 21st century skills in the US, and suggests *general purpose competences* students can learn through CLIL with three sub-categories: *cognitive competency*, *social competency* and *moral competency* (see Figure 2).

Key competences for lifelong learning	21st Century Learning
● Literacy competence ● Multilingual competence ● Mathematical competence and competence in science, technology and engineering ● Digital competence ● Personal, social and learning to learn competence ● Citizenship competence ● Entrepreneurship competence ● Cultural awareness and expression competence (EU, 2019)	● Key Subjects and 21st Century themes ● Learning and innovation skills ● Information, media and technology skills ● Life and career skills (P21, 2019)

Cognitive Skills	Cognitive Skills	Ethical Skills
● Knowledge use skills ● Critical thinking skills ● Task-setting skills ● Problem-solution skills ● Decision making skills ● Meta-learning skills	● Communication skills ● Collaboration skills ● Global citizen skills	● Personal responsibilities ● Social responsibilities ● International responsibilities (Ikeda, 2019, p. 27)

Figure 2. The contextualised classification of competencies for CLIL in Japan

CLIL practitioners in Japan, thus, translated, revised and localised the theories and practices of CLIL to adjust to its own context. All those activities discussed above are *pedagogic devices* in Bernstein (2000), which regulates pedagogic potentials and discourses to realise symbolic control and cultural (re)production (ibid., p.201).

In contrast to the European context, CLIL in Japan has not been introduced neither in a top-down manner nor as an approach for multilingual education in origin. Through everyday CLIL practices with the contextualised frameworks, however, CLIL could bring two paradigm shifts in education in Japan: (1) reconceptualising the learning aims of language education from acquiring language abilities to developing generic competences using language for learning, and (2) altering learners' learning experiences, transgressing beyond the boundaries across subjects and languages, and between classrooms and the real world, importantly both of which have been and will be initiated by CLIL practitioners. That then transforms education in Japan for learners who live in the complex and uncertain globalised society.

Notes

[1] Part of the literature review was previously published in Tsuchiya (2019).

6. Conclusion: Asia as a context for converging content-oriented language education

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In the literature so far, considerable effort has been devoted to the conceptualisation and classification of diverse 'sub-divisions' of English-medium content-oriented pedagogy (e.g., Brown & Bradford, 2017; Dale & Tanner, 2012; Macaro, 2018). As Brinton (2018) rightly argues, the main differences arise from geographical, socio-political and economic factors rather than methodological considerations: immersion is Canadian, CBI (Content-Based Instruction) is American, CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) is European, and EMI (English-Medium Instruction) is non-Anglo-Saxon (i.e., outside English-speaking countries). The important issue, then, is how specialists in these different geographical and educational contexts can cooperate and collaborate to enhance the efficacy and value of dual-focused educational approaches, all of which share similar pedagogical objectives, skills, benefits and challenges. In this respect, Asia is a particularly promising region to put together various ideas, experiences and insights from all these approaches because courses and programmes based on one of the pedagogical principles are simultaneously offered (e.g., language-led CLIL lessons at primary schools, International Baccalaureate programmes at secondary immersion schools, EMI lectures at higher institutions).

Looking back on the symposium from this perspective, under the main theme of 'Collaboration of CLIL in Asia', each of the presenters brings highly informative and insightful experience and expertise from their own research and teaching context. Theoretically, Lin and He, who have conducted numerous studies on immersion lessons in Hong Kong, summarise varied content-based language teaching and propose three research

agendas for collaboration: translanguaging (effective use of L1 with L2), talk (enhancement of shy students' spoken language production) and technology (promotion of ICT) in the bilingual content-oriented classroom. Pedagogically, Harada, who used to teach CBI courses in the US and continues to contribute to the field as a researcher, argues that EMI in Japan should be like the sheltered type of CBI (i.e. content courses designed for students with English as their L2), embedding implicit language and content scaffolding based on the SIOP (Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol) model. Historically, Tsuchiya, who works with CLIL specialists in Europe, describes how ELT (English Language Teaching) in general and CLIL in particular have developed in Japan, and points out two 'paradigm shifts' that can be brought to ELT by CLIL: 1) changes in aims from communicative competence to multi-purpose competencies and 2) students' learning processes. Last but not least and the latest, concurrently, Yang reports he recent move of Taiwan towards a bilingual nation by 2030 and discusses the hopes (e.g., improvement of students' intercultural communication skills in English, development of their cognitive faculty) and hindrances (e.g., learners' diverse language proficiency levels, their attitudes towards English as a medium of learning) involved in CLIL implementation for the national language project.

To relate such issues of collaboration in research and pedagogy to more general agendas, it would be advisable to follow Dalton-Puffer's proposal (2019), which was presented in the plenary for the 2nd J-CLIL West conference in November 2019. In the talk entitled 'What can empirical research tell us about CLIL implementations?: Mapping the landscape', she identified the five main areas that the CLIL studies to date have been addressing: 1) learning outcomes in language, 2) learning outcomes in content, 3) classroom pedagogy and discourse, 4) materials and 5) participant perceptions. As CLIL in Asia is still in its early childhood, not to say in its infancy, we need to build up empirical studies in these 'traditional' research areas. At the same time, we also need to keep abreast of the latest trends in Europe, which Dalton-Puffer (2019) proposes as the 'most urgent research needs':

- applied linguists team up with subject education researchers,
- test constructs for content learning and subject-specific language (rather than 'general English'),
- development research (data-based research, action research) on tasks, materials, and pedagogical designs,
- long-term effects,
- attention to the dimension of pluriliteracy and international posture.

As CLIL in Asia develops not only in quantity but in quality, and not merely in pedagogy but in research, it is expected that more and more researchers and practitioners work on existing and emerging topics for academic and educational exploration. To achieve such aims, we hope that the discussion in the symposium contributes to the promotion of

collaborative educational exchanges and research projects in Asia in order to converge pedagogies and studies in various types of content and language integrated approaches.

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CLIL in Practice

Proposal for CLIL Lessons in Environmental Issues Using ICT Equipment in Elementary and Junior High Schools

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Abstract
The aim of this paper is to provide examples of CLIL lesson plans that use Information and Communication Technology (ICT) equipment in order to reduce the burden on teachers. In Japan, there are very few materials and resources for CLIL lessons, so teachers must create original material. The authors propose lesson plans that address this problem using ICT equipment. In this paper, we propose lesson plans for elementary and junior high schools that deal with Education for Sustainable Development (ESD). In addition, this lesson plan shows how to improve vocabulary instruction using ICT equipment. Vocabulary instruction is also important, especially at the junior high school level. To assist students in vocabulary development, instead of teaching through isolating and extracting only the vocabulary, they can be encouraged to use new vocabulary in the context of the CLIL lesson content using ICT devices and apps.

Keywords: Vocabulary learning, ICT equipment, CLIL lesson plan

1. Introduction

In recent years, the practice of utilizing Content Language Integrated Learning (hereafter CLIL) lessons has increased in Japan. Many researchers have verified that CLIL lessons can be effective to improve students' motivation to learn English and acquire four skills ("listening", "speaking" "reading", "writing" skills) (Yamano, 2013; Nigo, 2014; Kashiwagi & Ito, 2017; Nakata, 2019). Teachers in Japan currently interested in implementing CLIL lessons suffer from a lack of suitable textbooks and resources, as well as adequate preparation time. Japanese teachers find it difficult to design CLIL teaching materials (Ito & Nakata, 2019). In order to conduct CLIL lessons, teachers need to develop their own teaching materials.

It is challenging for teachers in Japan to design teaching materials because they are busy instructing students and doing clerical work in addition to integrating “workstyle reform” to correct long working hours, which is required in Japan. It is difficult for Japanese teachers to spend enough time developing teaching materials. Therefore, the authors suggest using ICT (hereafter Information Communication Technology) equipment and existing applications in the CLIL lessons. In this paper, the authors propose a unit of CLIL lessons that deal with the same content in both elementary and junior high schools with ICT equipment.

2. Background

2.1 Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

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 both content and language” (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigoles, 2008, p.1). Generally, CLIL lessons are designed covering “4Cs” (Watanabe, Ikeda, & Izumi, 2011; Ito, 2018). These 4C’s are outlined in Table 1.

Table 1. 4Cs in CLIL curriculum

Content	Progression in knowledge, skills and understanding related to specific elements of a defined Curriculum
Communication	Using language to learn whilst learning to use language
Cognition	Developing thinking skills which link concept formation (abstract and concrete), understanding and language
Culture/ Community	Exposure to alternative perspectives and shared understandings, which deepen awareness of otherness and self.

(Coyle, 2007, p.557)

In recent years, CLIL lessons have been increasing in Japan; however, they are still not widespread. Many teachers are interested in CLIL, but find it difficult to employ in class (Ito & Nakata, 2019). Nevertheless, many teachers are doing CLIL lessons due to their effectiveness. The impact of CLIL on student learning includes not only the acquisition of foreign languages but also the acquisition of general skills that integrate students' motivation to learn foreign languages, cross-cultural understanding, problem-solving skills, international sensibility, etc. (Ikeda, 2017). Some teachers are interested in CLIL, and practicing CLIL lessons while having their own thoughts and ideas about the effectiveness of CLIL lessons. It has been shown that through CLIL lessons, students develop both grammatical sensitivity and English-language cognitive capacity (Kashiwagi & Kobayashi, 2019).

2.2 CLIL and second language acquisition theory

As mentioned earlier, students' motivation to engage in learning improves through CLIL lessons. However, in order to learn a foreign language, it is necessary to consider second language acquisition theory. To promote language acquisition, it is necessary to understand that learners who have started learning a foreign language have a deep relationship with the cognitive process through which they learn the language.

Ellis (1997) states that input is important for learning a language. The importance of input is described by many researchers in second language acquisition theory (Krashen, 1982, 1985; Ellis, 1990, 2008; Gass, 1997; Sharwood, 1986; Vanpatten, 1996). It is stated that learning is important where the learner's attention is directed at the input and the learner takes in as a process of linking the meaning and sentence structure of the foreign language (Vanpattern, Williams, Rott & Overstreet, 2004).

This cognitive process that connects voice perception and semantic comprehension is called form-meaning connections (FMCs). A teaching method called Focus on Form (FonF) that is effective in this cognitive process has been proposed.

The following can be said by relating CLIL to second language acquisition theory. The teacher repeatedly inputs the target sentence in the teacher talk to make the students aware of the linguistic form. The authors conduct a skit show at the beginning of the lesson and let the students learn the content of the lesson. Also, input to hear the target sentence repeatedly is performed.

2.3 Vocabulary teaching through CLIL lessons

Vocabulary teaching through CLIL lessons is the focus of this study. Various ideas are also made in class. Canale (1983) points out that important communication ability includes a mastery of grammar, with vocabulary knowledge at the heart of it. Vocabulary is important because it relates to all four skills (Aizawa & Nishitani, 2018). To that end, it is important to discover what kind of learning is effective for students to retain this vocabulary long-term. The 2001 survey (Zahar et al., 2001) revealed that learners with a limited vocabulary are able to improve their test scores with repeated use of words. In other words, it is important to increase the amount of input and repeat the target words of the lesson as much as possible. CLIL reinforces specific vocabularies for each topic because the target words contained within the CLIL lessons generally deal with authentic subjects. The second language acquisition theory recognizes the importance of input; also in CLIL, "teacher talk," which teachers use to talk to learners, is essential for rich input. Focus on Form is an effective method, in which the learner's attention is directed to the language form and the connection of the form, meaning, and function of the words are noticed (Izumi, 2009). Furthermore, Merikivi and Pietilä (2014) refer to the general perception that the CLIL environment is

more fruitful for foreign language development than monolingual streams. In this research, the authors will try to incorporate the target words and the target sentences naturally in various scenes of classroom instruction and encourage students to note correct usage. Instead of simply studying lists of vocabulary and repeating them, students may experience activities devised by the teacher that integrate meaning, visual information, and word format.

2.4 Cooperation between elementary school and junior high school for Education for Sustainable Development (ESD)

One of the authors suggested the following which is inspired by Bruner's spiral learning (Bruner, 1960): that is, that elementary school and junior high school academics are not separate; the learning content and instructional methods must be repeated in a spiral for effective student retention. Furthermore, if students read a book when they are children and read the same book when they grow up, there is a different level of understanding. Even if students advance to junior high school and learn the same content that they learned in elementary school, their comprehension is not exactly the same. Building upon ideas and things one has learned in the past will deepen understanding. Teachers must have such a perspective when working with children and students.

These CLIL lessons were created from an ESD (Education for Sustainable Development) perspective. ESD proposes that people must consider serious issues such as the environment, poverty or global warming as their own problems and think about what each person can do in order for all creatures on the earth to survive into the future. It is important for teachers to focus on the students' "future" and on the "future" of the planet, rather than focusing on the students' present. ESD is an education to create a "future" (Goshima & Sekiguchi, 2010). The following are the abilities educators strive to nurture in ESD:

1. Values related to sustainable development (respect for people, respect for diversity, non-monopoly, equal opportunity, respect for the environment, etc.)
2. Systematic thinking ability (individuals understand the background of problems and phenomena and gain a multifaceted, comprehensive view)
3. Alternative thinking (criticism)
4. Ability to analyse data and information
5. Communication ability
6. Improvement of leadership

(Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, MEXT)

The authors have developed a CLIL lesson that allows thinking specifically about the environment. This topic is chosen because a junior high school textbook has a unit that deals with environmental issues. Similarly, elementary students study social, scientific and environmental issues during integrated study. Thus, lessons suitable for students'

developmental stages have been created.

2.5 Utilization of ICT equipment

In these CLIL lessons, teachers will present the vocabulary using ICT equipment. Specifically, the lessons utilize presentation software (Microsoft PowerPoint®) as well as an existing application (Quizlet®). The use of these ICT devices is not a new idea. However, the authors believe that using them in the context associated with CLIL lessons content makes it more effective to instruct students in vocabulary. The authors believe that the benefits of using ICT equipment are:

1. Flexible teaching materials can be created according to the contents of CLIL lessons.
2. Once the content is created, it can be shared among many people.
3. Using existing applications and software can reduce teacher preparation time.
4. Individual and repeated learning using ICT will be fun for students.

According to Nation (2013, p.145), the usefulness of ICT materials in vocabulary education as follows:

1. It can provide fast and easy access to a wide range of resources including other learners.
2. It can provide multimedia resources.
3. It can provide immediate feedback on success and progress.
4. It can monitor and control learning conditions making sure that optimal conditions are applied according to research findings.
5. It can adapt to the performance of the learner.
6. It can motivate and engage learners

Especially for CLIL lessons, there are few resources and materials in Japan, so the instructor must create original content. In this case, even if the content of the lesson is different when used in digital form, the existing ICT material can be adapted: teachers are free to change the vocabulary and expressions on the picture cards without having to create entirely new material.

2.6. The Purpose of This Research

In this paper, an effective CLIL lesson plan, reduce the burden teachers face when creating CLIL materials using ICT equipment and develop a CLIL lesson plan that emphasizes vocabulary instruction. This lesson will be considered from the following three viewpoints: (1) CLIL taught collaboratively between elementary and junior high schools on the subject of environmental education, (2) ICT utilization in classrooms, and (3) vocabulary guidance

in CLIL lessons. After receiving introductory instruction at elementary schools, students can learn more deeply by working on the same topic at the junior high level.

3. The Lesson Plan

3.1 The Proposal of the Lesson

This section describes specific lesson plans. First, it shows an example of an effective CLIL lesson plan for vocabulary learning that can work in elementary school using ICT equipment (Table 2). Generally, in elementary school, the topic of recycling is treated as an environmental problem in social studies, science, and integrated study. In elementary school, may perform the “Line up Game” for confirmation immediately after learning vocabulary. Then, after learning about recycling, it is a good idea to run the “Typhoon game” as a summary activity to think about what they can do for the earth now.

The junior high school curriculum, Sunshine English Course 3 Program 3 “The 5 Rs to Save the Earth” (Kairyudo, 2016) is reviewed as an example. In any textbook, environmental issues are often discussed, so the authors consider employing a dramatic skit along with the textbook to enhance student learning. This skit show is included for comprehension and input of target sentences and words. In junior high school, lessons are often produced mainly from textbooks, so it may be difficult to locate completely different content as CLIL. Yet, CLIL can still be practiced relatively easily using textbooks. In the lesson, beginning with the skit, we can check student’s comprehension of the new vocabulary with flashcards after the dramatic exercise. Quizlet®, a free learning tool, can be used on a single page or as a unit. Since the focus here is on teaching vocabulary, the textbook content and grammar are not mentioned. Rather than writing and remembering the meaning of sentences one by one, it is desirable to teach students to naturally understand and acquire the meaning of sentences by recognizing and repeating them using target words and target sentences.

Table 2. Examples of activities that touch vocabulary during activities

	Target	Activity	Activity purpose and content	Preparation
1	elementary school (grade 5,6)	Screen game	A quiz in which players answer the words that passed through the screen in an instant. Children cannot answer if they are not concentrated.	PC or tablet, projector, original-made game
		Line up game	Children work with their teammates to arrange the cards in the order the teacher says.	

2	elementary school	Typhoon game	“What can you do?” (for the Earth). Repeatedly thinking about a product that can be recycled.	PC or tablet, projector, original-made game
3	junior high school	Skit	Demonstrate a skit using the contents of the textbook.	PC or tablet, projector, original slides
4	junior high school	Flash cards	Show a digital flash card with images such as words, phrases, word connections in a sentence, and pictures.	PC or tablet, projector, original flash cards
5	junior high school	Quizlet® (a free learning tool)	Game-style learning to compete for speed. Participants work in groups. The activity is to select the appropriate words.	PC or tablet, projector, Quizlet®, wi-fi
6	junior high school	About an Austrian architect and artist, Hundertwasser	Hundertwasser, an Austrian architect and painter. Introducing that he designed *Maishima* Sludge Center in Osaka and loved “Japanese *furoshiki*.”	PC or tablet, projector, original slides

3.2 In Elementary School

3.2.1 Lesson titled “What can you do for the earth?”

This lesson has been conducted in the past by one of the authors. In this unit, students learned again in English the 4R’s (reuse/reduce/recycle/refuse) they had already learned in social studies. Students thought about what they could do for the global environment and present their ideas using the phrases “I can reuse…” and “I can reduce…”.

First of all, from an input perspective, a homeroom teacher and an NET (native English teacher) performed a skit. The NET pointed out to the homeroom teacher that he or she had cleaned the room and thrown away the trash without sorting it. The NET appealed to the teacher in charge by saying, “I can still reuse this clothing, and I can recycle this plastic bottle.” After the show, students who learned language and expressions had the opportunity to present what they could do. At the end of the unit, the students watched a video of a speech Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro in 1992 by Severn Cullis-Suzuki who is an Earth Charter International Council Member, to further reinforce what they had learned.

Skit example:

H: Home room teacher, N=Native English teacher

(The homeroom teacher picks up what is in the room and puts it in a trash bag and picks it up.)

N: What's up?
H: I'm busy now.
N: What are you doing?
H: I'm cleaning now.
N: Cleaning?
H: Yes.
N: Oh! no!
H: What?
N: Stop!
H: Why?
N: (NET takes the bag that the teacher has and takes out what is inside.)
That's "*Mottainai*". We can reuse it. We can recycle it (Underlined part is the target sentence).

3.2.2 Line up game

The introduction and definition of the target word is the focus of this unit, but the main premise is that the flow is from input to output.

In elementary school, teachers often use "*karuta*" cards to teach input activities. However, this activity distinguishes between students who are good at listening and those who are not, and students who are skilled at taking cards and those who are not. There is a need for activities that can be done to meet the needs of all learners, not always in competition. It is necessary to carry out activities that allow all students to enjoy a sense of accomplishment. Therefore, this lesson plan recommends and suggests activity "line-up" games that can be run in partnership with the team rather than competing activities.

This activity line-up game is performed using the target vocabulary picture cards. The teacher will call out the vocabulary in a specific order, repeating three times. Students work with their teammates to arrange the cards in the correct order. The first time, the teacher says the target words at a very high speed, the second time slower but still fast, and the third time at normal speed. The activity will start with about five cards, then gradually include all target vocabulary cards for that unit (10 in this particular unit). This game uses Microsoft PowerPoint® animation features to check answers (Figure 1). The vocabulary cards are set to appear on screen in the correct order. One of the authors has done this activity in the past. At that time, confirmed that the students naturally murmur the words on the card.

Therefore, the authors consider this activity to be useful for "listening" and "speaking" activities. This activity can be used in any unit by replacing the vocabulary cards on the PowerPoint® slide. The examples given here are based on word input, but sentence input can also be used. This activity is similar to that of dictogloss (Wajnryb, 1990).

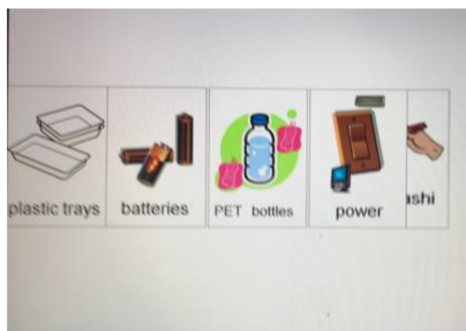


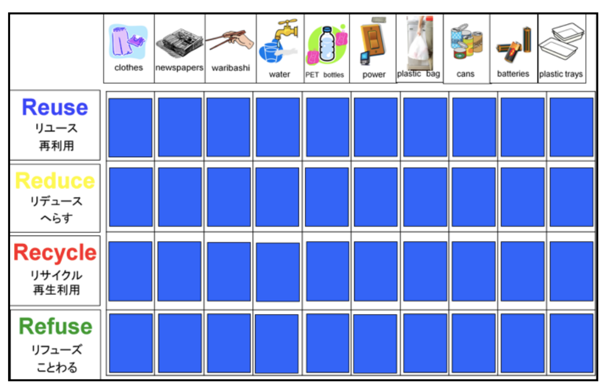
Figure 1. Line up game (A vocabulary card appears, sliding into place)

3.2.3 Typhoon game

In this section an activity called "Typhoon Game" is introduced that allows students to notice the sentence structure.

Foreign language classes will be held twice a week at elementary schools beginning in 2020. When this "Typhoon game" activity was developed, foreign language classes were held just once a week. Children learn words in the first lesson, they learn English expressions in the second lesson, they practice their presentation in the third lesson, and give a presentation in the fourth lesson. However, in that case, students do "output" immediately after "input", which is difficult in practice. Because there is not enough time for students to "intake".

Therefore, one of the authors created a game called "The Typhoon Game" which students can use to practice English expressions repeatedly without getting bored in the lesson. This is used to help them retain the expression *I can [reuse / reduce / refuse / recycle] X.* As shown in Figure 2. The objectives are (1) to create a table and place the words that correspond to the verbs on the left side, and (2) to put the word corresponding to the object on the right upper side. For example, players will select a card where the cards representing the verb 'Recycle' intersect the cards representing the object 'newspapers' and say the expression "I can recycle newspapers". Then the selected card will be clicked on to view the score for that expression (Figure3).



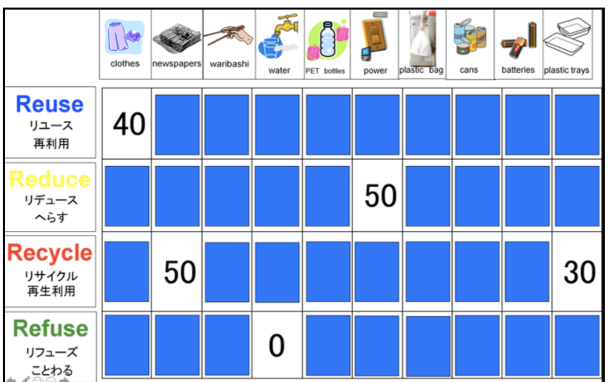


Figure 3. Typhoon game score appears.

Each student, except the group whose turn it is to choose a card and say the expression asks in unison, "What can you do for the earth?" Each child on the team will have an opportunity to answer the question. Each team decides which member answers first, second, and so forth. The activity progresses with the first respondent of each team answering in turns, then the second respondent of each team, and so on. On the back of each card is a number indicating the score for that card. 'T' (Typhoon Card) and 'ST' (Super Typhoon Card) are hidden among the cards (Figure 4).

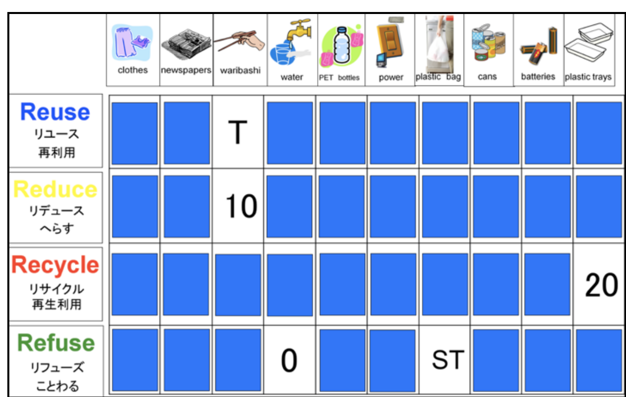


Figure 4. T and ST cards.

If a student draws a T card, that team will lose all points earned up to that point. And if they

draw a ST card, they can reduce the opposing team point to 0. The team with the highest score is the winner. The game is called a typhoon game because it blows away the opposing team's score.

This game has been used for a long time and has previously been done by sticking cards on the blackboard, which takes a great deal of time to prepare. Therefore, one of the authors has recreated this game as a digital teaching material using Microsoft PowerPoint®. This is a mechanism that displays numbers when teachers click on an intersection. By using ICT equipment, teachers are able to significantly reduce preparation time. Even if teachers do not have enough time to do the activity during a lesson, it is easy to save the data and start from where they left off.

The typhoon game had a positive effect on the students who participated in it. The students only needed to choose a combination of English sentence structures in this game, so they could speak without spending a lot of time on repeated practice. Students noticed the sentence structure and noticed the vocabulary which was replaced in the sentences. In addition, the score hidden behind the selected vocabulary card is "0" when an impossible scenario (for example, it is difficult to live by reducing water) is selected. For this reason, a situation was created where students were thinking about which vocabulary card had the highest score, corresponding with an eco-activity that was most effective.

3.3 In Junior High School

3.3.1 Skit in junior high school

The Oral introduction is very important for teaching using textbooks in junior high school (Izumi, 2016; Nakamori, 2018; Inagaki et al., 2020). To improve comprehension of the contents of the textbook, it is valuable for students to enjoy a dramatic skit while listening to the target words repeatedly. The following is a proposed skit example. In this scene, two teachers are dressed up as a mother and a junior high school student and are talking about various examples of recycling in daily conversation. The textbook on which the skit is based is shown in Appendix 1. In the script, new vocabulary, expressions from the textbook, and new grammatical concepts are highlighted. After listening to the skit, the students should repeat new vocabulary, expressions, and new grammar rules as much as possible. Then, when they read their textbooks, they will understand more fully what is being presented. In addition, the vocabulary used in this unit is already familiar. By watching the skit and listening to the dialogue, students are able to learn how to use vocabulary in non-textbook settings.

Skit Example:

Y=Yuki, M=Mom

M: Good morning, Yuki.

Y: Good morning, mom. It's hard for me to get up early. Mom, this T-shirt is too small for me. So, into the trash. (Throw the T-shirt to the trash can).

M: Oh, no! Yuki. What a waste! That's *MOTTAINAI*! Your cousin can wear it. It's important for us to reduce the amount of waste. We can reuse the clothes.

Y: That's for sure, mom. (Reading a newspaper) No interesting TV programs tonight. So, into the trash. (Throw the newspaper to the trash can).

M: Oh, no! Yuki. What a waste! That's *MOTTAINAI*! You can recycle it.

Y: Recycle the newspaper? How?

M: A recycle truck will come next week or shall we go to a supermarket tomorrow? Some supermarkets collect newspapers or magazines, you know?

Y: Really? I didn't know that.

M: (Open a food wrapper.) Oh, too much wrapping.

Y: What a waste! That's *MOTTAINAI*!

M: That's for sure. It's important to reduce the amount of waste.

Y: (The chair is rattling) Mom, this chair is broken.

M: Really? I'll repair it later. We can reuse it. (Throw the tray to the trash can)

Y: Mom, bring them to a supermarket.

M: Uh-oh.

3.3.2 FlashCards

Flashcards are often used in junior high school English classes. However, traditional flashcards have only English and Japanese characters written on them. Some students cannot learn by word information alone. It is problematic that only students who are confident in their memory skills can get a good score in English class. The use of flash cards with visual information is more likely to be established than the process of understanding in words (Mochizuki et al., 2003: Iino et al., 2011) This can be a digital flashcard that contains words, phrases, sentences, and/or related pictures. By using an image which expresses the meaning of the phrase, the student's understanding is enhanced.

Figure 6. Digital flash card example, “repair the chair”

3.3.3 Quizlet®

The authors think that using existing ICT software and apps is also very effective in reducing the burden on teachers. One effective tool is Quizlet®. Quizlet® is an online learning tool developed by Andrew Sutherland. The features of this game are as follows:

1. "Flash card"- Flash Cards are employed.
2. "Gravity"- Word definitions "fall" on the screen; students must enter a phrase before they pass.
3. "Write"- Learn words and definitions displayed and students input the corresponding contents.
4. "Long-Term Learning"- Repeating the test at intervals for the purpose of long-term memory consolidation. This gives priority to content based on past correct/incorrect tendencies.
5. "Speller"- Input the voice content correctly.
6. "Match"- A race to match words to definitions as quickly as possible by dragging the word over the correct definition.

Repeated learning is necessary to establish a strong vocabulary. However, there are students who are strong at learning through mere repetition, and students who are not. Because this Quizlet® can be played like a game, it is a learning method that fits a wide variety of students. Although the app uses a machine voice, voice recordings can also be added and used for flashcards. A teacher can also use word- books created by others without entering their own words or creating their own word-books.

Research has been done which shows that using Quizlet® activities and some flashcards are effective in class. The scores of the students using Quizlet® were improved (Barr, 2016). The Quizlet® instruction can be used for both individual and group activities.

Using Quizlet®, the authors suggest an approach to mastering vocabulary in CLIL lessons. As mentioned earlier, there are limited CLIL resources in Japan. There are few teaching materials, worksheets, and word-books that fit the lesson content. Therefore, using Quizlet® is effective in establishing lesson content, target sentences, and target words for CLIL lessons, and reduces the burden on teachers. This is because Quizlet® is easily customized to suit the words and expressions the learner wants to learn.

Figure 6. Quizlet®

3.4 Report of Quizlet® *Workshop for teachers*

The authors conducted Quizlet® workshops for teachers who were interested in CLIL lesson on May 18, 2019. Participants checked the vocabulary after watching a skit, and then learned the words using Quizlet's® Live function. The skit included a new target word for this lesson. As previously mentioned, it is important to focus on context and learn related words, rather than learning words and content individually. Looking at the workshop participants, the authors are convinced that this method was very effective. In addition, Quizlet® has functions that can be used for self-study as well as in-class activities.

The participants also learned about these functions. During the workshop, the participants said, "By using Quizlet, students can be motivated." Another participant commented, "There are many original teaching materials for CLIL lessons. It was easy to give vocabulary instruction." However, on the other hand, it was pointed out that unavoidable problems in using ICT equipment such as, "I am worried about using the equipment" and "It cannot be used unless the school network environment is in place" could be a concern. It is needed to be continued to concern with these problems.

3.5 Perspective of the intercultural education in the Classroom Activity

One of CLIL's 4Cs is "culture/community". It is necessary to acquire a perspective of intercultural education throughlessons, "however, intercultural education in Japan's schools is often criticized as ineffectual" (Oshiro, 2001). In this lesson, the authors will focus on the intercultural education of classroom activity and propose an example. From the perspective of eliminating or recycling wrapping paper, "Japanese *furoshiki*" has a great idea to solve it. Friedensreich Hundertwasser was an Austrian artist who designed the *Maishima* Sludge Center in Osaka City, as well as the waste disposal facility of the Osaka City Environment Bureau. He found beauty in curves and left behind buildings with unique designs all over the world. Hundertwasser showed interest in "Japanese *furoshiki*" and praised it as "beautiful and lean" and "universal packaging." In 1997, he drew 12 kinds of "*furoshiki*" pictures and

commercialized them.

In this lesson, a teacher will introduce the buildings and the "*furoshiki*" that Hundertwasser designed, and show that the "*furoshiki*" is an item of world-class Japanese culture.
The students' cognition will be deepened if they incorporate activities that make them think about Japanese culture from the 4R perspective of reuse, reduce, refuse, and recycle. When teaching junior high school lessons using textbooks, it is needed to add a perspective of CLIL and an international consciousness. As a result, the lessons will deepen and spread.

4. Summary

The purpose of this proposal is to propose an effective CLIL lesson plan and reduce the burden on teachers when creating CLIL materials using ICT equipment and develop a CLIL lesson plan that emphasizes vocabulary instruction. These CLIL lesson plans proposed by the authors incorporated the topic of environmental education. These lesson plans were considered from the following three viewpoints: (1) CLIL in cooperation between elementary and junior high schools on environmental education, (2) ICT utilization in classes, and (3) vocabulary instruction in CLIL lessons. Regarding collaboration, the authors created a lesson plan for environmental issues in elementary and junior high schools that matched the students' developmental age, school curriculum, and textbook content. Secondly, they created a lesson plan to use ICT equipment effectively and systematically in the class. As a final area of focus, the authors created a lesson plan for vocabulary instruction that matches the context of the CLIL lesson using ICT equipment. There will be a need for instruction that links elementary and junior high schools, and that teaches vocabulary using authentic topics based on textbooks and expands the content. In the future, the authors would like to continue proposing easy accesses to ICT usage for teachers and also conduct a CLIL lesson that uses this ICT device to strengthen vocabulary skills for students and clarify their achievements and work to address any issues.

Vocabulary guidance for CLIL classes using ICT equipment can be made from textbooks and units. However, the authors practice and study CLIL, and CLIL has few teaching materials in which to draw teaching material from. In addition, it is necessary to have authentic content that matches the actual conditions of the students. If teachers use ICT equipment as in this proposal, it is possible to easily use original teaching materials. The authors believe that it is effective for both students and teachers. In particular, it will be effective in versatility including time reduction, immediacy, and reuse.

Appendix 1. Kairyudo Sunshine 3 “The 5 Rs(reduce/reuse/recycle/refuse/repair) to Save the Earth”

(1) Basic Dialog
A: Shall we go fishing tomorrow morning?
B: Sure. When and where shall we meet?
A: Let’s meet at the park at five.
B: At five? It’s hard for me to get up so early.
(New Words)
Trash, waste, chair, reduce, reuse, recycle, can(s), What a waste! That’s for sure.

Takeshi: Look at the mountain of trash!
Lisa: What a waste! You can still use this chair.
Takeshi: That’s for sure. We should do something about it.
Lisa: Yes. It’s important for us to reduce the amount of waste!
Takeshi: Right! We need to reuse things more. We throw away many things, but we can still use some of them.
Lisa: In my country, we reuse many things.
Takeshi: Is that so? We can also recycle things like newspapers or cans.
Lisa: Well, those are the 3 Rs: reduce, reuse, and recycle.

(2) Basic Dialog
A: Do you play shogi?
B: No. I don’t know how to play it.
A: It’s not so difficult. Do you want to learn?
B: Yes, I do.

Lisa: We can do more than those 3 Rs, you know?
Takeshi: Really? What can we do?
Lisa: We can learn how to become friendly to the earth.
For example, many people use plastic bags form stores when they don’t really need to.
Takeshi: That’s true. Plastic bags are made from oil. A lot of CO is produced when they are made.
Lisa: We can “refuse” to use them and use our own shopping bags. It’s easy for us to do that.

(3) Basic Dialog
A: Hello. This is Tom. May I speak to Ken, please?
B: Sorry, but he isn’t back yet.
A: Could you ask him to call me back?
B: Sure.

Lisa, do you remember we talked about the 4 Rs the day before yesterday? I have another R to add. The other day I found that my bike chain was broken. I thought, “How lucky!” I asked my father to buy me a new bike. But he said, “You don’t need a new one.” I can repair your bike.” A few days later, he repaired it. I think “repair” is the 5th R.
We must remember these 5 Rs if we really care about the earth.

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Developing Leadership Skills and Language Proficiency in CLIL Lessons through Teaching Experiences in Japan and the U.S.

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Abstract
Leadership is an important skill for working and living in an international society. It includes many competencies to understand personal values and the values and positions held by others, to find various hidden agendas and risks, to motivate others, to solve problems and to lead oneself and others in a better direction. As a professional leadership educator trained at the East-West Center in the U.S., I have conducted many leadership lessons at educational institutions and community events in the U.S. and Japan since 2017. In the U.S., the sessions are pure "leadership training" mainly for English native speakers or native-level speakers. However, in Japan, when I conduct the sessions in English for English learners, they become "CLIL-based leadership training" and help develop English proficiency, by using the 4Cs (Contents, Communication, Cognition and Culture) framework as well as core leadership skills. Almost all leadership training sessions utilize task-based learning. Therefore, students have to communicate, understand content and culture in English, and deepen cognition. In this study, I will examine how CLIL can be applied to a leadership training linked to my teaching experiences.

Keywords: Leadership, CLIL, 4Cs (Content, Communication, Cognition and Culture)

1. Introduction

Leadership is not a natured talent but nurtured skill. A famous leadership educator and Professor of Emeritus at Harvard University, John P. Kotter, defines leadership in the following words: "Leadership isn't mystical and mysterious. It has nothing to do with having 'charisma' or an exotic personality trait" (Kotter, 2007, p.23). As we learn language, science and mathematics, we can discover leadership through practice. Of course, on-the-job leadership experience is highly valuable. However, there are many tools and approaches that help students learn about leadership in the classroom. Leadership skills are very useful for not only business people but for students to develop a sense of responsibility, independence, and care for others.

The East-West Center (hereafter the EWC) in the U.S. is an educational institute established by the U.S. government in 1960. The EWC is one of the original organizations providing professional leadership training sessions to future leaders, especially people from the Asia Pacific Region. This is because the EWC's mission is to promote peace to both the east and

the west, specifically the Asia Pacific Region after World War II, believing that good leaders contribute to world peace.

As a leadership fellow at the Asia Pacific Leadership Program 2017-2018 at the EWC, I learned and gained an understanding of different perspectives, tools and approaches that apply to leadership. I have also conducted many leadership lessons at educational institutions in the U.S. and Japan since 2017, using materials developed by the EWC. In the U.S., the lessons are pure "leadership training" mainly for English native or native-level speakers. In Japan, however, when I conduct the training sessions using English for English learners, they become “Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)-based leadership training” and help develop English proficiency, using the 4Cs (Contents, Communication, Cognition and Culture) framework as well as core leadership skills.

In this paper, I will examine how CLIL can be applied to leadership training sessions from my teaching experience and idea. The first section discusses why leadership lessons are needed. The second section outlines three examples of “CLIL-based leadership training sessions.” The third section introduces how leadership training sessions can be applied to CLIL. The last section is the conclusion.

2. Why are leadership lessons needed?

2.1 Definition of leadership

The term “leadership” cannot be easily defined, but great leaders have the philosophy and power to change groups, society and the world for the better. We may call their philosophy and the power “leadership.” Leadership includes many competencies: to understand oneself and another’s values and positions, to find various hidden agendas and risks, to motivate team members, to solve problems and to lead oneself and others towards a better direction.

The EWC defines leadership not as a position but a “process.” One of my former colleagues at the EWC, Dr. Melody Agbisit, said that “leadership is a simply way of life” (Agbisit, 2018, p.6). This means that “leaders” are continuously required to think, make decisions and find direction in daily life. Each decision and action contribute to making reality.

Prof. John P. Kotter defined leadership as “coping with change” (Kotter, 2007, p.24). We currently live in a society labeled VUCA (Volatility, Uncertainty, Complexity and Ambiguity). “VUCA now defines the competitive environment of the digital economy in which organization must adapt structures to match rapidly changing and more complex landscapes” (Cousins, 2018, p.1).

Emerging technology, globalization and global issues such as climate change force us to “change” or to adapt to new situations. “Major changes are more and more necessary to

survive and compete effectively in the new environment. More change always demands more leadership" (Kotter, 2007, p.24).

2.2 Leadership without authority

Leadership does not equal authority. Authority is a role to manage groups or organizations. "Leadership is about influence not control… Leadership involves mobilizing people… All human beings have leadership potential" (Barker, 2017, p.1).

One short film named "The Tree" is useful to teach leadership without authority. This is an advertisement broadcasted in India for a televised contest show called Lead India. Its purpose, according to Times of India, the sponsor, is "to identify new leaders for a new India, men and women with the vision and ability to empower India with the kind of leadership that is so conspicuous by its absence" (Doug, 2013, para.10-11).

> The story opens with a large tree, blocking the road. It caused critical traffic jams, and nobody could do anything about it. Then in the heavy rain, a small boy, around six years old, got off the bus and started pushing the large tree. Other children inspired by his action came to assist him, and then adults began pushing the tree alongside the children. They finally removed the fallen tree (The Time of India, 2013).

In the film, one police officer was sleeping, and another stayed in the car, looking at his cell phone. They did not fulfill their roles as "authorities" to solve the problem; however, the small boy showed strong leadership without authority. He tackled difficulties, motivated others, built a team, and finally resolved the issue.

From the CLIL-based leadership training perspective, after the film streaming, students can discuss about who the leader in the film (Communication) in English. They also notice unpaved and congested streets in India (Culture and Contents), and understand the small boy's brave power to change the situation and the leadership without authority (Contents and Cognition). To develop learning, a teacher can ask students to share their own experience or other examples about leadership without authorities.

In fact, leadership without authority exists in the real world. Reflecting on my previous career experience as a journalist[1], I met many "leaders without authority." One example is a school clerk in Oita Prefecture, Japan. He saved money and donated it every year for primary education in Bangladesh through an NGO. This is because he understood their hardship, poverty, and need for education from his experience after WWII when he was a child. His wish was for children to have a chance to study and expand their possibilities even in their

[1] The author worked as a journalist for the Yomiuri Newspaper and other media for approximately 10 years.

difficulty in Bangladesh. By the time he retired at the age of 60 in 2003, he had donated a total of 10 million JPY, and had built an elementary school in a remote area of Bangladesh. His action inspired a local fisherman in Bangladesh. When the NGO decided to build a school with the clerk's donations, the local fisherman decided to donate land for the school because his illiteracy and lack of education had made his life very hard.

I use the above examples to teach leadership without authority. If people have a passionate vision and continue to act, they can change the world. Professor and Senior Associate Dean at Harvard Business School, Robert S. Kaplan, defines a leader as "person who knows its own belief and acts bravely for the belief" (Robert, 2015, p. 252). Leadership training begins with the idea that everyone can become a "leader" in a society – just as the small boy and the school clerk illustrated.

2.3 Why is leadership training needed?

With the understanding that a leader is not a position or title but is action, we need "leaders" to address and adapt to social change and create innovation. However, without any tools, ways of thinking and experiences, it is difficult to develop leadership naturally. Therefore, we need more leadership training.

In Western countries, there are many leadership training opportunities from primary education. it is quite common to list leadership skills as a required criterion for professional and personal achievement. Therefore, students are well trained in western countries where "leadership" is valued as a specific skill.

On the other hand, as the traditional proverb "the nail that sticks out will be hammered down" illustrates, Japan traditionally values harmony. Japanese companies expect their employees to adapt to their companies' culture as they work as lifetime employees. However, due to expanding globalization and information and communication technology (ICT), our world is getting small, and we need to work beyond borders and domestic values. Youth are required to work in more diversified organizations and societies. "Companies operating business around the world have come to judge the value of people based on global common rules, not on Japanese ones for the remuneration and abilities" (Ishikura, 2006, p.42). Leadership and CLIL are tools that help establish global competencies as the following examples illustrate.

3 Examples of "CLIL-based leadership training"

The first step in leadership training session for my classes is to learn about values. Knowing values is very important for leaders because values influence decisions, behavior and actions. People see the same issue differently and act differently according to their values. Without knowing personal values and the values of others, it is very difficult to find a path, to create

visions, and understand one another. Mr. Keith Coats, a famous leadership trainer based in the U.K. and South Africa, said, "the reality is that we see the world, not as it is, but we are."[2] Three examples are discussed in the following sections.

3.1 Finding your own values using value cards[3]

A "value card set" has been developed to help students discuss their own values. Each card represents a particular value such as peace, family or inner harmony and has a detailed description of the value. Students need to understand all the value definitions, at first in English. However, it is not easy for students to describe their own values. As such, students are asked several questions to help them reflect on their values at the beginning of class; for example,

> "Think of a major life decision you recently made. What value(s) did you demonstrate based on the decision you made?" "Think of an argument you had recently with a friend or family member. What were the underlying values being debated? What values were you demonstrating in your opinion? " (The East-West Center, 2017b, p.1)

After consideration, each student reflects on their value and talks about their response to their peers. They organize and share their stories in a professional manner as well as defining their own values which control their actions and feelings.

As students work through the cards, they begin to categorize each value card into three groups reflecting on their values: "always valued," "sometimes valued," and "least valued." Finally, they choose three cards which they value most in their lives. It is a hard decision because each value has significance and meaning. During this process, students have to face their values seriously. To conclude the activity, students are required to explain "how the three values manifest in their life and give an example that would help someone understand them better" (The East-West Center, 2017b, p.1). Through the value-finding activities, students build their vocabulary with new words they learned from the value cards in English. They share their experience with peers and acknowledge their values through the presentation.

3.2 Finding others' values and making consensus from the "Stranded Island"[4] *workshop*

The next step is to learn about their own and others' values, consensus building and decision-making in a complex society. Using an activity called "Stranded Island," students are requested to select a rescuee amongst eight airplane crash survivors on a fictional island

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[2] Mr. Coats expressed this idea at the EWC in the U.S. on 14 September 2017.

[3] These activities are developed by the EWC. The idea of the value cards and the activities in this section attribute to the EWC. I am authorized to use them, and write them in this paper with the permission of the EWC.

[4] The detailed description of this game is the EWC's idea. The author has received permission to use this game for the leadership lessons and write an article on it by the EWC.

within a given amount of time. Each survivor has a different circumstance: a pregnant woman close to giving birth; a world-famous physician-and-geneticist who is urgently needed in Japan to help prevent a potential major genetic viral outbreak; a severely injured old man; a famous diplomat to play an important role for peace-building in Syria; a very dangerous criminal; a blind teenage girl; the Vice-President of Indonesia; and a two-year old girl.

First, the students think individually for five minutes, and choose one rescuee. Then they join groups of around 15 people. They discuss for 15 minutes and decide who to rescue based on group consensus without voting. Through the discussion, students discuss multiple opinions, persuade others and decide as a team.

After making their decision, I ask each student, "what values did you use to make a decision?" to make them reflect on their discussion.

> Each value they hold reflects on each decision they make. There are many values such as numeracy (saving one life or many lives); emergency (Life-death situations); authority-based (on someone's role); life duration (Short-term life expectancy vs long-term) and prioritizing peace (Inside the group in the island vs outside the island to affect the global situation) (The East-West Center, 2017a).

There is no right answer to this game. The aims of this activity are to understand one's own values and the values of their peers so that they understand that everyone has different values. This value-learning exercise concludes that all decisions are "values made real" (The East-West Center, 2017a).

Through this activity, students learn about the importance of contribution to the group and using varied strategies as well. They reflect on their contribution to the discussion, the influences of others, the use of ego to win over others and factors that caused a decision change. They understand their position within the group. They learn the importance of making contributions to discussions, persuasion skills, listening skills and flexibility (being open mind) to others' proposals. The session motivates them to become people who can convey their opinion logically.

In addition, students learn that developing their own strategy and framework at the very beginning is most efficient when they must decide within a limited amount of time. In cases where students exercised multiple opinions without prior agreement of their discussion-making structure or time frame, they often failed to reach consensus before the clock ran out. The failure to come to a consensus is also good lessons learned from the session.

The interesting point is that this game reflects on culture as well. When I conducted the games at a university in the U.S., students insisted on their opinion, and talked over their peers. After the discussion, I needed to teach the importance of "listening skills" to respect others' opinions and how to listen to group members patiently. When I facilitated the game in Japan, some students were quiet during the discussion. I needed to teach the importance of participation. When the game was conducted with a diverse group of people, the discussion reflected their culture of origin.

From the perspective of CLIL context, I change the balance of language acquisition and contents according to the students' English level as well. For instance, when I conducted the "Stranded Island" session at a high school, I replaced the difficult words with easy ones in the text, and explained their definition and grammar in more detail. When I conducted the game at universities, I focused more on the content instead of language acquisition. I expected the university students to be able to handle the English.

3.3 Learning through conversation with a real leader

Another approach to teach leadership, using a CLIL context, is having a conversation with a real leader in English. Utilizing ICT, I connect classes with non-Japanese "leaders" via "Skype®" so that students are able to learn different perspectives, circumstances, positions and leadership approaches in the real world.

In 2018 and 2019, I connected my classes with Ms. Shabana Basij-Rasikh, President of the School of Leadership, Afghanistan (hereafter SOLA), an Afghanistan-led private boarding school for girls. Under the Taliban regime in Afghanistan girls are forbidden education, so Ms. Basij-Rasikh dressed as a boy and went to a secret school in Kabul during her childhood. At the end of the Taliban regime, she co-funded SOLA to provide education opportunities and security for girls in 2008 when she was 18 years old. She was named one of CNN International's Leading Women of 2014 and one of National Geographic's 2014 Emerging Explorers (SOLA, 2019, para.7). As a world leader, she gives students a new view of what is possible.

To prepare for the Skype® session, students watched the 10-minute film "Dare to Educate Afghan Girls" in which Ms. Basij-Rasikh introduced her childhood situation under the Taliban regime and her motivation for education and SOLA at TEDxWomen 2012 (Basij-Rasikh, 2012). Through her speech, students learned about the gender and social situation in Afghanistan and about Ms. Basij-Rasikh's values and leadership skills needed to run a girls' boarding school in Afghanistan. Second, I educated students about Ms. Basij-Rasikh's background regarding her stories, especially about the gender situation in Afghanistan, using slides comparing them to Japan. As an assignment for the week, the students prepared questions for Ms. Basij-Rasikh in English for the upcoming Skype® session. After

submission, I slightly corrected their English and explained "good questions" such as open questions to which the speaker cannot answer "yes" or "no." Finally, on the very day of the Skype® session, after listening to her stories, students asked their questions in English and took notes. This was very exciting for young students to connect the Japanese classroom to a school in Afghanistan, and to talk directly in English with a world-leading woman. After class, students wrote thank you letters to Ms. Basij-Rasikh in English. Through these activities, the students learned about real leadership, particularly regarding the gender and educational situation from a female world-leader, and used English in a practical situation.

In addition, technological awareness is one of the key competencies for global leaders. Therefore, I taught about how we could plan and organize teleconferences using ICT. I introduced several systems including Polycom®, Skype®, WhatsAPP® to use for an international teleconference. I also explained the importance of preparation in setting the agenda, fixing members and considering members' time zones and schedules before the meeting, and taught students to consider follow up to decide on the focal points of each role and action plans or outcomes after the meeting. I shared my real teleconference experiences which I conducted with a variety of colleagues and stakeholders around the world when I worked for the United Nations.[5] This activity was a hands - on utilization of ICT, business and management skills for both study and work globally to students.

4 How can CLIL be applied to leadership training?

As the above three examples illustrated, almost all leadership training sessions at my classes utilize task-based learning approaches. Therefore, when I conduct the sessions in English, students must understand content and culture, communicate, and deepen cognition using language-integrated skills (reading, speaking, listening, writing) in English. In this section, I will introduce how these three activities that exemplified leadership skills use the CLIL framework.

4.1 Definition of CLIL and the CLIL educational approach

First, I will confirm the definition of CLIL. A leading CLIL scholar, Prof. Do Coyle at the University of Edinburgh, defines CLIL as follows: "Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is a dual focused educational approach in which an additional language[6] is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language" (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010, p1). President of the Japan CLIL Pedagogy Association, Prof. Shigeru Sasajima at Toyo Eiwa University, introduces CLIL as follows: "the main features of CLIL are the emphasis on understanding the **Content** of the learning, focusing on the learner's thinking and learning skills, **Cognition**, fostering the learner's **Communication** skills, and raising

[5] The author worked for the United Nations from 2010 to 2017.

[6] "Additional language is often a learner's 'foreign language,' but it may also be a second language or some form of heritage or community language (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010, p.1)"

awareness of **Culture** and/or intercultural understanding (Sasajima, para.4).” This is called the CLIL 4Cs (Content, Communication, Cognition, and Culture of CLIL) framework.

CLIL has flexibility between two teaching styles: hard CLIL, which teaches content mainly in an additional (foreign) language, or soft CLIL, which teaches content in an additional (foreign) language and students’ mother tongue according to learning purpose and students’ level.

CLIL has two types of teachers: Language teachers whose specialty is language teaching such as Teaching English as a Second or foreign Language (TESOL), and content teachers who are specialists of contents such as leadership, journalism, and science. Both language and content teachers can contribute to developing CLIL and conduct CLIL-based education utilizing their strength. Collaborated research and team-teaching by content and language teachers would create synergy.

Since CLIL has flexibility concerning the teaching method of language balance between an additional (foreign) language and a mother tongue, the educational approach is clear compared to a non-CLIL educational one. The Vice President of the Japan CLIL Pedagogy Association, Prof. Makoto Ikeda at Sophia University, categorizes CLIL educational and Non-CLIL educational approaches as the following.

Table 1. CLIL educational and Non-CLIL educational approaches (Ikeda, 2017, p.12)[7]

CLIL educational approach	Non-CLIL educational approach
Interaction	Instruction
Dialogic	Monologic
Task (Problem Solving)	Exercise
Language Use	Language Practice
Skills Integration	Skills Segregation
Authentic	Artificial
In-Context	Out-of-Context
Scaffolding	Spoon-Feeding
Cognition	Repetition
Higher-Order Thinking Skills	Lower-Order Thinking Skills
Language Activation	Language Acquisition

[7] From *Eigo de kyoka naiyou ya senmon wo manabu [Learn contents and subject in English]* (p.12), by Institute for Advanced Studies in Education at Waseda University, 2017, Tokyo: Gakubunsha. Copyright (2017) by M. Ikeda. Reprinted and translated from Japanese to English with permission.

Ikeda underscores:

> CLIL education does not only aim at language acquisition, but "generic skills (In this paper, I use the word 'universal competencies' instead of 'generic skill.' The original word in Japanese is *hanyoryoku*)" which are so-called 21st-century skills[8] in the U.S. and key competencies[9] in Europe.
>
> Universal competencies include three aspects: cognition capacity, such as developing knowledge skills (to apply the knowledge for real life and career); social capability, such as collaboration skill to work with others effectively; and ethical capability, such as responsibility for international society (to engage in and contribute to the international community) (Ikeda, 2017, pp.13-14).

For CLIL educational approaches, students' participation is essential. Dr. Peter Mehisto defines CLIL lessons as follows: "Broadly speaking, the primary purpose of scaffolding is to support students in actively engaging with the entire learning process" (Mehisto with Ting, 2017, p.131) in his book "CLIL Essentials for Secondary School Teachers: The Cambridge Teacher Series." It is difficult to enhance their "universal competencies" to contribute to the world without participation.

4.2 Challenge of CLIL education

One of the biggest challenges in CLIL education is the "mental change of educators." In Japan, Non-CLIL educational approaches have traditionally been conducted for language education, using commercial text books. Therefore, the CLIL educational approach requires educators to change their teaching method from monologic lectures and exercises that require students to choose the "right answer" from several options, to a dialogic style and task-based learning. Prof. Ikeda pointed out at a panel discussion at Waseda University in 2016:

> Good CLIL education requires teachers to prepare original education materials and study contents deeply. If teachers accept the task, teachers would develop and go to the next stage. If they deny the challenge, they will stay at the same level. CLIL implementation is related to teachers' growth (Harada, 2017, p.92).

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[8] 21st Century skills are defined by ATC21S with an emphasis on communication and collaboration, problem-solving, digital literacy to prepare for 21st-century employment in an information-age society (ATC21S). Partnership for 21st Century Learning defines the competencies as: 1) Learning and Career skills; 2) Learning and Innovation skills, the 4Cs (critical thinking, communication, collaboration, and creativity; and 3) Information, Media and Technology skills (Battelle for Kids).

[9] The European Reference Framework sets out eight key competencies: 1) Communication in the mother tongue; 2) Communication in foreign languages;3) Mathematical competence and basic competences in science and technology; 4) Digital competence; 5) Learning to learn; 6) Social and civic competences; 7) Sense of initiative and entrepreneurship; 8) Cultural awareness and expression (Young Adult, pera.4).

Education includes not only academic research but also developing human talents. Therefore, in order to nurture the next generation in the coming age, it is essential that educators themselves realize how the world is changing and develop their teaching style to meet new needs.

To motivate teachers, acknowledgement is significant. If teachers understand the change of our society, criteria of 21st-century employment and the CLIL education approach's advantages, they may study CLIL, and introduce its methodology in their classes. However, if they do not understand the new competences in real world and CLIL, they will keep their traditional teaching styles. Therefore, CLIL scholars and educational institutes need to advocate the CLIL education approach's advantages and create more social change while they implement their own CLIL lessons.

This social demand is not only in the field of education but in general. A Professor of Emeritus, Hitotsubashi University and a member of the World Economic Forum's Expert Network, Yoko Ishikura, alerted that "In the 21st century, change is fast and companies will quickly lose their position if they do not continue to innovate. Individuals are always required to upgrade, review and address new areas as well" (Ishikura, 2011, p.90). All professionals need to change with the time.

4.3 Synergy of CLIL education and Leadership training

Although CLIL and Leadership are different academic fields, they have much in common, especially regarding teaching methods and learning goals. In this section, I analyze how CLIL can be applied to leadership training sessions.

Regarding teaching method, both Leadership training sessions and CLIL use task-based learning (active learning). Developing Ikeda's CLIL educational approach (Table 1), I created Table 2.

Table 2. Educational approach for CLIL and leadership training sessions (Adapted from: Ikeda 2017, p.12)[7]

Educational approach	**CLIL**	**Leadership lessons**
Interaction	✔	✔
Dialogic	✔	✔
Task (Problem Solving)	✔	✔
Language Use	✔	✔
Skills Integration	✔	✔
Authentic	✔	✔

In-Context	✔	✔
Scaffolding	✔	✔
Cognition	✔	✔
Higher-Order Thinking Skills	✔	✔
Language Activation	✔	✔

Leadership lessons have the same approach as CLIL. Since leadership lessons do not aim at additional language (foreign) acquisition, "languages capability" itself is a critical tool for leaders to deliver messages, negotiate, and motivate others.

Next, I will analyze three leadership training sessions in section 3, using the CLIL 4Cs framework. All leadership training sessions contribute to enhancing "universal competencies" which the CLIL educational approach can develop.

Table 3. Analysis of Value Card, using the CLIL 4Cs framework

	Activities & Language activation	**Building Competencies**
Contents	• Choose three cards representing things students' value most in their lives from a deck of value cards	• Declarative knowledge • Value awareness
Cognition	• Find and analyze personal values, reflect on previous experiences and decisions • Study about the influence and power of values • Design future career and life plan, using personal values	• Develop knowledge • Higher-order thinking skills • Creative skills • Career and life design skills
Communication	• Build new vocabulary through value cards • Speak about own values with a group	• Language knowledge • Language activation skills • Communication skills • Public speaking
Culture	• Listen to different values from others' presentation	• Cooperative learning skills • Listening skills • Intercultural awareness

Table 4. Analysis of the "Stranded Island" workshop, using the CLIL 4Cs framework

	Activities & Language activation	**Building Competencies**
Contents	• Select a rescuee amongst eight airplane crash survivors	• Declarative knowledge • Decision-making • Value awareness
Cognition	• Think individually and choose one rescuee and reason • Think about strategy for discussion • Reflect on discussion and values	•Developing knowledge • Higher-order thinking skills • Critical Thinking • Strategy building
Communication	• Participate in discussion in a group • Present own ideas and persuade others in a group • Listen to others' ideas and reasons	• Language activation skills • Communication skills • Negotiation and presentation skills • Listening skills
Culture	• (Volunteer to be a moderator) • Make a consensus within a limited amount of time and without a vote • Share reflections on the game in groups or write a comment paper	• Cooperative learning skills • Facilitation and coordination skills • Decision-making without a vote (Consensus) • Team-building • Intercultural awareness • Reflection

Table 5. Analysis of Conversation with a real leader, Ms. Basij-Rasikh, using the CLIL 4Cs framework

	Activities & Language activation	**Building Competencies**
Contents	• Watch a TED film to learn about situation and gender issues in Afghanistan and leadership • Compare the gender situation in Afghanistan and Japan using data	• Declarative knowledge • Cultural awareness • Gender awareness • Leadership • Digital competencies • Business skills and protocol

	• Study how to use ICT tools and business protocol for teleconferences	
Cognition	• Analyze the background of gender and social issues in Afghanistan (e.g. poverty, conflict, early marriage and social system) • Analyze about how Ms. Basij-Rasikh has led and changed society and her community • Reflect on own life and situation in Japan, compare it to Afghanistan	• Developing knowledge • Higher-order thinking skills • Analytical intelligence • Creative skills • Leadership
Communication	• Listen to Ms. Basij-Rasikh's speech in English via Skype • Think about questions for Ms. Basij-Rasikh and write them in English • Ask questions to Ms. Basij-Rasikh via Skype • Write a thank-you letter to Ms. Basij-Rasikh	• Language knowledge • Language activation skills • Public speaking • Communication skills • Public speaking
Culture	• Dialogue with Ms. Basij-Rasikh • Share what they learn from Ms. Basij-Rasikh in a class	• Cooperative learning skills • Listening skills • Reflection • Intercultural awareness • Global awareness

The leadership training sessions can be conducted in the students' mother tongue. However, if leadership trainees develop an additional (foreign) language, especially when English skills are activated, through the session, it creates synergy. This is because English is critical for leaders to work effectively in the world. In cases when I conduct the session in the students' mother tongue (Japanese), I raise awareness of language proficiency, especially English at the end. I tell students, "If you do the same session with international members, non-Japanese speakers, you have to convey your opinion in English logically. Language proficiencies, especially English, is very important to study, work and live globally."

5 Conclusion

Both leadership training and CLIL contribute to educating students to become 21st-century employees and global citizens so that they can live and work in a new digital and globalized society. "CLIL-based leadership training" helps them to develop global competencies including language activation effectively.

In addition, if the training is conducted by members with diversified backgrounds, e.g. different generations, gender, languages, ethnicities and majors, participants can learn more about different values, culture and complexity of international communities. As I conducted several training sessions with diverse members in the U.S., participants contributed to training reflecting on their original culture, geopolitical situation and religions as well as individual values. Participants also had to communicate with speakers with many varieties of English, challenging both participants whose mother tongues are English and second language English speakers. Sessions with diverse members are "real world" activities with complexity and diversity.

In Japan's tertiary education, it is ideal to build a more international learning environment to enjoy benefits of "CLIL-based leadership training" with diversified members. It is also necessary to conduct teachers' training and prepare learning materials using CLIL methodology to teach Leadership and global competencies to educate global citizens. Through the process, teachers can acknowledge new social demands. "CLIL-based leadership training" is a useful tool to change not only students but teachers.

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Learners and Teachers of CLIL

Learners' Beliefs About Target Language Use Only in the CLIL Class

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Abstract
This study investigates learner's beliefs about the target language use in a CLIL class. The participants are university students at a women's university whose English proficiency levels are lower than the intermediate level. This university has a school policy that students should learn content in English only, therefore, all of the classes at this university are conducted in English only except for some classes. These participants (*N* = 105: female only) responded to a five-point Likert-scale questionnaire (Ueno, 2018) which added six more questions to the original BALLI (Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory, Horwitz, 1985). An exploratory factor analysis was conducted in order to identify the underlying factors of learners' beliefs. The results for this quantitative study showed that there were different sets of beliefs about the target language use only in the CLIL course, which generally seemed to be difficult for the beginner level of students to understand the content of the textbooks in English only. However, this study found an additional value for the students to take the CLIL class despite the difficulty of using only the target language in the class.

Keywords: Belief, Target language use only, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI)

1. Introduction

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has been recognized as a meaningful way to learn content in the target language (TL) in an English education environment. A recent rise in popularity of CLIL in Japan has piqued the interest of researchers and teachers who have taken part in the model. Although the term CLIL is well-known, its practice has not been identified yet as much as its reputation in Japan, especially in relation to target language use only in the context of university classrooms. Content and Language Integrated Learning originated in Europe in the early 1990s, mainly to promote bilingualism and multilingualism for EU citizens during primary and secondary education (MacGregor, 2016). As Japanese learners are studying in an EFL (English as a foreign language) environment, the situation differs from European circumstances in which English is taught as a second language.

Before the concept of CLIL spread in Japan, our university had conducted classes following content-based instructional (CBI) practices since the late 1980s, with a project-based component being added to this curriculum in the 1990s. Innovation in the curriculum has been matched with innovation in technology, as our school transitioned from paper-based course materials to digital delivery of first-year course content materials after adapting content for use with iPads in 2012 (Swenson, Cornwell, & Bramley, 2014). In 2017, our school was the first university in Japan to be chosen as an Apple distinguished school due to its use of iPads as textbooks—all of which were developed in-house by the faculty. First-year students engage in course content via textbooks accessible on their iPads. From the second to the fourth year, students study topics such as business or peace studies in greater depth, with the bulk of second-year classes and all third- and fourth-year classes taught in English. Our school was integrating English into the curriculum before the term "CLIL" was coined and popularized. From these viewpoints, this paper shows how CLIL is currently being conducted at our university as well as providing reflection on TL use in a CLIL class using an iPad in the Japanese context.

2. Literature Review

CLIL has become popular in Japan as well as in Europe, while its research ranging from primary education to higher education has expanded. The term "CLIL" is used in many situations, especially for English education in Japan. As a basis for the definition of CLIL, only the target language is used in class. This means that we should be concerned that learners will have many different sets of beliefs about language use.

Regarding research on beliefs in the field of second language acquisition (SLA), studies have gradually increased since the 1990s, and most of these studies appeared after 1996 (Borg, 2003). Borg (2006) examined over 180 studies on teachers' beliefs published up to 2006 in a wide range of first language (L1), second language (L2), and foreign language (FL) contexts. He also chronologically outlined the emergence of this tradition of inquiry and the key perspectives, concepts, and findings it has contributed to the study of teaching (Borg, 2006, p. 5). In his study, he suggested that it was necessary to understand what teachers believed, what they knew, and their attitudes and feelings, because beneath their behavior there were beliefs, knowledge, and related constructs that influenced what teachers do. Although his study was focused on the teachers' beliefs, it is important to know them since they have significant influence over the learners' beliefs while conducting the classroom in the target language only.

Another study (Kern, 1995), which has been frequently applied to other studies on beliefs in SLA, compared university students' beliefs regarding language learning with those of teachers. It investigated the stability of learners' beliefs over a semester of study and suggested that teachers' beliefs were one of the many factors that affected students' beliefs

about language learning. In addition, learners seldom change their beliefs easily, when those held at the beginning are compared to beliefs at the end of a course. For teachers, it is important to know about these findings concerning learners' beliefs while teaching in their own classes.

With regard to TL use in class, since around the nineteenth century, the tendency to avoid L1 use for language teaching had spread among researchers (Krashen, 1982; Hawkins, 1987). Cook (2001) showed that two groups emerged: the "ban L1 from the classroom" group and the "minimize L1 in the classroom" group. During this period, L2 was seen as positive, while L1 was viewed as negative and not something to be utilized in teaching but to be set aside (Cook, 2001, p. 404). From the beginning of the 1990s and onward, research on using L1 in the classroom has gradually increased. Now that we know that L1 use improves efficacy, learning, naturalness, and external relevance (Macaro, 1997; Franklin, 1990; Polio & Duff 1994), the functions of L1 can be contrasted between L1 and L2 forms, providing metalinguistic cues, among others. Considering these previous studies about beliefs and TL use in the classroom and since each country has its own environment and conditions surrounding English education, the Japanese EFL environment should also be factored into SLA research.

In terms of the issue of only TL use in Japan, there are few studies on the use of L1 (Critcheley, 1999). Carson and Kashihara (2012) examined 305 university first- and second-year students' use of L1 in an L2 classroom and found two patterns of proficiency effects of L1 use in classroom situations. Participants who completed the questionnaire preferred more instructive rather than effective teaching, and supported L1; notably, students at a beginner level needed L1 support, whereas advanced students had no need for it. In the Japanese EFL environment, Yamamoto-Wilson (1997) suggested that L1 should be used effectively to facilitate and not simply be considered as an interfering factor, but instead as a useful tool for overcoming assumptions created regarding first language.

Furthermore, Ford (2009) interviewed university teachers in Japan about their principles and practices with respect to both teachers' and learners' L1 use. The results indicated that "the policies of most teachers were not constrained by any institutional requirements or particularly influenced by critical pedagogy or any language learning theory. Rather, they tended to be determined by pragmatism, individual beliefs, and personality" (Ford, 2009, p. 63). A total of one out of ten interviewees tended to follow an English-only approach concerning teachers' language use; however, there was a greater degree of flexibility in terms of students' language use (Ford, 2009, p. 77). This qualitative study casts light on how classroom language policy affects and is affected by teachers' personalities and identities. Meyer (2008) also pointed out that L2 use "should be maximized whenever possible," and that L1 should be used as "scaffolding to lower affective filters by making the L2 and the

classroom environment comprehensible" (p. 157). Ozaki (2011) discussed non-native learners' acquisition of collocation, which tends to be negatively influenced by their L1. In that research, the view that the use of L1 can clarify problems, avoid ambiguity, save time, and consequently reduce students' frustration is supported.

As a final citation of previous studies, Ueno (2018) investigated teachers' and learners' beliefs about TL use only in classes in the Japanese EFL context. The researcher conducted an exploratory study with quantitative and qualitative analyses using a mixed-method approach. The participants for this study included teachers and university students. The total number of teachers was 54 (male: 15, female: 39) and that of university students was 234 (male: 76, female: 157, not indicated: 1). As for teachers, the only participants examined were non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) who were mostly experienced teachers at universities of five years or more. In terms of the university students, they included freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior students at a university of foreign studies, although the departments were not only English-related departments but also other foreign language departments. They belonged to the class aiming for passing EIKEN pre-first level, therefore, their English proficiency level was approximately intermediate. The findings showed that these learners positively anticipated TL use in the class, while conversely, the teachers seemed to struggle with its use and felt the necessity of L1 (Japanese) use at the same time. Furthermore, the learners expected their teachers to use the TL more frequently than they did in a Japanese EFL context. The results of the qualitative study also confirmed that TL use only in the classroom showed a marked contrast between teachers and learners with the two groups having different perceptions.

Following these previous studies, this study focuses on the beliefs of university students (whose English proficiency level is lower than the intermediate level) regarding TL use in CLIL classes. From these perspectives of learners' beliefs, the study diligently explores the scientific data, thus contributing to the research field of learners' beliefs and CLIL.

3. Methodology

3.1 Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to investigate university students' beliefs about TL use only in a CLIL class. In this study, the participants comprised only of female learners at a women's university. As stated in the previous section, their English proficiency level at the university was lower than the intermediate English level. This exploratory study was designed to address the following two research questions:

1) What types of beliefs do university students with a low English proficiency level have about TL use only in the CLIL class?

2) Are there any specific common features of beliefs about TL use only in the CLIL class among those learners with low English proficiency levels?

3.2 Participants

The participants for this study were first-year undergraduates at a women's university whose English proficiency levels were lower than intermediate. Regarding their level of English proficiency, almost all of the participants' scores for the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC®) were lower than 500 points, mainly falling between 350-450 (45.7%). Table 1 presents their TOEIC® scores in order to show their English proficiency level. Participants who preferred not to report their TOEIC® scores while being surveyed for the questionnaire were categorized into "Unknown (unreported)."

Table 1. Participants' English qualification (*N* = 105)

TOEIC® score	Number of students
less than 300 points	25 (23.8%)
300-349	13 (12.3%)
350-399	14 (13.3%)
400-449	21 (20.0%)
450-499	6 (5.7%)
500-550	1 (0.9%)
more than 550 points	1 (0.9%)
Unknown (unreported)	24 (22.8%)

3.3 Instrument

After consulting specialists in cognitive science and psychology, Horwitz (1985, 1987) developed the BALLI questionnaire, which consists of 34 question items to examine learners' beliefs. It has been the principal tool for extensive research into the subject of language learners' beliefs. As the original BALLI did not have the items to investigate the leaners' beliefs about the target language use only in the class, in this quantitative study, the author used the same questionnaire from a previous comparative study (Ueno, 2018), which had six questions added to the original BALLI related to TL use only in the class; thus, the questionnaire consisted of 40 question items in total. The participants were given this adapted BALLI questionnaire after class, and the data was collected instantaneously upon completion. They responded using a five-point Likert-scale, ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). Although the adapted BALLI was translated into Japanese from English, the translation procedure was shared with several other researchers to ensure that the English proficiency of the participants did not influence their understanding of the statements in the original BALLI.

The original BALLI was designed to survey learners' beliefs in five categories. However, the questionnaire for this study contained six categories: *the difficulty of language learning* (items 3, 4, 7, 16, 28, 33); *foreign language aptitude* (items 1, 2, 11, 17, 26, 34, 37, 38, 39); *the nature of language learning* (items 5, 9, 13, 19, 23, 29, 31); *strategies of communication and learning* (items 8, 10, 14, 15, 20, 21, 22, 25); *learner motivations and expectations* (items 27, 32, 35, 36); and additional questions regarding the *TL use in the CLIL class* (items 6, 12, 18, 24, 30, 40). These are shown in Table 2 as below.

Table 2. BALLI original categories

Category	Items	
the difficulty of language learning	3	Some languages are easier to learn than others
	4	The language I am trying to learn is: A = Very difficult; B =Difficult; C = [of] Medium difficulty; D = Easy; E = Very easy
	7	I believe that I will ultimately learn to speak this language very well
	16	If someone spent one hour a day learning a language, how long would it take him/her to become fluent? A = Less than a year; B = 1–2 years; C = 3–5 years; D = 5–10 years; E = You can't learn a language in 1 hour a day
	28	It is easier to speak than to understand a foreign language
	33	It is easier to read and write this language than to speak and understand it
foreign language aptitude	1	It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language
	2	Some people are born with a special ability which helps them learn a foreign language
	11	It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one
	17	I have a foreign language aptitude
	26	Women are better than men at learning foreign languages
	34	People who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages
	37	People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent
	38	Japanese are good at learning foreign languages
	39	Anyone can learn to speak a foreign language
the nature of language learning	5	The language I am trying to learn is structured in the same way as Japanese
	9	It is necessary to know the foreign culture of the language I am trying to learn
	13	It is better to learn a foreign language in its own country
	19	Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning many new vocabulary words
	23	Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning many grammar rules
	29	Learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects
	31	Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating from Japanese

strategies of communication and learning	8	It is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent accent
	10	You should not say anything in a foreign language until you can say it correctly
	14	If I heard someone speaking the language I am trying to learn, I would go up to them so that I could practice speaking the language
	15	It is okay to guess if you do not know a word in the foreign language
	20	It is important to repeat and practice often
	21	I feel self-conscious speaking a foreign language in front of other people
	22	If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning, it will be difficult to get rid of them later
	25	It is important to practice in a language laboratory
learner motivations and expectations	27	If I speak this language very well, I will have many opportunities to use it
	32	If I learn to speak this language very well, it will help me get a good job
	35	Japanese think that it is important to speak a foreign language
	36	I would like to learn this language so that I can get to know its speakers better
TL use in the CLIL class	6	It is important for students in the classroom to be taught only in the target language
	12	Teachers should speak (output) the target language as much as possible in the classroom
	18	Students should speak (output) the target language as much as possible in the classroom
	24	L1 use in the classroom means depriving students of opportunities to use the target language
	30	"TL use only" in the classroom means 100% target language use
	40	While learning a subject that is only being taught in the target language, it is difficult to understand the lesson's content

3.4 Procedure

During the spring semester in 2019, the researcher collected the learners' data by distributing the questionnaires. The university students took advantage of the break time after class to fill out the questionnaires, and their responses were collected on the spot (N = 105). While checking, there were some invalid answers such as skipped items or double-marked answers. In that case, the researcher invalidated the item but not all answers (pairwise deletion).

As a quantitative analysis, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted in order to identify the underlying factors of these learners' beliefs. First, the quantitative data was analyzed statistically by means of the SPSS program including descriptive analysis, Spearman's rank correlation coefficient, and factor analysis. The results of the research on beliefs are a nonparametric measure of statistical dependence between two variables; thus, Spearman's rank correlation coefficient was chosen for this study. An exploratory factor analysis was utilized to identify the underlying factors of learners' beliefs. The Cronbach's alphas indicating the data reliability for learners was .76. This was valid in terms of internal consistency and a sufficient instrument reliability for conducting a factor analysis, as they

were above the .70 level (Takeuchi & Mizumoto, 2012).

Following the quantitative survey, the comments in the face sheet were investigated as a supplementary data for a part of mixed-method research. This was conducted in order to explore the learners' beliefs in detail, especially their attitudes regarding the practice of TL use only in the CLIL class. The number of comments was equal to the number of students who were taught by the researcher.

4. Results and Discussions

4.1 Quantitative Analysis

From the descriptive analysis, Figure 1 shows the mean score for these learners in the distribution of the question items. The levels ranged from 2.0 (strongly agree) to -2.0, (strongly disagree) in the figure. The actual levels in the questionnaire sheet ranged from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree), but these were modified to make it easier to understand. Thus, level zero means neutral in those figures.

Compared with the data on learners' beliefs whose English proficiency levels were at an intermediate level in the previous study (Ueno, 2018), the current study showed almost exactly the same tendency, and endorsed previous studies on Japanese learners' beliefs about language learning. Figure 2 was cited from the previous study (Ueno, 2018) as a comparison.

Interestingly, there was only one item that did not show the same tendency; this was item 28 (*It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language*). The participants of this current study showed moderately positive perceptions, while on the contrary, the students in the previous study with an intermediate level showed slightly more negative perceptions. Judging from this, the participants of this current study have less fear or anxiety about speaking a foreign language in spite of their proficiency level. These participants belong to a women's university, which consists of integrated learning courses. As they are required to speak English perpetually at school, this might have influenced the different results. It could also be one of the features of these participants' beliefs.

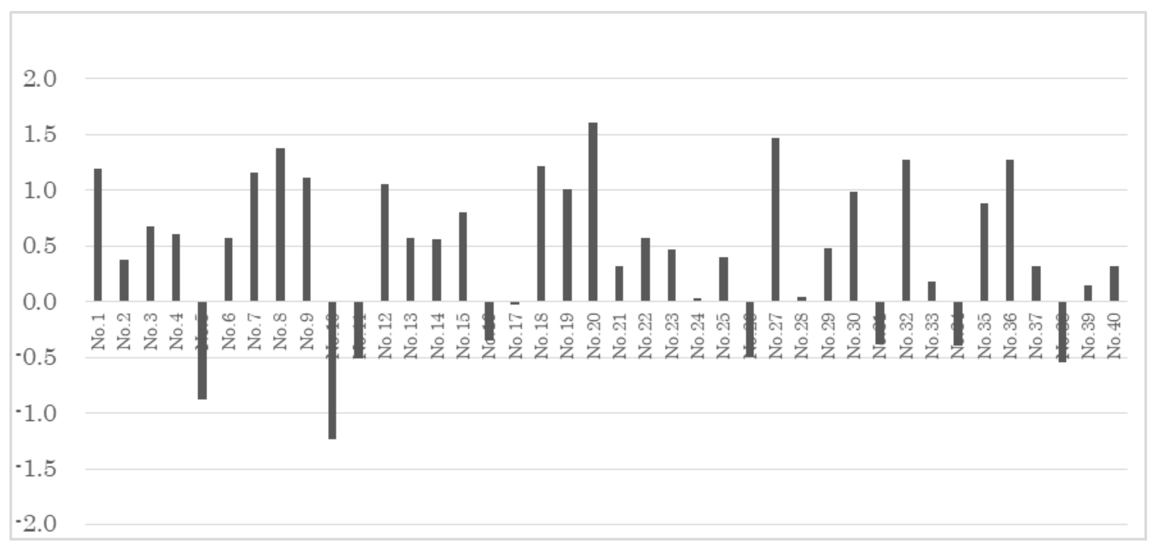

Figure 1. Descriptive analysis for students' mean

Note. 2 = strongly agree, -2 = strongly disagree.

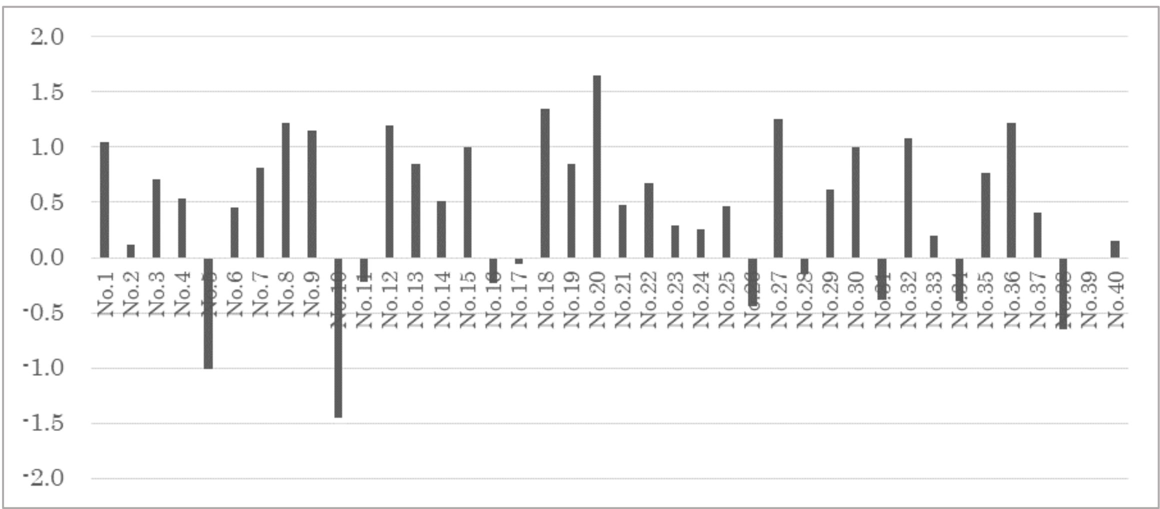

Figure 2. Citation from descriptive analysis for intermediate level of learners' mean Ueno (2018, p. 69).

Note. 2 = strongly agree, -2 = strongly disagree.

Next**,** Table 3 shows the *mean* and *SD* for the additional items regarding TL use in the CLIL class. These participants showed positive perceptions of all six items, especially item 18 *(Students should speak (output) the target language as much as possible in the classroom*). Since the mean score of item 12 (*Teachers should speak (output) the target language as much as possible in the classroom*) is lower than that of item 18, this could be interpreted as meaning that these learners think more of their own TL use in the CLIL class than the teacher's use.

Table 3. Descriptive analysis for learners

Item	**No.6**	**No.12**	**No.18**	**No.24**	**No.30**	**No.40**
Mean	.57	1.06	1.22	.03	.99	.32
SD	.93	.77	.77	.93	.94	.89

In addition, according to the previous study (Ueno, 2018), the researcher should refer to those items which show the opposite tendency between teachers' and learners' beliefs about language learning in a Japanese EFL context. There are differences in beliefs on TL use in class between teachers and learners. Teachers had negative perceptions about both No. 6 and No. 24; while in contrast, learners answered these questions positively. The findings of the current study support these differences and the descriptive analysis shows that students with low proficiency levels believe that speaking English in class is considerably important for learners.

4.2 Factor Analysis

An exploratory factor analysis was conducted in order to identify the underlying factors and compare them across learners' beliefs. Initially, all 40 items were subjected to a principal component analysis using Promax Rotation with Kaiser Normalization, which converged in seven iterations. The factor extraction method used was unweighted least squares.

The factor analysis identified six underlying factors of these learners' beliefs, namely: "*general perception about language learning," "ease of speaking language," "image of language learning," "importance of language learning," "TL use as a strategy," and "strategies of communication and learning."* Table 4 displays the factor loadings for the learners' beliefs in detail.

As the results of the factor analysis demonstrate, the first factor, labeled "*general perception about language learning,"* contains items that address the things which we often hear about in language learning. The second factor, labeled "*ease of speaking language,*" contained only two items but both referred to the ease of speaking a foreign language. The third factor, labeled "*image of language learning,"* was similar to the first factor, yet presented a more general image of language learning. The fourth factor contained three items that reflected the *"importance of language learning."* The fifth factor contained three items including TL use only in the class, and clearly demonstrated *"TL use as a strategy."* Finally, the sixth factor contained two items which originally belonged to the category of "*strategies of communication and learning"* in BALLI.

Judging from these factors, it appeared that these learners' beliefs were still vague about language learning. The most commonly expressed reason for the beliefs was that their English proficiency levels were low due to the lack of practical experience of using English

in daily life. In addition, while considering the fifth and sixth factors, these respective items showed the opposite tendency about language learning. Each item of the fifth factor showed hesitancy toward using TL, while the sixth factor presented the motivation to use TL positively. It is certain that—apart from school life—these learners have not yet been in circumstances that require using TL frequently, and it is possible that this might be one of the features of learners' beliefs in an EFL environment.

This finding was obtained from the content of each item and the image of these learners' beliefs for foreign language learning.

Table 4. Factor loadings for learners' beliefs

Item		Factor						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	h^2
20	It is important to repeat and practice often	.66						.35
32	If I learn to speak this language very well, it will help me get a good job	.61						.38
1	It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language	.58						.35
30	TL use only in the classroom means 100% TL use	.53						.26
12	Teachers should speak (output) the target language as much as possible in the classroom	51						.43
28	It is easier to speak than to understand a foreign language		.97					.39
11	It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one		.50					.41
5	The language I am trying to learn is structured in the same way as Japanese			.64				.33
10	You should not say anything in a foreign language until you can say it correctly			.55				.38
26	Women are better than men at learning foreign languages			.45				.34
25	It is important to practice in a language laboratory				.53			.26
9	It is necessary to know a foreign culture in order to speak its language				.53			.28
23	Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning many grammar rules				.53			.20
40	While learning a subject that is only being taught in the target language, it is difficult to understand the lesson's content					.59		.24
22	If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning, it will be difficult to get rid of them later					.54		.24
21	I feel self-conscious speaking a foreign language in front of other people					.47		.23
14	If I heard someone speaking the language I am trying to learn, I would go up to them so that I could practice speaking the language						.65	.33

15 It is okay to guess if you do not know a word in the foreign language						.62	.26
Factor contribution	2.36	1.59	1.43	1.57	1.14	1.53	9.61
Cumulative contribution ratio	18.52	29.79	38.83	46.63	53.96	60.66	

Note. Extraction: Unweighted Least Squares Method
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization
Rotation converged in seven iterations

4.3 Supplementary data

Supplementary data was investigated in order to explore the participants' individual direct statements in more detail. The number of participants in this analysis was 16 students, who were taught by the researcher during the semester. In the spring semester, they used the iPad series of textbooks for "identity and values" which aimed at teaching an understanding of their personal characteristics and to respect others. This is quite a difficult theme for freshmen to study strictly in English. The teacher was required to spend a significant amount of time to prepare and organize the lesson plan to conduct the CLIL lesson with this theme. At the end of the semester, the learners were asked to respond to questions and write their comments in the questionnaire. The two questions were as follows:

1) What did you learn from this CLIL class? (content-related question)
2) Did you benefit from the TL use only in the class? Yes/No
   Please explain your reason. (language-related question)

The results of the first question showed that the learners tried to understand their own identity and that they seemed to struggle with this theme. As they had never thought about their identity, they appreciated the occasion to think about it deeply. They tried to understand their identity in greater depth from a wider perspective. Even though they have a lot of conversations with classmates in their daily lives, the matter of their identity has not been previously discussed, so this occasion in the CLIL class is the first time it has happened. Therefore, these participants appreciated the CLIL lesson with this theme. It enabled them to self-reflect and develop an internal identity. Judging from their comments, these learners acquired the contents of this theme in English only, despite their low English proficiency levels. Two of the comments of participants' beliefs about the CLIL class are shown below.

Student A: I could understand that there were many different shapes of our identities. Our identities are shaped by the people and things in our daily lives. Although it was difficult to understand clearly, it was a good opportunity to think about myself.

Student B: This course made me think of who I am. It became a good trigger.

Regarding the second (language-related) question, many students referred to an

improvement in their “listening ability.” Remarkably, more than half of them wrote the term “listening improvement” in their comments, and all their comments about listening practice in a CLIL class were positive. Compared to the beginning of the semester, they were now used to listening to English, which meant they could more easily understand the content in English only. With reference to listening, two students mentioned “concentration” in their statements. According to their comments, since the participants had to concentrate on listening to English only in the class, they found that they concentrated considerably more on the English only class compared to lessons conducted in Japanese. Both of these students felt that their attention toward the class certainly brought about a more effective understanding of the content. These respondents thought highly of actively (rather than passively) listening to the teacher’s explanations in class.

In addition, there were some comments from an emotional aspect. One of the students noted that she became less hesitant to use English outside of the classroom, for instance, talking to teachers and foreign students who were native speakers. This student developed the habit of speaking English during the semester. Another student wrote that her motivation to study English was much higher after experiencing opportunities to use English in the CLIL class.

Considering all the aspects of these learners’ statements in the questionnaire, the results showed learners’ positive attitude toward both the content and language use in the CLIL lesson. In fact, no one in this group (N = 16) marked “No” to answer the second question. Consistent with the results of the factor analysis in the quantitative survey, this supplementary survey also demonstrated that learners’ beliefs regarding TL use only in class are associated with appreciation of many opportunities to use English and the ability to concentrate. In addition, judging from this analysis alone, these learners strongly expect the practice of TL use in the classroom to be an occasion to listen to English. Although these participants were university students with a low English proficiency level, these results found that there was additional value for learners in taking the CLIL class.

5. Conclusion

This study focused on learners’ beliefs on the use of TL in a CLIL class using a mixed methods approach. The following two research questions were investigated:

1) What types of beliefs do university students with a low English proficiency level have about TL use only in the CLIL class?
2) Are there any specific common features of beliefs about TL use only in the CLIL class among those learners with low English proficiency levels?

In terms of the first research question, the university students with low English proficiency levels who participated in this research had various types of beliefs and positive expectations

of TL use in the CLIL class. Above all, they seemed to think highly of its use as a listening strategy in class. Although the learners had positive expectations of TL use in the classroom, it was noteworthy that they expected their teachers to use TL more frequently than themselves. This result shows the same tendency as the intermediate English proficiency level university students in the previous review (Ueno, 2018). To conclude, Japanese university students in an EFL environment have various types of beliefs and positive expectations toward TL use; they also expect the teachers' output to be greater than theirs in class to give them more opportunities to listen to English.

Regarding the second research question, according to the factor analysis, there were several factors underlying their beliefs. They were "*general perception about language learning," "ease of speaking language," "image of language learning," "importance of language learning," "TL use as a strategy," and "strategies of communication and learning."* These beliefs are not consolidated with each individual learning experience since their English proficiency is lower than an intermediate level. We could say then that this aspect is a specific common feature of the beliefs of these learners.

6. Limitations

One of the limitations is that the participants were all females who belonged to a women's university, and thus the researcher was not able to generalize these results as a sample of all university students with low English proficiency levels in a Japanese EFL environment. Furthermore, the number of participants in the supplementary data was small compared with the quantitative study, so it may not represent these participants' voices in the results. Future research should target a wider range of university students as participants, and in the future, the data should be accumulated targeting different participants in the field of research on beliefs and CLIL.

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Appendix 1
Questionnaire for survey (translated into English)

Please read each statement and put the number which most closely resembles your answer in the "Answer" column.

(1) Strongly disagree (2) Disagree (3) Neither agree nor disagree
(4) Agree (5) Strongly agree

No.	Question	Answer
1	It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language	
2	Some people are born with a special ability which helps them to learn a foreign language	
3	Some languages are easier to learn than others	
4	The language I am trying to learn is: A = Very difficult B = Difficult C = [of] Medium difficulty D = Easy E = Very easy	
5	The language I am trying to learn is structured in the same way as Japanese	
6	It is important for students in the classroom to be taught only in target languages	
7	I believe that I will ultimately learn to speak this language very well	
8	It is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent accent	
9	It is necessary to know the foreign culture of the language I am trying to learn	
10	You should not say anything in a foreign language until you can say it correctly	
11	It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one	
12	Teachers should speak (output) the target language as much as possible in the classroom	
13	It is better to learn a foreign language in its own country	
14	If I heard someone speaking the language I am trying to learn, I would go up to them so that I could practice speaking the language	
15	It is okay to guess if you do not know a word in the foreign language	

16	If someone spent one hour a day learning a language, how long would it take him/her to become fluent? A = Less than a year B = 1–2 years C = 3–5 years D = 5–10 years E = You can't learn a language in 1 hour a day	
17	I have a foreign language aptitude	
18	Students should speak (output) the target language as much as possible in the classroom	
19	Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning many new vocabulary words	
20	It is important to repeat and practice often	
21	I feel self-conscious speaking a foreign language in front of other people	
22	If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning, it will be difficult to get rid of them later	
23	Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning many grammar rules	
24	L1 use in the classroom means depriving the students of opportunities to use the target language	
25	It is important to practice in a language laboratory	
26	Women are better than men at learning foreign languages	
27	If I speak this language very well, I will have many opportunities to use it	
28	It is easier to speak than to understand a foreign language	
29	Learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects	
30	"All English" in the classroom means 100% TL use	
31	Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating from Japanese	
32	If I learn to speak this language very well, it will help me get a good job	
33	It is easier to read and write this language than to speak and understand it	
34	People who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages	

35	Japanese think that it is important to speak a foreign language	
36	I would like to learn this language so that I can get to know its speakers better	
37	People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent	
38	Japanese are good at learning foreign languages	
39	Anyone can learn to speak a foreign language	
40	While learning a subject that is only being taught in the target language, it is difficult to understand the lesson’s content	

A Reflective Practice for Improving Teacher Students' Abilities in Conducting CLIL in Physical Education Classes in an Overseas Teaching Project

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Abstract
The purpose of this study was to examine the effectiveness of applying CLIL using ICT in physical education (PE) classes as part of an overseas teaching project practiced under collaboration between Osaka Kyoiku Univesity and Obo Academy University in Finland. Furthermore, the CLIL in PE focused on the Finnish pupils' improvement in *off-the-ball movement* when playing basketball, while fostering Japanese teacher students (TSs') teaching skills. CLIL in PE included two games, games 1 and 2, and two lessons, lessons 1 and 2. Between the two games, the TSs' focused on off-the-ball movement to encourage pupils to employ cognitive thinking, tactics, and social conduciveness in basketball by using subject-specific (PE) language. During class, the TSs' assessed Finnish pupils' (12-year-olds) movements using a formative assessment and a game performance assessment instrument (GPAI). The results revealed significant differences between the pupils' formative assessment and GPAI scores between the two games and lessons. In conclusion, the procedures improved the TSs' awareness of how to evaluate their pupils' movement changes. Planning a lesson based on the CLIL approach to elicit the pupils' awareness (cognition) and giving feedback (communication) are essential and may raise both the pupils' motor skills and knowledge of tactics.

Keywords: CLIL in PE, off-the-ball movement, teacher training, game performance

1. Introduction

The primary goal of PE, to promote lifetime participation in physical activities, will only be achieved if students enjoy physical activities (Mitchell, Oslin, & Griffin, 2013). Furthermore, in today's globalised society (Fadel, Bialik & Trilling, 2015), school curriculums emphasise the importance of communicating with people with different cultures and perspectives. Considering PE and international sports, it is anticipated that sports players also have opportunities to solve problems as a team, judge the rightness from surrounding information, and penetrate opponents' tactics by communicating with each other even though both teams have different languages and cultures. Therefore, the study will investigate the effectiveness

of teaching PE using L2 within the CLIL framework to develop TSs' teaching abilities.

2. Theoretical background

For effective PE lessons, this paper covers the latest PE pedagogy and how it could be related to using L2 to teach CLIL in PE. It is crucial that students should be given comfortable lessons, such as fun sports taught by PE and elementary school teachers. However, almost all elementary school teachers in Japan are not professional PE teachers. Therefore, to improve Japanese teacher students' (in this study, TSs') abilities to conduct PE lessons, the authors focus on having them comprehend the latest model of PE pedagogy, which is represented as Teaching Games for Understanding (TGfU), proposed by Bunkar (Bunker & Thorpe, 1982). TGfU has been established in PE lessons across the world. Physical educators have suggested that a tactical focus on teaching games suits both the elementary and secondary levels (Bunker & Thorpe, 1982; Mitchell, Oslin, & Griffin, 2003). TGfU proposes a six-stage model for developing decision making and improving performance in game situations. The model entails the development of tactical awareness and decision making through questioning in the gameplay. Subsequently, a model named Game Sense was developed, which focuses on teachers' question-centred instruction (Thorpe, Bunker, & Almond, 1986). The main objective of Game Sense was to focus on coaching to advance players' skills rather than merely coaching itself. A coach asks the players questions about how they should move forward instead of showing them. Both TGfU and Game Sense have similar approaches to the players' experience, thinking during the game, and the learning environment. The pedagogy emphasises that the players learn PE skills such as tactics, strategic knowledge, and decision making through holistic comprehension of games. It also entails a player-centred (student-centred) approach, in which a coach or teacher encourages the players to think autonomously and solve problems with the team members collaboratively. The features of the pedagogy, TGfU, and Game Sense can be summarised with the following six points:

> A coach or a teacher designs a better learning circumstance, such as,
> (1) developing a modified game;
> (2) viewing the pupils as players with problems to solve;
> (3) questioning to stimulate the students' thoughts;
> (4) encouraging discussion and collaboration in a team;
> (5) reflecting on and appreciating the team members' movement; and
> (6) solving problems that formulates tactics and skills.

Second, in order to help TSs (both PE and language majors) with multidisciplinary majors to develop global perspectives, their intercultural and foreign language skills must be nurtured in a globally connected learning environment. According to UNESCO, Physical-Education Through Sports, relating to our 21st century globalized society, is defined as PE

that supports active learning, complements cognitive skills, gives students increasing amounts of responsibility, and enhances their level of concentration and participation. It also has flexible and strong cross-curricular potential. Based on these values, to conduct PE in CLIL, it is considered that TSs are expected to raise their teaching skills using both their mother language and English (L2), accordingly, pupils may get engaged in their globalized communities and make informed decisions in an international sports setting. For this purpose, although the government has recently emphasised university students' L2 (English) language skills and broadening students' global perspectives on education, there is still room for improvement.

To facilitate PE and L2 learning in the practical situation, the authors made the decision to develop a multidisciplinary approach to implementing PE lessons using English in intercultural contact. Consequently, we have been promoting an overseas teaching project (OTP) through collaboration between our university and Finnish institutions in which innovative education has been developed over the years.

Teacher students (TSs) in pre-service courses (both graduates and undergraduates) participate in the OTP, which is structured as a selective intensive lecture organised by college professors in different fields. In this lecture, subject teachers (PE in this study) and English teachers form groups of three or four and practice co-teaching. They work together for six months and teach multidisciplinary subjects to children (aged 12 and 13) in English in Finland. In this project, both the TSs and the children learn English using subject content (such as science, math, art, and PE) and simultaneously deepen their cognitive thought processes through CLIL (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010).

Reviewing both PE pedagogy and CLIL, as demonstrated above, the six points of PE pedagogy we defined, such as TGfU, Game Sense and CLIL's framework, seem to have many commonalities when the authors implement PE lessons in English through the interdisciplinary approach. CLIL emphasises cognition, which is considered to be particularly essential. It can be hypothesised that eliciting pupils' thoughts by asking questions in a game induces tactical awareness and skill improvement.

Invented in Europe, CLIL is a content-led approach designed to develop EU citizens' communication skills by encouraging them to learn two languages in addition to their mother tongue. The framework is called the 4Cs, which refers to the four CLIL principals: content (subject matters), communication (language), cognition (cognitive skills), and culture and community (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010; Mehisto, Marsh, & Frigols, 2008). As outlined in recent studies, the benefits of CLIL include the improvement of language learning, critical thinking, argumentation, and the acquisition of subject-specific language (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula, & Smit, 2010). The positive results are considered to derive from a nexus where

content and language intertwine with pupils' cognitive thinking.

For the OTP, the input of high-quality classroom teacher-talk and the ability of the TSs to elicit their pupils' cognitive thinking were essential. The teachers attempt to use the target sentences more frequently, along with interchanging words within the frames (e.g., 'pass the ball and run to a space' or 'pass the ball to an unmarked teammate'). It was recently found that the frequency of use of a particular target structure influences students to notice language form (Ellis, 2008; Ellis & Larsen-Freeman, 2009). In CLIL classrooms, we can apply the positive outcomes of language use to encourage input and interactions between the TSs' pupils who participate in PE lessons. Clancy and Hruska (2005) argue that PE provides low-stress environment for language performance, an emotionally positive learning environment that children enjoy, and the opportunity to interact with others. From the cognitive perspective, Rottmann (2007) suggested that PE lessons for pupils aged 11–12 in Germany enabled them to attain higher-order thinking skills (HOTS), such as analysing, making judgments, applying assessment criteria, and creating. In Spain, Coral (2010) revealed that CLIL in PE elicited students' intrinsic motivation to engage in physical movement, while positively influencing their English learning. However, in regards to research on CLIL in PE, very few studies have been conducted in the EU (Coral, 2010; Zindler, 2013), and no studies on PE have been conducted in Japanese EFL classrooms, even though PE relates to many specific and transferable key competences. Coral (2012) also proposes that "tasks in PE must meet five conditions". Specifically, they should (1) be motivating, (2) include physical activity, (3) foster oral interaction, (4) develop thinking, and (5) be socially conducive.

In this study, the authors' guidelines are based on two assumptions. First, rich content, which relates to PE and language, must be taught through actions using verb phrases (e.g., 'catch the ball', 'cut the ball', and 'pass and run'). According to the total physical response methods (TPR) (Asher, 2003), learning new verbs through actions has been evaluated as an effective approach that promotes language learning in a less stressful manner and gives motivation to all students. The physical actions get the meaning across effectively so that students are able to comprehend and apply the target language. Second, HOTS must be considered an essential part of PE lessons that incorporate the five crucial conditions. The CLIL framework can be used to efficiently improve TSs' abilities to conduct PE lessons and focus on their students' cognitive improvement, shifting lessons through reflective practice. This study's aims are as follows:

(1) Though the OTP, the authors will instruct four TSs in Finland to design and teach CLIL in PE and assess pupils' movements and reactions using a questionnaire. The TSs will reflect on and improve their teaching instructions.

(2) The authors will examine the change in the TSs' reflective practice of CLIL in PE

classes, which corresponds theoretically with the six-point pedagogy of PE.

(3) With the results of the lessons, the authors will clarify the effectiveness of CLIL in PE towards improving TSs' abilities.

3. Procedures

3.1 The Process of Practical Teacher Training and the Lesson

Through the OTP, CLIL in PE was practiced in two different public elementary schools in Vaasa and Jyväskylä in Finland (September–October 2016). Lesson 1 addressed primary school students (*N*=21, aged 11–12, grades 5 and 6) in Vaasa, and three days later, Lesson 2 addressed primary school students (*N*=19, aged 11, grade 5) in Jyväskylä. There was a total of 11 OTP participants, and four of them conducted PE lessons in English. Two TSs were taking a course for school management and majoring in PE, and the other two TSs were undergraduate students majoring in elementary school pedagogy. They formed a group and planned the co-teaching lessons over the course of six months and 15 meetings, including micro-teaching sessions. A leading author studying PE and sports science and another author studying CLIL and second language acquisition suggested that the TSs focus on their reflective practice with respect to the five conditions of PE and the 4Cs (Table 1) of CLIL.

Table 1. CLIL's Framework（4Cs）

Content	Communication	Cognition	Culture and Community
1. Enjoy the game 2. Think of their own movements and be aware of what they should do after passing	1. Praise each other in the game, including good plays 2. Plan a strategy in groups	1. Learn how to use the open spaces on the basketball court by playing the game and only using passes	1. Understand the rules and the movements of basketball in English 2. Use simple English words during practice and the game

The members reflected on their micro-teaching, improved their instructions, and polished their PE skills. For instance, they selected basketball so that the pupils would have numerous chances to interact by passing the ball and running with the team. Some of the activities, including (1) stutter stepping, (2) ball handling, (3) passing drills with three runners, (4) discussing how to find the space to run, (5) playing the game with normal rules, and (6) playing the game without dribbling, were planned and reconsidered. They also improved their teacher talk by showing physical movements. However, most faced anxiety about conducting lessons due to difficulties with using appropriate English for the children and getting to the core of the lessons. In the final revised teaching plan, they formulated the

lesson's goal to 'run to the space as quickly as possible after passing the ball to their teammate during the game'. In other words, they considered a lesson successful if the pupils achieved the actions 'pass and run' and 'run to the space'. However, they predicted that it would be difficult for the beginner pupils to improve their motor skills within the 45-minute lesson. Therefore, they set the goal of motivating the children and making the processes understandable. Finally, a primary aim of the lesson was to have the pupils understand 'off-the-ball movement,' in which other players who do not hold the ball attempt to move into the space where they can receive the ball from the player who holds it. This procedure improves the understanding of tactics, and this concept could be applied to every ball game, unlike 'handling the ball'.

3.2 The Teaching Plan for This Lesson

TSs focus on teaching their pupils PE skills, such as tactics, strategic knowledge and decision making through holistic comprehension of games (Bunker & Thorpe, 1982). In line with the five conditions proposed by Coral (2012), the lesson consists of motivating the pupils, includes thinking strategies, interactive activities in English and reflection on their own movement using iPads. Therefore, our teaching plan (Table 2) consists of the following activities: warm-up, practice (personal skills), Game 1 (normal rules), reflection on Game 1, Game 2 (without dribbling), and reflection on Game 2.

First, for warm-up, the TSs implemented the TPR method, introducing music and chants, including the verb phrases used for basketball. The pupils were instructed to cheerfully move and speak the phrases together. This process was intended to motivate the pupils and provide intensified input (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula, & Smit, 2010). These physical movements, combined with the use of English, were meant to prompt the pupils to remember phrases like 'run,' 'jump,' 'step aside,' 'pass the ball,' 'cut the ball,' 'layup,' 'rebound,' 'pivot turn,' 'run and layup,' 'pass and run to a space,' and 'run and cut the ball'.

Table 2. Teaching Plan for this Lesson

Duration	Student Activity	Instructions and Teacher Dialogue
2 min.	○ Listen to the teacher's introduction	○ Today, we are going to play basketball. Two reasons for this lesson are to 'keep challenging ourselves' and 'practice pass and run.'
5 min.	○ Warm-up (chants and TPR)	○ Now, repeat after me and mimic my gestures.
4 min.	○ Practice passing	○ Next, we are going to practice passing the ball. We have three patterns: ① chest pass; ② bounce pass; ③ one-hand pass (left and right)
8 min.	○ Practice passing and layup shots A B Catching area → person's movement ---- ball's movement A passes to B (a TS), and then A runs to the ring (catching area) quickly. When A is near the ring, B passes to A. A catches the ball and shoots a basket. When shooting with the right hand, the steps are right, left, shoot. (Please say, 'Right, left, shoot!')	○ Join together in one line. ○ I would like you to practice passing and taking a layup shot. Please run straight and say 'here!' and catch the ball in the 'catching area.' After that, the steps are right, left, and then you shoot. (Please say, 'Right, left, shoot!')
8 min.	○ Basketball Game 1 Three-minute games taking turns with four teams. A vs B, C vs D. ◎ Rules ① You can't push or grab any players.	○ I'm going to explain some rules. Before starting the game, two teams line up and bow like this. Next, one person from each team does the jump ball.

	② You can't walk or run with the ball for more than three steps. ③ If you stop dribbling, you can't dribble again. ④ The line of the court is ~. One game lasts three minutes.	
5 min.	○ Talk about the last game. Reflect on the game and plan a strategy for the next one.	○ Please gather here and sit down. ・Did you enjoy the game? ・Now, I'd like you to think about nice moves in basketball. ・To have the chance at a shot, you have to pass the ball with your teammates. ・Were you able to make good passes with your teammates? ① What would you do after passing the ball? → 'Pass and run.' ② Where would you go? → 'Run to the open space.' ・Here's an example of 'pass and run, run to the open space' (PowerPoint). ・Please remember these points and try them in the next game.
8 min.	○ Basketball Game 2 (three-minute games). A vs C, B vs D. ◎ Additional rule You can only use passing.	○ Good job! ・Could you 'pass and run'? Could you 'run to the open space'? ・I took videos of your games (iPad).
5 min.	○ Talk about the second game. Reflect on the game and plan a strategy for next time.	Let's reflect on the good movies. ○ Today's keywords are 'pass and run' and 'run to the open space'. These are important for many ball games. Try to enjoy ball games, and don't forget today's keywords: 'pass and run' and 'run to the open space'. That's all for today. Please fill out the questionnaire.
2 min.	Formative evaluation	

Second, for individual skills, the TSs had the pupils practice passing and layup shots. The pupils practiced a chest pass, bound pass, and one-hand bound pass in pairs. The TSs focused on combining PE and English teaching; therefore, they encouraged the pupils to practice the movements while simultaneously speaking out.

Third, for passing practice, the TSs assigned the tasks of ‘pass and run’ and ‘shoot’. The layup shot is supposed to be effective in integrating pass and run with shooting. For instance, a pupil would keep the ball, pass it to a teammate (saying ‘pass’), and then run to a space quickly (saying ‘run’). Afterwards, the student would say ‘here’ to receive the ball from a teammate. Even during the individual tasks, the pupils were conscious of the importance of combining communication with physical movement. Without reciprocal communication between a passer and a receiver, the passes between teammates would not be accurate (fostering oral interaction). We consider this an essential movement requiring cognitive thinking and interactive social skills.

Fourth, Game 1 was conducted using normal rules. The activity was designed as an initial experiential segment in which pupils would enjoy the game but the experience of ‘passing and running’ would be difficult. After Game 1, the TSs planned opportunities for pupils to think about how to pass the ball accurately (developing thinking). The TSs assumed that the pupils would give suggestions such as ‘move to the space’ and ‘pass the ball to a teammate who is not blocked’. Furthermore, they created visual aids (animations) using PowerPoint to facilitate discussions and improve pupils’ thought processes. At the time, the TSs used teacher talk to successfully demonstrate ‘off-the-ball movement’. This enabled the pupils to understand how to indicate a space using their own movements and learn that a receiver might be able to receive the ball from a passer in a freelance situation if the passer ran to the space. Game 2 was conducted using the ‘without dribbling’ rule to induce the movement of ‘pass and run’. The activity was a modified segment where the pupils did not receive the ball unless they moved to a space by getting away from the defence. They needed to employ successful reciprocal communication during the game. The necessity of successful communication encouraged the pupils to be socially conducive (fostering oral interaction).
Finally, demonstrating their reflection on Game 2, the TSs demonstrated two examples of ‘pass and run’ through a recorded image on a large screen using an iPad, which was used to help the pupils find a space on the court (developing thinking). The TSs again used teacher talk to demonstrate ‘off-the-ball movement’ and were successfully able to offer the pupils more significant and comprehensible input. They also held an interactive Q&A to enable the pupils to advise each other in a CLIL classroom with a more socially conducive atmosphere.

3.3 Measurement of Analyses

3.3.1 Formative Evaluation

We used formative evaluation to assess the aims, procedures, content and propriety of the lessons. We conducted a formative evaluation with nine items containing 'yes,' 'neither' and 'no' answers. The questionnaire was intended to be used as a resource to improve the TSs' teaching skills as they shifted from Lesson 1 to Lesson 2. The nine items were as follows.

Q1. Were you impressed with our class?
Q2. Were you able to improve your skills?
Q3. Did you discover a new technique or tactic?
Q4. Did you do your best?
Q5. Did you enjoy our lesson?
Q6. Were you able to keep challenging yourself?
Q7. Were you able to 'pass and run'?
Q8. Were you able to cooperate with your teammate?
Q9. Were you able to help and assist your teammate?

The evaluation scores were calculated using the criteria of formative evaluation (Table 3) proposed by Takahashi, Hasegawa, and Kariya (1994). Takahashi et al. elaborated on the reliable instruments for the formative evaluation of PE classes by distributing a questionnaire with 28 items to 1,428 pupils (aged 9–12) from 42 classes. Four factors were extracted for the results: 1) outcomes, 2) motivation, 3) ways of learning, and 4) cooperation (Table 3). The lessons were positively assessed when the score was above 2.77, whereas they were negatively assessed when the score was below 2.33. Lower scores indicated that the teachers needed to improve their lessons. The current study used these criteria for three purposes: 1) to evaluate the TSs' teaching practice in each lesson formatively by itself, 2) to observe the movement of each pupil, and 3) to make the initial plan more effective.

Table 3. Criteria for Formative Evaluation

	Item \ Score	5	4	3	2	1
Results	1. Emotional experience	3.00~2.62	2.61~2.29	2.28~1.90	1.89~1.57	1.56~1.00
	2. Improvement of skill	3.00~2.82	2.81~2.54	2.53~2.21	2.20~1.93	1.92~1.00
	3. New findings	3.00~2.85	2.84~2.59	2.58~2.28	2.27~2.02	2.01~1.00
	Scoring	3.00~2.70	2.69~2.45	2.44~2.15	2.14~1.91	1.90~1.00
Interest or motivation	4. Moving the body as much	3.00	2.99~2.80	2.79~2.56	2.55~2.37	2.36~1.00
	as he or she can	3.00	2.99~2.85	2.84~2.60	2.59~2.39	2.38~1.00
	5. Experience of joy					
	Scoring	3.00	2.99~2.81	2.80~2.59	2.58~2.41	2.40~1.00

Way of learning	6. Spontaneous leaning	3.00~2.77	2.76~2.52	2.51~2.23	2.22~1.99	1.98~1.00
	7. Learning with a clear goal	3.00~2.94	2.93~2.65	2.64~2.31	2.30~2.03	2.02~1.00
	Scoring	3.00~2.81	2.80~2.57	2.56~2.29	2.28~2.05	2.04~1.00
Cooperation	8. Learning to get along with each other	3.00~2.92	2.91~2.71	2.70~2.46	2.45~2.25	2.24~1.00
	9. Collaborative learning	3.00~2.83	2.82~2.55	2.54~2.24	2.23~1.97	1.96~1.00
	Scoring	3.00~2.85	2.84~2.62	2.61~2.36	2.35~2.13	2.12~1.00
Summative scores (Average score)		3.00~2.77	2.76~2.58	2.57~2.34	2.33~2.15	2.14~1.00

Note. Takahashi (2003), Authentic Assessment of PE Class (partially modified and translated from Japanese into English by the authors).

3.3.2 Game Performance Assessment Instrument

Based on the GPAI proposed by Griffin, Mitchell, and Oslin (1997), who researched the tactical games approach in PE lessons, we conducted a game performance (GP) assessment to measure 'off-the-ball movement' in Games 1 and 2. Mitchell, Oslin, and Griffin (2013) argued that improvements in GP positively increase emotions such as enjoyment, interest, and perceived competence (Figure 1). Consequently, the GP assessment asked whether the PE lesson was helpful for the pupils. The lessons primarily focused on having the pupils perform 'off-the-ball movement,' including the actions 'pass and run' and 'run to the space'. To evaluate the lesson, we implemented a GPAI that focused on three categories: decision making, skill execution, and support. The TSs assessed whether the GP was appropriate and effective. They recorded the pupils' GP in each group, and the GPAI was scored by two veteran PE teachers with over ten years of experience. The details of the present study's criteria and the GPAI calculation were as follows:

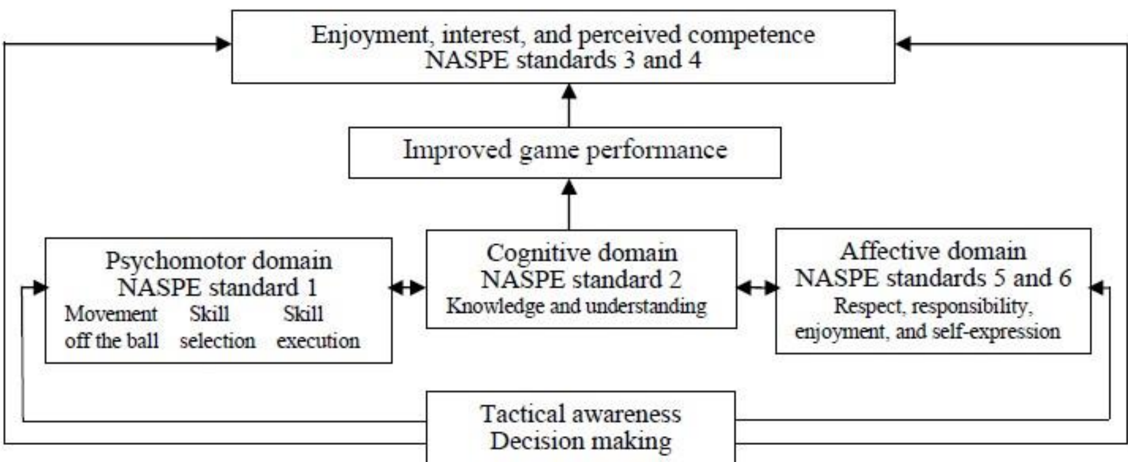

Figure 1. Anticipated learning outcomes (Mitchell et al., 2013)

Game involvement (GI): To sum up the scores of both appropriate and inappropriate 'decision making,' the scores of both efficient and inefficient 'skill execution' and appropriate 'support' were tallied [scores: number of appropriate decisions + number of inappropriate decisions + number of efficient skill executions + number of inefficient skill executions + number of appropriate supporting movements].

Decision-making index (DMI): 'Appropriate' score: An offensive player attempts to pass the ball to a teammate in a freelance situation and vice versa [scores: number of appropriate decisions made / (number of appropriate decisions made + number of inappropriate decisions made)].

Skill execution index (SEI): 'Efficient' score: An offensive player attempts to pass the ball to a teammate and it is successful, and vice versa [scores: number of efficient skill executions + number of inefficient skill executions].

Support index (SI): 'Appropriate' score: A player is able to move to the free space to support his or her teammate and vice versa [scores: number of appropriate supporting movements / (number of appropriate supporting movements + number of inappropriate supporting movements)].

Game performance (GP) ＝ [DMI＋SEI＋SI] ÷ 3
Note. If the value of the denominator is 0, the value is replaced with 1.

To evaluate the GP differences between Games 1 and 2 in each lesson, a t-test with repeated measures was used. To evaluate the GP differences between Lessons 1 and 2 between the two schools, a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with no repeated measures was conducted, and Turkey's test was used with a significance level of less than 0.05. This study used SPSS version 21, produced by IBM.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Formative Evaluation

The results of the formative evaluations are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Formative Evaluation

		Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9
Lesson 1	Mean	2.89	2.67	2.57	2.67	3.00	2.81	2.38	2.67	2.76
	score	5	4	3	3	5	5	3	3	4
Lesson 2	Mean	3.00	2.95	2.84	3.00	2.94	2.71	2.88	2.79	2.79
	score	5	5	4	5	4	4	4	4	4

In Lesson 1, the TSs scored above 2.77 for three out of nine items (emotional experience, experience of joy, and spontaneous learning). In Lesson 2, the TSs scored above 2.77 for eight out of nine items (all items except spontaneous learning). The lessons conducted by the TSs were positively assessed by the pupils. The TSs reflected on the process by watching the recorded videos and assessing the pupils' GP between Lessons 1 and 2. In the meantime, they seemed to improve their cognitive teaching and skills. In particular, teacher talk incorporating animations on the iPad was effective in encouraging the pupils to understand how they could successfully achieve 'pass and run' and 'run to the space.' The procedures that the students experienced promoted their tactical awareness (Mitchell, Oslin, & Griffin, 2013), and resultantly, their skill execution had overtly improved. The scores regarding the questions also increased. The results for one question ('Were you able to "pass and run"?') were remarkable, with a score of 2.38 in Lesson 1 and 2.88 in Lesson 2. The question represented the extent to which the pupils achieved a clear goal in the class. The response to another question ('Did you do your best?') was also remarkable, with a score of 2.67 in Lesson 1 and 3.00 in Lesson 2. The question represented the extent to which the pupils participated in the game, found space to run, moved their bodies, and did the best they could. The results suggested that the 4Cs of CLIL and the five conditions of PE were effectively realised in Lesson 2.

4.2 Game Performance Assessment Instrument

We evaluated and analysed the TSs' improvement throughout their lessons by observing the pupils using the GPAI, with the GP results shown in Table 5. In this study, the TSs planned and discussed 'off-the-ball movement' between Games 1 and 2. They expected the GP scores to increase more significantly in Game 2 than in Game 1 in both schools. The results showed a significant difference between the games. However, this could be partially due to rule restrictions such as passing the ball without dribbling. The result indicates how game form (Mitchell, Oslin, & Griffin, 2013) is essential for good PE practice.

Table 5. GP Comparisons Between Games 1 and 2 in Two Schools

	Game 1		Game 2					
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t* (39)		*P*	*ES*
GI	6.45	4.66	10.08	6.28	5.12	**	0.000	0.66
DMI	1.63	1.44	2.81	2.15	5.18	**	0.000	0.65
SEI	1.56	1.46	2.08	1.79	2.20	*	0.034	3.17
SI	2.31	1.93	3.61	2.67	3.70	*	0.001	0.56
GP	1.83	1.43	2.84	1.95	5.11	*	0.000	0.59

Note. $N = 40$, $^{**}p < .01$, $^{*}p < .05$

GI: Game involvement, DMI: Decision-making index, SEI: Skill execution index, SI: Support index, and GP: Game performance.

Regarding the five items shown in Table 5, the Game 1 scores increased in Game 2, and significant differences between the Game 1 and 2 scores were detected. The increase was considered to be the result of rule restrictions, such as passing the ball without dribbling. TSs ensured that pupils noticed the importance of moving to the space due to the limited dribbling. A modified game created by TSs elicited the pupils' tactical awareness (Mitchell, Oslin, & Griffin, 2013), so the procedures corresponded to the 4Cs of CLIL.

Additionally, the students were given a visual aid between games, and the TSs supported the pupils individually in Game 2. All of these factors positively affected the pupils' active participation in Game 2 (Table 6). Regarding SEI (Table 8), no significant differences were found between Games 1 and 2. Observing the improvement of PE skills is difficult when only evaluating them for 5 min./game. However, the goal of the lessons was to perform 'run to the space'. Therefore, the SI (Tables 7 and 9) revealed significant differences, suggesting that the pupils were very active in Game 2, and attempted to support their teammates, and thought of many ways to pass the ball to teammates.

Table 6. Results of GI: Difference Between the Lessons and Games

	ANOVA					
Source	*df*	*F*	*p*		partial η^2	*HSD*
Lesson	1	7.40	0.01	*	0.09	Game 2 > Game 1
Game	1	9.94	0.00	*	0.12	
Lesson × Game	1	2.49	0.12		0.03	
Error	76	(27.74)				

Note. $^{**}p < .01$, $^{*}p < .05$

Table 7. Results of DMI: Difference Between the Lessons and Games

	ANOVA					
Source	*Df*	*F*	*p*		partial η^2	*HSD*
Lesson	1	5.51	0.02	*	0.07	Game 2 > Game 1
Game	1	9.09	0.01	*	0.11	
Lesson × Game	1	0.65	0.42		0.01	
Error	76	(3.18)				

Note. $^{*}p < .05$

Table 8. Results of SEI: Difference Between the Lessons and Games

Source	ANOVA				HSD
	Df	*F*	*p*	partial η^2	
Lesson	1	3.04	0.09	0.04	
Game	1	2.08	0.15	0.03	
Lesson × Game	1	0.08	0.79	0.00	
Error	76	(2.62)			

Table 9. Results of SI: Difference Between the Lessons and Games

Source	ANOVA				HSD
	df	*F*	*p*	partial η^2	
Lesson	1	10.88	0.00 *	0.13	Game 2 > Game 1
Game	1	7.80	0.01 *	0.09	
Lesson × Game	1	3.76	0.06	0.05	
Error	76	(4.68)			

Note. $^{**}p < .01$, $^{*}p < .05$

The SEI (Table 8) also indicated that the pupils seemed very active in Game 2, attempted to pass the ball continuously, and felt self-efficacy in their successfulness. Repeating this experience is considered to improve TSs' teaching skills when rich content and community are incorporated in CLIL. The comparison of Lessons 1 and 2, as well as with Games 1 and 2, revealed significant differences. The results suggested an increase in 'off-the-ball movement' in Game 2.

Additionally, the TSs came to realise that some pupils were unable to participate in the game, so one of the TSs acted as a second teacher and supported these pupils individually by encouraging them and giving them advice. The TSs observed the students and discussed the reasons why some pupils were inactive in the lessons, and three reasons were discerned: 1) some were motivated, but they encountered difficulty due to a lack of motor skills or sports knowledge, 2) a few pupils were unwilling to participate, and 3) some had problems communicating with others due to developmental disabilities. The TSs acquired observational and support skills and enabled these struggling pupils to be more active in class. An increase in effective GP (Table 10) was detected in Lesson 2 compared to in Lesson 1. There were indications of overall improvement by all pupils, along with improvement by some pupils who did not actively participate. Through a visual review on the iPad, the authors also observed that some pupils became active and ran to the space because of the second teacher's encouragements, such as 'pass and run' and 'move to the space over there'. In this case, communicative intention among the team members, CLIL's 4C, was positively employed to brainstorm tactics.

Table 10. Results of GP: Difference Between the Lessons and Games

Source	ANOVA					HSD
	df	*F*	*p*		partial η^2	
Lesson	1	8.41	0.01	*	0.10	Game 2 > Game 1
Game	1	7.96	0.01	*	0.10	
Lesson × Game	1	1.55	0.22		0.02	
Error	76	(2.64)				

Note. $^{*}p < .05$

In summary, the procedures improved the TSs' awareness of how to observe their pupils' movement changes, deepening the TSs' cognitive thought process in relation to the essential elements of CLIL implementation in a PE lesson. Planning and instructing a lesson based on the CLIL approach to elicit the pupils' awareness (cognition) and giving feedback here and now (communication) are essential and may produce good results in raising both the pupils' motor skills and knowledge of tactics.

5. Limitations

This study has some limitations that should be considered in further research. First, the subjects were different in Lessons 1 and 2. They had different backgrounds in terms of both PE and their mother tongue. For instance, the pupils in Lesson 2 had a higher score (2.14) than those in Lesson 1 (1.52). It is assumed that the Lesson 2 pupils showed more willingness to participate in CLIL in PE and were more interested in new things. Second, we conducted only two lessons in two different schools. This is not sufficient enough to generalise a result.

6. Conclusion

This study attempted to verify the effectiveness of applying CLIL to PE and teacher development as part of an OTP in Finland. The authors verified that TSs' teaching abilities improved in regards to carefully assessing the pupils' performances. Making another attempt, the authors also found that pupils' game performance improved throughout the modified game forms where the pupils were given more chances to employ cognitive thinking and problem solving to pass the ball and execute 'off-the-ball movement'. The modified forms of basketball without any dribbling had pupils communicate with each other, which involves social conduciveness using subject-specific (PE) language in English. In conclusion, the effectiveness of CLIL in PE towards improving TSs' ability was decisively verified.

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A Review of the Critical Literature on CLIL and Steps to Move Japan-CLIL Forward

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Abstract
Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) came quickly upon the scene of language education in the 1990s and was embraced enthusiastically by teachers and institutions. Empirical findings of the benefits of CLIL began to be published (i.e., Jiménez Catalán & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2009; Lorenzo, Casal, & Moore, 2010), which further provided appeal and persuasiveness to this teaching approach. However, as this upward swing was gaining momentum, a number of critical articles emerged over the past decade. These have dampened some of the early enthusiasm and they clearly show that there are still many questions and uncertainties around CLIL. In this paper, I first review three points of criticism, namely the ambiguity of defining CLIL, issues with materials for teaching CLIL, and flaws with some of the positive research that support CLIL. Then I consider ways Japan CLIL can learn from these criticisms and move forward. First, I argue that the strong/weak (soft/hard) CLIL continuum model needs to be developed and expanded into a more robust taxonomy that reflects the local contextual variations of CLIL in Japan. Secondly, I discuss the importance of integrating a flipped classroom into a CLIL based course, as a way to confront the lack of CLIL materials and to provide more time in the classroom to develop learners' higher order thinking and collaboration skills. Finally, I consider future avenues of research that investigate how CLIL learners process content in an L2 and what role multimodal (gestures, images, etc.) forms of communication have on the learning of the content.

Keywords: CLIL, criticism, flipped classroom, cognitive load

1. Introduction

CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) came upon the scene of the language teaching profession in the late 1990s with an "explosion of interest" (Coyle, 2006, p. 2). It had the underlying notion as being a "catalyst for change" (Marsh, Maljers, & Hartiala, 2001, p. 51) even to the point of acclaiming to be a "methodological revolution" (Pavón Vázquez & Rubio, 2010, p. 48). As a consequence, it was enthusiastically embraced by policy makers, teachers, and institutions, which resulted in a bandwagon effect (Cenoz, Genesee & Gorter,

2013, p. 14). Yet, often the consequence of such a swinging momentum in one direction is that the swinging momentum in the opposite direction is bound to happen. This is what Pérez Cañado (2017) has called the “pendulum effect”, which highlights some of the recent criticisms of CLIL. Therefore, in the first section of this article, I review this critical literature from three perspectives; the lack of precision in defining CLIL, issues with CLIL materials, and finally CLIL research. Then in the second section, I use these critical points in order to suggest ways for Japan CLIL to move forward into the future. I suggest three possibilities; (1) develop a more robust taxonomy that can provide some clarification to the diversity of CLIL in Japan; (2) situate CLIL with other teaching methodologies, specifically a flipped classroom; and (3) focus on research that investigates the learning and teaching processes of language and content integration.

2. Recent critical literature of CLIL

2.1 CLIL, an umbrella or a canopy?

CLIL is a dual-focused educational approach that integrates both language and content in the learning environment and also aims to develop learners’ cognition through utilizing tasks that require higher order thinking skills. Early proponents of CLIL (see Coyle, Hood, Marsh, 2010) referred to this as the “4 Cs framework” (content, communication, cognition, and culture). Yet, it should be noted here that most contemporary approaches to foreign language education follow a very similar framework, namely being communicatively based and content driven through the use of learning activities that aim to develop students’ abilities to create, analyse, and evaluate while interacting in the target language. Thus, it would be difficult to argue that such contemporary approaches to foreign language teaching aren’t in fact CLIL. Similarly, Cenoz et al. (2013) take this idea one step further and suggest that "the possible forms that CLIL can take are so inclusive that it is difficult to think of any teaching or learning activity in which an L2/foreign language would be used that could not be considered CLIL" (p. 4).

Thus, as one can imagine, there has been a considerable amount of confusion about *what is CLIL?*, but more accurately, the confusion might be centred on the question, *what isn’t CLIL?*. It is precisely this inherent flexibility that makes it intriguing, but this also results in it being elusively unspecified (Cenoz et al., 2013) and thus having a certain “terminological and pedagogical vagueness” (Pérez Cañado, 2016, p. 18). For example, Cenoz et al. (2013) attempted to critically examine the defining characteristics of CLIL and how they could be used in order to conceptually differentiate it from immersion approaches. After their analysis, they concluded, "the lack of precision in the internal definition of CLIL makes it difficult, if not impossible, to identify features that are uniquely characteristic of CLIL in contrast to immersion education" (Cenoz et al., 2013, p. 13) since both draw attention to the importance of a systematic, planned, and coherent integration of language and content (Cenoz et al., 2013, p. 10). In more recent articles, CLIL and immersion (or Content Based Instruction)

have been further described as two terms that are synonymous (Ruiz de Zarobe, 2008, p. 61) or "labels for the same reality" (Ruiz de Zarobe & Cenoz, 2015, p. 90). Proponents of CLIL have admitted to the "fuzzy boundaries" between these terms (Dalton-Puffer, Llinares, Lorenzo, & Nikula, 2014, p. 214) and further indicate that CLIL is a highly inclusive teaching approach and thus should be viewed as an umbrella term.

The consequences of this "convenient vagueness" (Bruton, 2013, p. 588) can be numerous. For instance, this lack of clarity can lead to methodological issues when trying to conduct research. If the term is underspecified and used as a variable within a study, issues of replicability and generalizability become questionable. So, if it is widely agreed upon that CLIL is indeed an umbrella term, or perhaps a canopy term, that is widely inclusive, one crucial area for further research is to develop a taxonomy that highlights the different ways CLIL is used in the classroom (Cenoz et al., 2013). This will provide researchers and teachers working in the field a better understanding of the diversity of CLIL and allow them the ability to compare and contrast these different CLIL approaches to language and content teaching.

2.2 Scarcity of CLIL materials and fashionable CLIL for ELT textbooks

A second issue that frequently appears in the literature on CLIL has to do with the scarcity of materials available for teachers. This is probably accentuated at the tertiary level and it is generally viewed that CLIL practitioners have three choices:

- To use authentic text
- To adapt "diluted" authentic materials
- Or to design something new from scratch (Moore & Lorenzo, 2007, p. 28).

From the author's own experiences teaching CLIL at a national university in Japan, using authentic text would be a difficult option due to the complexity of the language and the length of the text. On the other hand, adapting or developing text from scratch to use in the classroom provides the teacher with more flexibility to cater to the needs and levels of the students, but obviously is labour intensive and done often in an "ad hoc" manner.

Another issue involving materials for CLIL is not concerned with scarcity, but rather publishing houses including it into ELT textbooks for fashionable appeal. This has naturally occurred due to the widely held belief within the field of education that CLIL is a "methodological revolution". As a consequence, a number of ELT textbooks began using the term CLIL within their descriptions, as a marketable feature of the textbooks. This led Banegas (2014) to conduct a critical analysis of four such textbooks (More! - Cambridge; Insights - Macmillan; Champions - Oxford; and Upbeat - Pearson). His conclusion was rather discouraging. First, he pointed out that these textbooks indeed utilize content, but simply in a trivial way. Secondly, he noted the inadequate integration of the content within the textbooks, which results in the content being far from coherent. He illustrated this by

showing how one section in the textbook presents content on glaciers, which is then followed by one on the history of fashion. Finally, he concluded that the inclusion of CLIL appears peripheral, or as something "extra" and this incorporation of CLIL seemed erratic, which he surmised could be due to the under-defined nature of CLIL (Banegas, 2014).

In short, one lingering issue within CLIL is the problem of CLIL materials. On the one hand, there is a scarcity of content focused textbooks developed for foreign language learners with the aim of integrating language and content, especially at the tertiary level. On the other hand, a growing number of publishing houses are incorporating CLIL materials into their ELT textbooks, which likely further confounds the terminological vagueness of CLIL, as educators try to adapt a CLIL approach in their classrooms.

2.3 Research issues in CLIL: Moving variables

A third criticism of CLIL involves research within the CLIL literature. As CLIL became popularized in a number of different educational contexts and countries, justifying it as a valid approach became imperative. A number of empirical studies were published in the past decade that showed convincingly, though with some reservation about generalizing the results, a "CLIL effect". The positive outcome achievements of CLIL learners usually involved comparison studies between CLIL and non-CLIL groups. In such studies, CLIL participants outperformed non-CLIL participants in a number of language dimensions such as: receptive vocabulary size (Jiménez Catalán et al., 2009), conversational and academic language use (Várkuti, 2010), and oral and written production skills as well as having a positive effect on language attitudes towards trilingualism (conducted in Basque Autonomous Community) (Ruiz de Zabore & Lasagabaster, 2010).

One particular study (Lorenzo et al., 2010) from Andalusia provided compelling evidence for a "CLIL effect" by showing results from a linguistic evaluation between CLIL learners and mainstream non-CLIL peers. These CLIL learners clearly outperformed this other group with post-test scores of 62.1% to 38%, respectively. These positive outcomes came into question in a number of articles by Anthony Bruton (2011a, 2011b, 2013) who argued that the results could be interpreted in a number of ways that contradict this purported "CLIL effect". For instance, he pointed out a number of contaminating variables to the data that in turn could have affected these discrepant post-test scores. These include the fact that the students from the CLIL group came from a higher socio-economic status, were likely more motivated, were more proficient from the start, a higher per cent of them took English classes outside of school, had access in the CLIL class to native speaker assistants (team teaching), and simply had more contact time with English (Bruton, 2011a, 2011b).

In summary, these three different criticisms are all highly connected. First, the lack of a clear definition of CLIL results in the term being used in "fuzzy" and widely inclusive ways,

which leads to confusion. In this apparent confusion, material developers adapt the term to market textbooks with the quality of being cutting edge or acquainted with the most recent teaching approaches, yet in fact, are questionably representative of a CLIL approach. Secondly, researchers often suggest that there is a clear dichotomy between CLIL and non-CLIL groups, but if the term is inclusive (i.e., an umbrella term), what clear features separate these two groups? Again, this begs the question what is this non-CLIL group doing in the class since it is "difficult to think of any teaching or learning activity in which an L2/foreign language would be used that could not be considered CLIL" (Cenoz et al., 2013, p. 4). So, it is important to use these criticisms in a constructive way in order to consider a path forward for J-CLIL. Three key points are essential for this: developing a taxonomy to describe the variability found within CLIL, looking at ways to integrated CLIL with other teaching approaches and considering possible future research within the field of CLIL.

3. Moving Japan-CLIL forward

3.1 Problems with the current terminology

The current terminology used to distinguish the diverse approaches to CLIL often uses a single binary variable: "weak – strong" (or sometimes referred to as "soft – hard", as far as I understand, these two binary terms can be used interchangeably). The main distinction between a weak and strong approach to CLIL, as Ikeda (2013) has pointed out is to emphasize how a weak CLIL aims at helping "learners develop their target language competency as a primary aim and their subject/theme/topic knowledge as a secondary aim" (p. 32). In other words, a weak CLIL, which uses content for language practice, prioritizes language learning and reduces content to the incidental (Banegas, 2014). There are a few problems with these binary terms. First, the "weak – strong" distinction is metaphorically problematic. That is to say, the word "weak" (and to a lesser extent "soft") has negative connotations associated with it. Any thesaurus will provide such vocabulary associations as "frail, inadequate, unconvincing, ineffectual, and unenthusiastic", which suggests, perhaps unconsciously, that a "weak CLIL" is a poorer and less effective approach. Secondly, as Banegas pointed out above, a "weak CLIL" relegates content to the periphery (by prioritizing language learning), which contradicts the aim of CLIL, as being "dual-focused" and though any 50-50 relationship would be impossible to measure, the dual-focused nature of the teaching should be emphasized. Finally, these binary terms overlook the great diversity of the different CLIL approaches and do not provide much substance to distinguishing them.

To begin designing a CLIL taxonomy, it is crucial to consider ways that CLIL may vary between courses, institutions, and countries. To do this, I outline four important variables, learners' L2 level, L1 use in the classroom, the content, and the degree of integration in the curriculum. These can be organized in a radar chart (see Figure 1). Firstly, the ***L2 level*** of the learners needs to be considered as an important difference between CLIL courses. This would be based on the CEFR (Council European Framework of Reference for Languages),

an international standard for measuring language ability on a 6-point scale from A1 (beginner) to C2 (mastery level). In addition, a Japanese version of the CEFR has been under development for some time (see http://www.cefr-j.org for more information). This would be the first variable and in order to maintain consistency across the other variables on this radar chart, a 6-point scale would be adapted. That is to say, ***L1 use***, the second variable in this taxonomy, would be based on the following scale: 1 (never used in the class); 2 (rarely used); 3 (occasionally used); 4 (sometimes used); 5 (frequently used) to 6 (a bilingual class), which the teacher would self-assess. One would assume that L1 use and the L2 level of the learners would be inversely correlated, as the L2 increases, L1 use should typically decrease. As for ***content***, a similar scale could be adapted based on the specificity of the content taught in the course. Instead of viewing it as "weak or strong", it is more characteristic of CLIL content to lie along the continuum from content general to content specific. That is to say, some CLIL courses focus entirely on a single specific content topic while other CLIL courses are more general and potentially cross many different academic fields. For example, the ELT textbook, Reading for Today: Concepts 4 (Cengage), includes a wide range of content-driven topics from Science and Technology to Health and Wellbeing to History, and therefore this would be considered highly general and thus ranked as 1 (general content) in the scale. On the other hand, some ELT textbooks (Cambridge, *Academic Encounters 3: Reading and Writing*) present specific content such as topics in the field of Sociology (Gender, Media, Crime, Marriage), but do so in a general way, so this would be ranked as 3 (general-specific). Then, more specific content courses like those that aim to teach U.S. History or Psychology would be given a higher ranking on this scale, as in 6 (specific content). So, in sum, a low score on this scale indicates that the CLIL content is highly general and broadly covers many different content areas while a higher score indicates that the course uses very specific content material. Finally, the degree of ***integration*** would also follow a similar scale from 1 (the course is not at all integrated within a CLIL based curriculum) to 6 (fully integrated into a CLIL based curriculum). Scores in the middle would represent degrees of being more loosely integrated into the curriculum. This is important to consider for this will have an impact on students' expectations of this teaching approach. Moreover, their background experiences learning within a CLIL approach will likely have some influence on the learners' outcomes. Using a taxonomy based on the above four variables has the potential to help clarify some of the confusion and variation of CLIL and provide both teachers and researchers more insight into the term when used in academic papers/presentations.

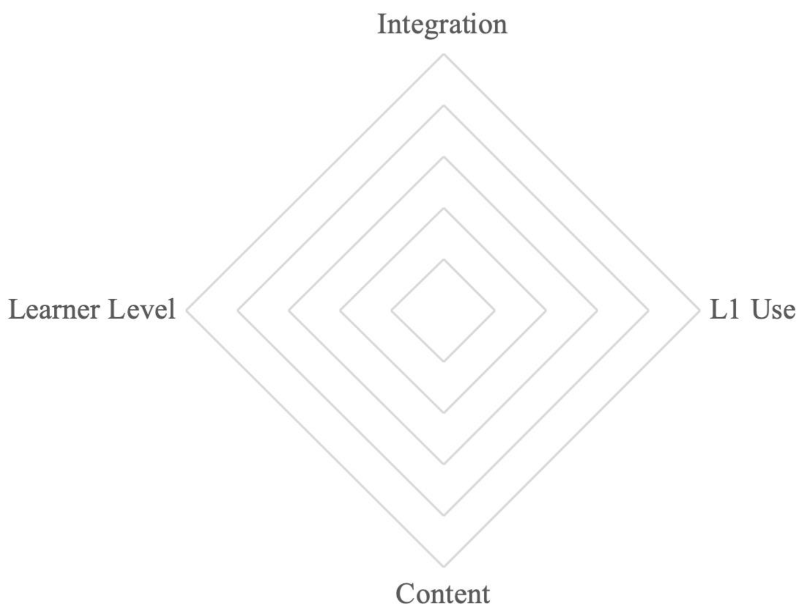

Figure 1. Example of CLIL course descriptions for the proposed taxonomy

In summary, when describing research using a CLIL framework, the researcher for clarity could highlight the specifics of the CLIL approach used by ranking on a 6-point scale each of the before mentioned variables. Figure 2 provides an example of how this might look with two clearly different approaches to CLIL shown on the radar chart.

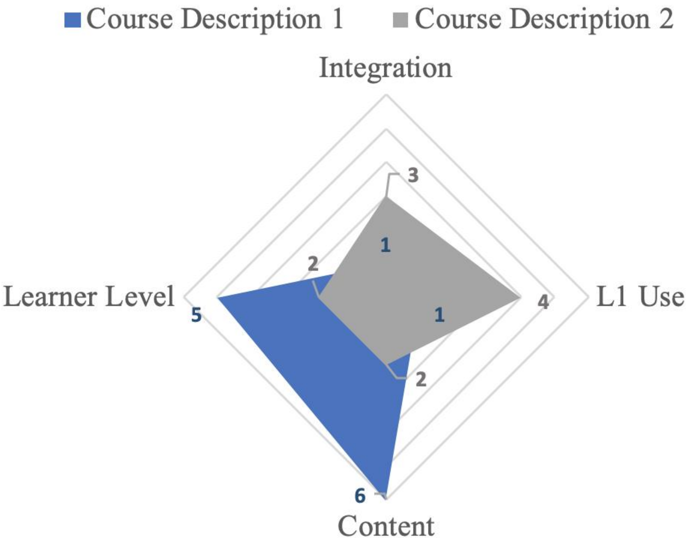

Figure 2. Example of two types of CLIL course descriptions using the proposed taxonomy

Course Description 1 represents a course for higher level L2 users with very little L1 support and the content is specific and the course is not integrated into any CLIL curriculum. On the other hand, Course Description 2 represents a course with lower level L2 users and also

provides more L1 support is partially integrated into a CLIL program and uses general content. Even though these two course descriptions appear to be widely different in substance, they both fall under the CLIL umbrella, as they both aim to integrate language and content in the classroom while also focusing on developing learners' communication and higher order thinking skills. Finally, another potential area for improving J-CLIL for the future is to consider ways of integrating this dual-focused approach with other recent trends in the field of SLA, most notably, the flipped classroom.

3.2 CLIL and the flipped classroom

A flipped classroom assigns video lectures and practice problems as homework and then in the classroom incorporates active, group-based problem-solving activities (Bishop & Verleger, 2013). This approach reflects two major paradigm shifts in education, the proliferation and accessibility of online lectures through video sharing platforms and the movement towards an active learning approach to education that puts greater importance on interaction, individual and group construction of knowledge, and developing critical and creative thinking skills.

Integrating CLIL with a flipped classroom has a number of advantages. First, it helps alleviate the materials problem within CLIL. For instance, available video lectures cover a wide range of academic content topics from Design (see Tip Tut on YouTube) to Psychology (see PsychExamReview on YouTube) and those that offer a broad range of content videos (see Sprouts; Khan Academy, and TedEd for a few examples). These videos also range in length with some being quite short, therefore reducing the cognitive load for foreign language learners. In addition, a number of these video lectures also have captioning and in some cases subtitles to provide additional linguistic support for the learners. Secondly, video lectures provide learners' extensive listening practice for the content material, which can also be controlled (playback, pause, etc.) directly by the learners to meet their individual learning abilities. Finally, these videos are open and free and in the public domain, so highly accessible.

In order to illustrate how this might be achieved within a CLIL based course, I will provide a short example using Course Description 1 from Figure 2. This is an Introduction to Psychology class primarily for students who have studied abroad and want to continue studying English, international exchange students, and other students with upper intermediate level English skills (B2 or above). An early section for this course covers the topic of Behaviourism. Students are divided into groups of three. Each student in each group is assigned to watch one video[10] related to Behaviourism. They must take notes on this video

[10] https://youtu.be/H6LEcM0E0io (TedEd video; 4 m. 12 s. with Japanese subtitles); https://youtu.be/ut1zmfolM9E (Khan Academy; 6 m. 58 s.); and https://youtu.be/uszdpFoALQk (PsychExamReview; 13 m 44 s.). These videos can be assigned based on the levels of the students

and come to class prepared to teach it to the other group members. In class, each student teaches the other members the content of his or her video. At the end, as a group, they compare and contrast the three videos and come up with a group summary. The teacher then reviews the content at the end of class to reinforce the material and to check for comprehension. As homework for the following week, each group prepares a completed and printed out summary. At the start of class, as a review, two smaller groups of three form a larger group of six where they share their summaries and compare the similarities and differences.

The obvious benefit of integrating a flipped classroom into a CLIL course is that it naturally opens up the in-class time for interaction and discussion of the content. Content-based courses can easily slip into what has before been called a "chalk and talk" method of teaching, which nowadays might be better labelled "swipe and talk" (referring to the PowerPoint slides used to teach the content), as teachers often feel compelled to cover the content in class, resulting in a "lecture" like class format. Therefore, integrating a flipped classroom approach into a CLIL course provides the teacher ample time in class to focus more on interaction, communication, and developing learners' higher order thinking skills (i.e., exploring relationships between different concepts, critically evaluating information, and using information to create something new).

3.3 Future research

In this final section, I examine ways to move J-CLIL forward into the future, specifically in regards to conducting research. To begin, there is a need for future research to move away from comparing CLIL and non-CLIL performance outcomes to better understanding the process of how one simultaneously learns a foreign language and content. One line of research that could provide some insight into this phenomenon has to do with cognitive load. For instance, the positive outcomes of CLIL are commonly based on the assumption that when learners are presented with stimulating content in a foreign language, they have to think more deeply about it, thus investing more effort and time in the learning, resulting in deeper semantic processing (see Heine, 2010). On the other hand, another line of research based on cognitive load theory (Sweller, Ayres, & Kalyuga, 2011) argues, particularly for lower level students, that there are possible negative effects when learning a foreign language simultaneously with content due to the increase cognitive load it puts on the individual learners' working memory (Piesche, Jonkmann, Fiege, & Keßler, 2016; Roussel, Joulia, Tricot, & Sweller 2017). For instance, Roussel et al. (2017) presented academic text to subjects in an experimental setting using three different conditions (native language only, foreign language only, and foreign language with translation) and then assessed them with a

– the lower-level student watches the first video while the higher-level student watches the 3rd video.

post-test that measured (1) translation of vocabulary from the foreign language text into the native language and (2) content questions (in the native language) pertaining to the text. They found that presenting content in a foreign language did not have an advantage for learning the language and had a negative effect on learning the content. From these results, they cautioned using a foreign language to teach academic content to learners without explicit foreign language instruction. Despite the fact that the study only used lower level students as well as highly complex and difficult academic content materials (Law and Computer Science), it does bring up some important future questions for CLIL instructors and researchers such as:

- What is the relationship between cognitive load and CLIL?
- What scaffolding techniques can the instructor bring into the classroom to lessen this cognitive overload?

In the following two subsections, I consider possible research avenues that could address these two questions.

3.3.1 Cognitive load and CLIL

Cognitive load theory (Sweller et al., 2011) uses cognitive architecture to explain the structure of human knowledge and how a learner processes new information. This architecture consists of an unlimited long-term memory (LTM), which interacts with a working memory (WM). This WM has limits in both capacity, as in the magical number 7±2 (Miller, 1956), which has been reduced to 4±1 (Cowan, 2010), and duration whereby information typically lasts for roughly 15-30 seconds before it fades unless rehearsed (Peterson & Peterson, 1959). Despite these limitations, our WM is the conscious part of our memory system and thus is constantly taking in new information depending on what we attend to and thereby is essential for constructing and updating our mental representations. In short, it is responsible for learning to occur and for building deeper and richer knowledge structures. Yet, since WM is both limited in capacity and duration, there are limits to what individual learners can do on any given task within the classroom. According to cognitive load theory, there are three types of cognitive loads for WM, extraneous, intrinsic, and germane (Sweller, van Merriënboer, & Paas, 1998). Extraneous load is the unnecessary and unproductive load that often occurs from poorly designed instruction and is nonessential for the learning. Intrinsic load is finding associations between the elements and integrating them into one's prior knowledge and thus essential for learning. Specifically, this load helps one to comprehend a situation, perform a task, or construct higher-order knowledge. Finally, germane load further contributes to the learning of the task at hand and the development of new cognitive structures and increase learner motivation (Kalyuga, 2007). As new information is incorporated into existing cognitive knowledge structures, as in chunking, these elements of information become more efficient and automatic and reduce the cognitive load on the WM. Therefore, the amount of complexity, as in the interactivity between the elements, is subjective and thus relative to the individual learners' background knowledge

and experiences. So, for more advanced learners, there are fewer elements due to the increase knowledge structures already learned.

In a learning task that contains a large amount of new and interacting elements, this places a high cognitive demand on WM, which can overwhelm the individual learner. This is especially the case when a novice language learner is trying to process simultaneously the foreign language and the content (see Roussel et al., 2017). The question is how to manage this load. I consider this from two perspectives, (1) cognitive load theory and optimal learning, as outlined by Csikszentmihalyi's (1996) model of "Flow"; and (2) cognitive load theory and the role of collaboration.

First, obviously there is not a fixed, one-shoe size fits all approach to CLIL teaching. Students of lower levels need greater amounts of explicit instruction and L1 support in order to reduce being overwhelmed by attempting to process the content in a foreign language. Secondly, it is important to reduce the complexity of the tasks by "simplifying the tasks after which more and more elements and interactions are added" (Paas, van Gog, Sweller, 2010, p.118), which follows in line with the socio-constructivist position of teaching within the learners' zone of proximal development (ZPD). Yet, this does not mean simplifying tasks across all levels of CLIL courses, especially for advanced learners. For instance, explicit instruction, which likely benefits novice learners, in contrast, could be unnecessary for advanced learners, resulting in redundancy and preventing them from using their cognitive resources for meaningful learning. This is often referred to as the "expertise reversal effect" (Kalyuga, 2007). Csikszentmihalyi's (1996) model of "Flow" illustrates this tension. For instance, when the challenges are too high and the skill sets of the individual too low, this results in anxiety and stress. Since the skill sets of the individual do not correlate with the demands of the task, the individual experiences negative affective states, which likely is due to the cognitive overload one is experiencing. On the other hand, when the individual's skills are high, but the challenge is low, this results in boredom and relaxation. In this case, when the tasks at hand are overly simplistic for the skill sets of the individual, the individual loses motivation, as the cognitive resources are consumed by redundancy and processing unnecessary information or information that could be processed automatically. According to this model, for one to reach a state of "Flow", which is the optimal state for learning to occur, one must both be stimulated or aroused by some challenge (in the case of CLIL, simultaneously learning meaningful content while learning a foreign language) and feel one has the skills to deal with this challenge. In other words, as one moves along the continuum from novice to expert both in regards to content knowledge and language skills, the instructional guidance needs to adjust and adapt to these changes. For lower level students this involves greater guidance, more explicit instruction and feedback while for higher level students this involves less guidance and feedback, more autonomy, and the reduction of redundant information.

The second perspective takes into account the role of collaborative learning from the viewpoint of cognitive load theory. For instance, using collaborative learning in CLIL has the potential to lower the cognitive demands on the learner's WM. This approach assumes when individual WMs collaboratively work together with others, they create a reservoir of cognitive capacity (Kirschner, Paas, & Kirschner, 2011). This consequently allows them to create a collective working memory, which has been shown to be superior when dealing with high-complexity tasks, yet inferior for low-complexity tasks (Kirschner et al., 2011; Kirschner, Paas, Kirschner, & Janssen, 2011). Therefore, it appears that collaborative learning has potential for CLIL, as a way to reduce cognitive load on the individual learners, but this increased optimization is dependent on the type of task.

In short, two promising areas of future CLIL research in Japan are the following: (1) to investigate the process of learning when language and content are integrated together by utilizing cognitive load theory, similar to the Roussel et al. (2017) study, but using more ecologically valid materials and comparing novice with advanced learners; and (2) to better understand the benefits (or lack thereof) in the learning process when utilizing collaborative learning for different types of tasks within a CLIL framework.

3.3.2 Lessening the cognitive load of CLIL through multimodal scaffolding

The interplay between task complexity, individual learner differences, and collaboration are all important factors that affect the cognitive load an individual learner experiences while engaged with a learning task. In this subsection, I outline two specific ways to optimally enhance the learning by lessening the cognitive load placed on CLIL learners through the use of multimodal scaffolding. Although by no means exhaustive, the two I focus on in this article are gestures and the use of images, which both have been shown to optimize vocabulary learning outcomes (see Mayer, Yildiz, Macedonia, & von Kriegstein, 2015).
Gesturing refers to the meaningful hand movements that concurrently are produced while speaking and provide complimentary information to the speech act (McNeil, 2005). Therefore, gestures and language are an integrated system (Kelly, Manning, & Rodak, 2008) and recent research has shown that they enhance learning as well as the learning of a foreign language (Cook, Mitchell, & Goldin-Meadow 2008; Macedonia & von Kriegstein, 2012; Zimmer, 2001). This "enactment effect", as in the act of gesturing, is due to the deeper coding of the word when semantic processing is paired with sensorimotor enriched information and has a positive impact for facilitating the learning of novel L2 words (Macedonia, Repetto, Ischebeck, & Mueller, 2019). Macedonia et al. (2019) explain this effect due to a number of varying accounts:

- gestures leave behind *motor traces* that have a specialized motor store in WM (Smyth & Pendleton, 1990), thus providing a supplementary store of information;

- gestures produce a kinematic (or motor based) image of the concept, which provides additional meaningful representation of the word; and
- gestures use multisensory processing, thus increasing perception and attention, which strengthens memory.

So, an effective way to enhance the encoding of foreign language vocabulary is for the teacher, who likely already does this unconsciously, to actively use gestures, but also to use them in more explicit ways for explaining new vocabulary. This type of enactment can also be utilized for abstract concepts, which have also been shown to use bodily motor processes (Zwaan & Taylor, 2006). Moreover, it is far less common in the classroom to have students produce their own gestures, which has been shown to be an effective cognitive aid for enhancing the processes of communication, encoding, and recall in an L2 (Morett, 2014). In sum, it is important for CLIL instructors to consider such cognitive aids that facilitate the comprehension and recall of target language vocabulary, especially when the learning is cognitively demanding such as learning academic content concurrently with a foreign language.

A second cognitive aid that has been explored for some time is to pair foreign language word learning with images. Empirical research has shown this to be an effective technique (Carpenter & Olson, 2012). Paivio's Dual Coding Model (2007) provides some explanatory power to its effectiveness. In this model, verbal and nonverbal stimuli have different representational associative structures, but also have referential connections. The verbal system is purely a linguistic storehouse of information for that word while the nonverbal system contains modality-specific (visual, auditory, and tactile) semantic features. The multisensory input that the image provides the learner aids in comprehension, but also the construction of richer semantic encoding. This is possible for concrete concepts or those that have referents to physical real world objects, yet according to Paivio (2007, p. 105) for abstract concepts, verbal processes predominate. Yet, a recent experimental study (Birdsell, Tatsuta, & Nakamrua, 2019) has shown how participants are able to link an abstract concept like "curiosity" to a number of different physically bound images like "dandelion seeds" or "a lighter" or "a map". These participants then provided interpretations to these newly generated metaphors by selecting relevant semantic features of the physical entity and then mapping them onto the abstract concept. The point here is that images could be used in the classroom with abstract concepts, too, in order to have learners metaphorically think about shared semantic features between the two concepts (e.g., curiosity – lighter; quick spark, short-lived, potentially dangerous, etc.). Birdsell (2017, 2019) has also further discussed the importance of using multimodal and pictorial metaphors in the classroom, as a way to develop learners' cognition, specifically their higher order thinking skills, and to build their abstract knowledge by linking the specific abstract concept to a more familiar and concrete concept. This form of analogical cognition has been used to explain why humans are so smart compared to other species (Gentner, 2003).

In sum, future research needs to look at the benefits (or lack thereof) of multimodal scaffolding on learning content in a foreign language, especially for different levels of learners. When learners deliberately produce gestures in order to communicate a topic, does this enhance the learning and recall of this topic, as compared to only verbally communicating it? Secondly, how effective are visual aids to the learning of content, especially abstract content like economics and are some images more effective? As shown here, there are many avenues of future research for CLIL, which aim to investigate the cognitive processes of learning content and language simultaneously in order to more effectively teach the two together.

4. Conclusion

In this paper, I reviewed a number of recent criticisms that highlight some problematic issues currently facing CLIL such as terminological vagueness, questions about CLIL materials, and problems with some of the current research. Using these criticisms, I then considered ways for J-CLIL to move forward into the future. I first discussed the importance of creating a taxonomy that conveys the diversity of CLIL, which allows researchers and teachers to describe in more detail the specific type of CLIL they researched or used in the classroom when presenting or publishing a paper. In addition, such a taxonomy highlights the heterogeneity of CLIL practice. Secondly, I considered one widely mentioned limitation of CLIL, that is to say, the lack of materials for instructors, especially at the tertiary level. In order to overcome this shortcoming, I suggest integrating CLIL with a flipped classroom whereby learners engage with multimedia content outside of class and spend more time in class interacting and developing high order thinking skills. Finally, I proposed some vital paths forward for CLIL research, especially investigating the cognitive processes involved in integrating content and foreign language and how this likely differs based on a number of variables such as individual learner levels and the use of collaboration to complete a task.

As CLIL matures and spreads globally, an increasing amount of scrutiny and criticism is bound to happen, as evidenced from the critical papers reviewed in this article. This, needless to say, does not take away from the usefulness and benefits of CLIL, as a teaching paradigm, but rather requires those involved to reflect and consider ways to develop CLIL while adapting it to new teaching environments and situations.

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CLIL in Languages Other Than English

The Potential of CLIL for Heritage Language Learners in the UK: A Case Study of a Japanese Language Supplementary School for Bicultural Bilingual Children

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Abstract
Supplementary schools were originally setup primarily in response to newly arrived immigrants (and now international families) who were concerned that their children were losing the active use of the heritage language as they began schooling, creating worries about a weakening of cultural identity. As a methodology the CLIL approach has not been widely applied or examined in terms of its potential in the context of a supplementary school for heritage language education and research in the area is limited. This study examines a supplementary school in the UK that teaches the Japanese language through level and age divided language lessons with a focus on cultural education to mixed-race children born to English and Japanese parents. Through interviews and questionnaire data with the teachers, parents and school pupils (aged 6-14), this paper addresses the teaching methodology and teacher beliefs within the school and suggests how a CLIL approach that focuses on culture, can influence and shape a child's linguistic and cultural identity. It is hoped that this study can be used as evidence for the potential of CLIL in supplementary schools not just in the UK but also in Japan as an effective pedagogy for the teaching and learning of heritage languages.

Keywords: CLIL, Heritage language, Bilingualism, Bicultural children

1. Introduction

The number of mixed marriages within the UK with one parent being Japanese has continued to increase over the last decade along with the number of children born within these international marriages. This phenomenon has enormous educational implications on how the bicultural children within these families learn and maintain their minority or heritage language.

A heritage language is usually learned within the home through one or both parents but may never reach beyond basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and advance to

the cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) level. This is due to the fact that the heritage language may never be truly developed because the child grows up with the dominant societal language in which they are naturally more likely to be more competent (Valdes, 2000).

Many international families in the UK are struggling with raising their children bilingually not just linguistically in terms of the transition from BICS to CALP but ethnically in terms of their identity and how they view themselves. Supplementary schools such as the International Children's Bunko Association (ICBA) in the UK headed by Opal Dunn were setup primarily in response to newly arriving immigrants (and now international families) who were concerned that their children were losing the active use of the home language as they began schooling, creating worries about a weakening of cultural identity. Supplementary schools usually stem from a community-based initiative to provide educational support for children in areas such as language, culture and religion.

This study examines a supplementary school in the UK that teaches the Japanese language through level and age divided language lessons with a focus on cultural education to mixed-race children born to English and Japanese parents. The paper will address how CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) can be adopted as an appropriate educational framework for the teaching of the heritage language and culture in the context of supplementary education.

2. Definition of the heritage speaker and language

Defining the heritage language speaker has proved to be problematic (Wiley & Valdes, 2000), and there are various interpretations within the literature. In a narrow definition the heritage speaker is classified as a person who has grown up learning the heritage language and has some proficiency in it (Fishman, 2006). Kagan & Dillion (2008) describe the heritage speaker as someone who grows up with a particular family language in the home that is different from the dominant language in the country but they concede that there is no universally accepted definition. Similarly, Valdes (2001) defines the heritage speaker as someone who is raised in a home where a non-English language is spoken and who speaks, or at least understands, the language and is to some degree bilingual in the home language and English. A broader view by Van Deusen-Scholl (2003) describes heritage language learners' as "a heterogeneous group ranging from fluent native speakers to non-speakers who may be generations removed, but who may feel culturally connected to the language" (p.221).

Fishman (2006) states that the emphasis of minority status is a crucial part of the definition of a heritage language. Benmamoun et al. (2013) state that the term minority language must be applied locally rather than on a global scale when speaking of heritage language speakers. "In other words, any language can be a minority language, regardless of its world-wide status,

as long as it is not the dominant language of the country under discussion. English is no exception” (p.5).

For the purposes of this paper, the heritage language speaker is defined as someone who has a parent or parents whose native language is different from the mainstream language of the country they reside in. The heritage language speaker may have differing bilingual levels from passive bilingualism to near native-like fluency, which may depend on various factors such as the amount of time the person is exposed to the heritage language. They may be bicultural or mixed race and the language of the home may be a combination of the majority language and the heritage language. In short, the heritage language is the minority language within the place, country or city, in which they live and contrasts with the mainstream dominant language used.

2.1 The importance of maintaining the heritage language

Parents of bilingual children face a variety of factors that can either hinder or benefit the raising of a bilingual child (Kavanagh, 2013). It is difficult when both parents speak the heritage language that differs from the dominant language but raising a child to be bilingual becomes even more difficult when only one parent is the native speaker of the heritage language and representative of the heritage culture. Even if the parent or parents are willing to put in the effort to raise their child bilingually, other environmental factors such as heritage language exposure, lack of good schools and a strong heritage community can place limitations on how successful parents can be with their bilingual child.

The importance of maintaining the heritage language can be closely linked to how the child or adult regards their heritage. Tse (2000) found that heritage language is closely related to ethnic identity and how a person’s ability in the heritage language influences how positive or negative they are towards that culture. A person who accepts the heritage culture is inclined to have a positive self-identity, but in contrast, nonacceptance may result in the feeling of being isolated from both the minority and dominant culture (Pao, Wong & Teuben-Rowe, 1997). In terms of teaching the heritage language CLIL can be viewed as an approach that can help nurture cultural acceptance and intercultural communicative competence (ICC) (See Kavanagh, 2019).

2.2 Methodologies used to help in the maintenance of the heritage language

Anderson (2009) states that in recent years there has been a considerable amount of investigation and effort into examining effective pedagogical approaches for the teaching of heritage languages and suggests that CLIL can play a significant role in contributing to the development of such pedagogies. How are heritage and minority language learners’ needs best addressed when a ‘foreign language approach’ or a ‘mother tongue’ approach may not be appropriate? The former for example, assumes that the heritage language learner or

speaker is the same as that of a monolingual learner of a foreign language and the latter does not take into consideration that the heritage language learner's exposure to the target language may be limited resulting in passive proficiency (Anderson, 2008).

Anderson (2009) further suggests that heritage language speakers' language ability has its roots in the need to interact and communicate with family members and friends who speak this language either as a mother tongue or a heritage language. However, heritage language learners need age relevant material that can stimulate and be cognitively challenging if they are to bridge the gap from using the language socially to using it more academically as in Cummins (1984) BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills) to CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency) distinction. Anderson (2009) suggests that "courses in which medium is prioritized over message or where the emphasis is on performing trivial everyday transactions are not appropriate for learners from bilingual backgrounds and risk undermining confidence and demotivating learners" (p.125). Anderson (2008, p.82) illustrates five key principles that illustrate how heritage language speakers differ from regular L2 (second language) learners.

1. For heritage language learners the language has emotional resonance and represents more than a language of communication and is a fundamental part of their identity.
2. The heritage language learned may differ remarkably to how it is taught in schools as they have not naturally followed a syllabus in the way they have learned it.
3. A heritage language learner's speaking ability may very well be more advanced than their reading and writing skills.
4. A heritage language speaker does not necessarily treat their two languages as being separate entities and cannot be perceived as being the sum of two bilinguals.
5. It is important that heritage language learners grow up proud of their heritage language and culture and teachers can play a fundamental role in supporting this.

Anderson (2009) suggests that CLIL helps the student to move away from formulaic functional or situational language usage as in BICS towards "a genuine engagement with culture and provides a basis for enhanced literacy development" (p.130) and concludes that

> In terms of Coyle's 4Cs framework (Coyle, 2007: 51), it 'puts culture at the core and intercultural understanding pushes the boundaries towards alternative agendas such as transformative pedagogies, global citizenship, student voice and 'identity investment'. Thus, it has the potential to break down barriers between the teaching

> of foreign and minority languages, and to contribute to the development of an integrated and genuinely inclusive languages curriculum (p.130).

Uriu and Douglas (2017) write that Japanese heritage language schools grapple with the idea of employing a traditional teaching approach whereby their curriculum or syllabus tries to duplicate what is done in Japan, an approach they call *kokugo kyouiku*. This is in contrast to adopting an approach that has been specifically designed to meet the needs of heritage language learners, which as pointed out, differs from both L1 (first language) and L2 learners.

Many *Hoshūkō* (補習校) or supplementary Japanese schools provide a form of *kokugo kyouiku.* This approach may work for learners who are only in the host country for a short period of time before returning to Japan, as in expat families, but for those who have never lived in Japan, only have one Japanese parent, and only visit Japan on a yearly or bi-yearly basis, this approach may be too difficult to sustain.

Research that has recently emerged, has attempted to examine heritage language learning with educational classroom practice within supplementary schools. Uriu and Douglas (2017) for example, show how the adoption of CLIL can have positive affects for heritage language learners of Japanese in the USA. Although the 'double' or 'haafu' community is increasing in both the UK and Japan the research on heritage language education has been limited on this segment of the population. Within the UK, Charalampidi and Hammond (2017) suggest that although bilingual educational programs and CLIL in the UK have attracted interest within the field of English as an L2, there has been little work undertaken involving other languages, especially as far as community/heritage languages are concerned. In their study they examined 11-17 Anglo-Greeks who took a CLIL Greek science course and reported that students improved significantly in both cognition and language and content acquisition.

This paper will illustrate a case study of a supplementary school that operates in the Southwest of England and examine in what ways CLIL can be recognized as having the potential to meet the needs of heritage language learners both in terms of their linguistic competency and their cultural identity.

3. The supplementary school

The name of the school is the 'The Little Bears' Club' and was started in September 2007 by Japanese mothers who live in Gloucestershire which is in the south west of the UK as illustrated in the map below.

Figure 1. Gloucestershire in England

The school is run entirely by volunteers and the school's main objective is to provide support in learning Japanese culture and language for Japanese parents and their children who live in and around Gloucestershire, England. The school encourages young children to learn Japanese culture and language through story-books, nursery rhymes and various seasonal festivals. The school rents the facilities, and a small monthly fee is paid by parents of the children who attend the school. The school operates a 'Japanese language only' policy which means that parents who cannot speak Japanese are asked to not attend the school, although in cases where the non-Japanese parent who can speak Japanese to a good but basic level are often present with their child. The school's website is in Japanese and the only part in English expresses the above 'Japanese language only' policy

> *"In order to maintain a Japanese environment, we would like to ask that anyone who attends the group speak to as many children as possible in Japanese. For this reason, we would like to limit the admission of the parents or the guardians to those who are fluent in Japanese".* (Kogumanokai, n.d.)

Classes are divided according to the child's level in Japanese. All of the teachers are mothers of bilingual bicultural children and some of them may even attend the school.

3.1 The classes taught at the school

The classes cater to age as well as level and are divided as illustrated below. The elementary classes can best be described as *kokugo kyouiku* as they attempt to replicate what a Japanese pupil would be studying at that age in Japan.

- **Reception / Pre-school level children**: These classes aim for the children to be exposed to and have fun with the heritage language. No textbook is used. In these classes picture books are often used and activities in this class replicate that of ICBA (International Children's Bunko Association) where a focus on Japanese oral literacy and culture informally prepares children to enter more formal Japanese education at supplementary schools such as the elementary classes at 'The Little Bears Club'. As reception classes are listed *as Kogama bunko* (a mini library) in ICBA, 'The Little Bears Club' is able to contact *Itochu*

Zaidan – the charity wing to *Itocho* cooperation – that supports individual bunko or libraries in Japan and IC Bunko world-wide with a donation of picture books. It is not within the scope of this paper to discuss the activities of ICBA here but readers can find more information on their website. http://kodomobunko.org.uk/category/icba/?lang=en_gb

- **Based on the Japanese elementary first year grade.** Use textbooks.
- **Based on the Japanese elementary second year grade**. Use textbooks. Textbooks used in these classes are from the Japanese Ministry of Education. They are the same as the *kokugo kyouiku* or Japanese language textbooks used by elementary school students from the 1st to 2nd year. All expats in the UK are eligible to receive these textbooks free from the Japanese government and also have their own copies.
- **GCSE classes.** Intended for students who want to take the GSCE exam in the future. Aimed at 2nd year elementary students and up. Includes higher-level conversation. The school's website suggests that the students discuss contemporary topics. GCSE stands for 'General Certificate of Secondary Education' and is an examination in a variety of school subjects usually taken at the end of secondary school at the age of 15 / 16.

In addition to the use of textbooks the teachers try to create their own materials and ideas that supplement the content of the textbook or replicate what would be in the GCSE examination. Homework is always given and pupils are expected to turn it in the following lesson. In addition to the textbook, which is targeted for mother tongue learners of their native language, there is also a library with over 400 books available which were largely obtained from ICBA. These children's literature books are the same books a Japanese child of the same age would read. They are therefore 'authentic' and not the graded readers (books that have been simplified and shortened) that L2 learners often use in their reading classes. The books are often used in classes to teach the cultural values contained within them and to learn about Japanese culture in contrast to their dominant English environment.

3.2 The school day

The classes at the school occur on a fortnight basis on Saturday's and the day typically follows the pattern below:

- Rajio *taiso* (Radio exercises) and self-introductions. These introductions consist of the child and parent or parents introducing themselves in Japanese.
- Classes in the morning. These classes are divided into age and ability levels as described above and last around 45 minutes.
- Lunch. Lunch consists of typical Japanese food that is prepared for by volunteers such as the parents. The website states that a small contribution of healthy snacks (prepared fruits, rice crackers etc.) is much appreciated and asks

parents to bring their own plates and cups for their children and also their own cup for green tea that is served during snack time.

- Cultural activities. These include events such as ひな祭り(Hinamatsuri/ dolls festival), 節分 (setsubun/ bean throwing ceremony), and 運動会(undokai/ sports day). These cultural activities are aligned with the Japanese calendar and wherever possible these cultural activities occur at the same time as they would in Japan.

4. Data and the participants

Data came from participants who fit into 3 groups: (1), the teachers at the school, (2), the pupils at the school and (3), the parents of the pupils. In total 6 teachers and 6 children and their parents took part in this study. All the children were aged between 6-14 and were bilingual to varying degrees. Three children were in the advanced classes and aged 10-13 and the remaining other three children were in the elementary classes and under 10 years of age. None of them have Japanese language qualifications. They all have a Japanese and an English born parent and were born in the UK (one was born in Japan and left the country when she was a baby). The non-Japanese parent's ability in the Japanese language ranged from beginner to high intermediate. None of them however, had any qualifications in the language such as the Japanese language proficiency test. Some of them had previously lived in Japan and that is where they met their spouses. The Japanese parents' English ability ranged from intermediate to advanced and they had qualifications in English as reflected in their achievements in the EIKEN, TOEFL and TOEIC examinations. They have all lived in the UK for over 10 years. There are no plans for any of the families to return to Japan.

The children all attend this supplementary school on a fortnightly basis and are driven there by their parents who come from a variety of towns and cities in the surrounding area of the school. The school itself is in the countryside and is difficult to access by public transport. The children who attend the school, from pre-school age and above have attended the school regularly. The children interviewed for the study had attended the school for at least a year.

5. Methods

The paper draws mainly on qualitative data from a series of questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations as outlined below.

5.1 Observations and follow-up interviews on classroom practice

Classes and the activities from the morning to the end of the school day were observed. In total 4 classes were observed and also video recorded. They included the 1st year elementary class, the 2nd year elementary class and two GCSE classes. In addition to the video recordings observational notes were also made.

The objectives were to examine how the classes were taught and organized, what teaching methodologies were employed and what the teachers' aims were in relation to their teaching methods and philosophy. Observations were followed up with interviews with the teachers, and prior to classroom observations, the teachers were sent questionnaires (Appendix A) to gather data on their teaching practices and philosophies.

5.2 Questionnaires and interviews with the pupils and their parents

Questionnaires (see Appendix B) were sent to the parents (In Japanese and English) and the main themes of the questionnaire related to parent attitudes to bringing up their child as a bilingual, and their expectations and wishes in terms of their child's Japanese language proficiency, and understanding of Japanese culture especially in relation to the school. These questionnaires were followed up with interviews with the parents at the school and within their homes. As written questionnaires were difficult for the children, only interviews were conducted with them. Questions focused on their feelings towards the school, their heritage language, culture and identity. The main research questions this paper aims to address are outlined below.

1. What pedagogical approach are the supplementary school and its teachers taking in teaching Japanese language and culture to heritage language learners? Can a CLIL approach work in the context of this particular group of heritage language learners?
2. What are the student's reactions and feelings towards the supplementary school they attend? How does the school help shape and maintain their linguistic and cultural identity?
3. What are the objectives of the parents in sending their children to this supplementary school?

6. Results

The results are broken down into the areas that aim to address the above research questions. The first section examines the practices of the school and teacher beliefs and is followed by questionnaire and interview responses from the school pupils and their parents.

6.1 Class observations

After the initial introductions from parents and their children, the children were then divided and taken to their respective classes. Level rather than age determined what class children went to. Level was usually judged based on teacher opinion and students could 'level up' at any time. There were no pre-school classes at the time of the research.

There were two 1st year elementary school age classes which had 3 students per class with children aged between 6-7. The focus of the lesson was on counting, singing the days of the week and doing pronunciation drills such as sa さ、shi し、tsu つ、se せ、so そ. The class

was very teacher fronted. The teacher often explained the meaning of a grammatical structure and the students repeated the sentence. Classes pitched at the Japanese 2nd year elementary proficiency were also quite teacher-centered although the students could use more Japanese and express their likes and dislikes very fluently. Spelling and the use of the small tsu っ (geminate consonant) was focused on. At the end of the class, quizzes were conducted on what was learned.

The GCSE classes are for students who want to pass the GSCE exam. This exam is done at secondary school in the UK after 2 years of study and is usually taken by pupils aged 15-16. However, you can take the examination externally at a younger age for a small fee. These classes therefore, consisted of children aged from 10-14 and the two classes were divided based on age with the younger children grouped together. The class initially used a textbook for structure and input and developed into a discussion and opinion generated direction that was more pupil-centered in comparison to the lower classes. Discussion focused on cultural themes and the content of the lesson with the teacher directing questions so that all pupils had a chance to speak. Some students answered questions in English as was evident in the other classes but the teacher always tried to maintain the usage of Japanese. In preparation for the GCSE test, a kanji and listening quiz were given. The kanji were the basic 国 県 市 町 村 that mean, country, prefecture, city, town and village respectively. The students were asked their meanings to which they replied in English and also for their readings to which they replied in Japanese. The listening test given by the teacher consisted of a very short passage in Japanese and was read out by the teacher very slowly. The pupils then answered a series of simple written questions that were in English. Their answers could also be written in English. No pupil opted to write their answers in Japanese in either kanji or hiragana. Although this was the highest class, pupils' ability to write was not sufficient or good enough in comparison to Japanese children at 1st and 2nd year of elementary school, and this, it could be argued, can be expected. Children in the 1st year of Japanese elementary school learn how to read and write 80 kanji and in the 2nd year this goes up to an additional 160 for a total of 240 (MEXT, 2008). The GCSE exam tests 200 kanji which can be found within the 1st year and 2nd year elementary school kanji list, but is a test specifically aimed at L2 language learners at the age of 15-16. However, to pass this GCSE examination, you do not need the ability to write in Japanese and although the recording is in Japanese for listening tests, the questions themselves are written in English and the pupils can write down their answers in English. This partially explains why the GCSE class followed the same pattern. An example taken from the listening comprehension part of a GCSE examination paper can be found in Appendix C.

6.2 Cultural activities

Cultural activities were aligned to the events that take place in Japan or otherwise a general demonstration or practice of Japanese cultural activities takes place. At the time of

observations in early February, the theme of the 45-minute morning classes was predominantly on *Setsubun*（節分）a ritual to drive away the evil of the former year and drive away evil spirits / demons. After lunch the cultural activity was the actual practice of *setsubun*. Therefore, the language learned in the morning was put into practice in the afternoon. In the actual *setsubun* activity the children made *oni* (鬼）masks and threw beans at the *oni* (the parents). Throughout this activity the children were only spoken to in Japanese and were encouraged to use Japanese the whole time, although, inevitably they lapsed into English when conversing with each other.

When there are no cultural events assigned to a particular date the pupils take part in other cultural activities such as *kamishibai* (紙芝居）or picture story telling whereby pupils re-create famous stories and even draw the pictures themselves. Some even create their own stories. All of this is done of course, in Japanese. On other occasions, students present about their hobbies in Japanese, with some pupils demonstrating and presenting about topics such as karate. The older children or those aiming to take the GCSE examination usually do these activities as they tend to be cognitively challenging.

6.3 The teachers

Six teachers were given questionnaires initially and this was followed up with interviews on the day of school visits. All of the teachers work there on a voluntary basis and not all of them are qualified teachers but are doing it to help out. The six teachers experience at teaching at this school ranged from only six months to ten years. Below is a summary of the questionnaire and interview data.

6.3.1 What do you think are the objectives at this supplementary school?

All six of the Japanese teachers mentioned that the objectives of the school included the teaching of the Japanese culture. They suggested that this is done through exposure to authentic Japanese culture and materials and through events organized at the school. Some teachers commented that the building up of a Japanese expat community and their 'haafu' children was a major aim of the school. They also stated that the school provided the children exposure to others like them and also provided a community for Japanese parents who could help each other in their goal of raising a bilingual child.

6.3.2 What is your teaching philosophy?

One teacher suggested that their philosophy or idea of teaching is not about a teacher and pupil relationship but that of a parent and child who can make an enjoyable place to learn. Another teacher was open to the fact that she has no teacher qualifications and her only hope was that her teaching can be beneficial for her pupils so they do not have communication problems when they go to Japan. Another teacher mentioned that "as long as the pupils get better and as long as they can converse with relatives and family members, that is enough

and they would be satisfied with that”. The teacher’s answers focused on providing their pupils with the very basic skills of encouraging their students to be familiar with and enjoy their heritage culture and to have the ability to communicate without too much of a hindrance. None of them spoke about their teaching pedagogy, the methods they use or how they would like to improve their classes, or pupils, and in what areas. This is perhaps to be expected as the teachers are volunteers with no concrete teacher qualifications.

6.3.3 Have you ever heard of CLIL?

Five of the six teachers had never heard of CLIL. A brief explanation was then given with reference to online materials. When asked if what they are teaching at the school is something they would define as CLIL they all suggested ‘yes.’ They suggested that although they were not conscious of it, they thought they were doing CLIL. From the perspective of learning the heritage language and culture one teacher suggested that the dual approach of what they do is very similar to her understanding of CLIL.

As a follow up question, the teachers were asked if they thought the CLIL methodology was a good approach for teaching heritage language learners. They all responded ‘yes’ and thought CLIL can play a significant and potential role in heritage language learners’ education. Although not familiar with CLIL they suggested that the dual focus of teaching culture and language was a major benefit for the children and one teacher suggested that the school works well as a gateway into Japanese culture and language.

The following data comes from a series of statements regarding the teachers’ philosophies and teaching approaches. The teacher had to indicate their degree of agreement and disagreement on each statement based on a Likert scale. The teacher’s answers are summarized in table 1 and 2 below.

Table 1. A summary of Likert scale questionnaire data that teachers agreed on

Items agreed on by at least 5 out of 6 of the teachers
Japanese is very difficult for our (heritage language learners) pupils
Communication ability is the most important thing that pupils need / classes should have a special emphasis on communication
Constant repetition and practice and good pronunciation is important for the pupils
Pupils should use their Japanese even if it is not perfect
The ability for pupils to translate from English to Japanese is not important
Writing and reading kanji is not as important for the pupils in comparison to communicative ability

Table 2. A summary of Likert scale statements that teachers had mixed reaction with

Mixed reaction with no majority agreement or disagreement
3/6 teachers agreed that grammar was very important for the pupils
3/6 teachers agreed that they use English in the classroom
Teachers were undecided on whether they teach culture or language first with the majority neither agreeing nor disagreeing
2 teachers agreed that classes should have a special emphasis on culture with the remaining teachers neither agreeing nor disagreeing
3/6 agreed that vocabulary was the most important thing for the pupils

Looking at the overall answers, it can be suggested that there is agreement amongst the teachers on emphasizing communication skills within their classes. The passive skills of reading, writing and translation seem to be secondary, and teachers were divided on whether or not grammar and vocabulary were important things to be taught within their classes. That is not to say that they are not taught, as the classroom observations showed there was an emphasis on vocabulary and kanji especially amongst the lower level classes. This, according to the teachers, was because they need the building blocks to be able to speak, as many of them use English readily if their Japanese is not forthcoming.

The teachers had no clear teaching philosophy and the key principles of CLIL as reflected in the 4 C's, the language triptych, and the principles of scaffolding were all new concepts to them. They all agreed that they cover the C's of 'content' through the teaching of culture, 'communication', through the teaching of language in order to learn about culture, and 'culture' whereby pupils could learn how the dominant English culture is distinctly different to their Japanese heritage. Some teachers expressed reservation, however, about the C for cognition, especially in relation to higher order thinking skills (HOTS), which may be too difficult for the younger learners, but agreed that the more advanced students do engage in cognitively challenging activities.

6.3.4 The pupils

The children interviewed all stated that they liked learning Japanese in order to speak to their Japanese parent and also their grandparents via Skype or Facetime. Some of them wanted to get the GCSE qualification, enjoyed the classes at the school but found kanji to be difficult. They would much prefer to speak than write or read. They also found the cultural events at the school to be fun and most importantly enjoyed being around other bicultural bilingual children like themselves. This helped them to identify themselves as being different and unique and they were very proud of this and their Japanese language ability. They liked the attention they got for being different and liked the fact that other children view Japan as a 'cool' country. They considered it boring to be a mere monolingual like most British kids.

6.3.5 The parents

Interview results showed that all parents are eager for their children to be familiar with their heritage language / culture. Parents commented on their children's language progression and motivation and said that writing and reading are the most difficult skills for their children, especially on how to keep them motivated. They acknowledged that their children's levels are below that of Japanese children of the same age, but the goals they have for their children are initially for them to speak the language as they are aware that kanji and writing skills are very time consuming and require a lot of effort on behalf of the children. They also want them to pass the Japanese language GCSE examination so that they can feel confident in themselves. Some parents who consider themselves *kyouiku mama'* attempt to get their children to do kanji practice in the morning and try to enforce a one parent one language approach within their home whereby the Japanese parent and child only speak to each other in Japanese. The success of this approach varies with many children resorting to the default of the English language and the parent not fully enforcing the approach. Some parents lamented the fact that the school only operates fortnightly and that a 45-minute class was not enough to reach a high level of proficiency.

The pupils' speaking abilities were wide ranging and this was dependent on the amount of exposure the pupils got to Japanese through the home and intermediate environment in addition to trips to Japan. One family for example, enroll their children in an elementary school in Japan for 2 months of the year during the summer break and their Japanese benefits greatly from it and they were amongst the best speakers at the school.

Because the school only offers classes twice a month, the burden of raising a child bilingually falls on the shoulders of the Japanese parent, especially if the English parent has very basic Japanese ability. The school they suggest, however, helps them meet people in similar situations and can also help their child to be proud of their Japanese cultural heritage.

7. The pedagogical approach of the school

This paper has aimed to examine the potential CLIL has in the teaching of heritage language and culture, and as we have seen in the literature review this is under represented in the research. Supplementary schools may often have the same objectives as immersion schools or international schools. Take for instance the following immersion bilingual education definition form Baker and Jones (1998):

> Immersion bilingual education derives from Canadian educational experiments. The aims were for students (1) to become competent to speak, read and write in French; (2) to reach normal achievement levels throughout the curriculum including the English language; (3) to appreciate the traditions and culture of French-speaking Canadians as well as English-speaking Canadians. In short, the aims were for

children to become bilingual and bicultural without the loss of achievement (p.496).

The school within this case study has similar aims. The school wants its pupils to learn more about their heritage language and culture and embrace and understand it as part of their identity. With reference to the table below, the school does practice full immersion as reflected in its policy of everyone who attends (parents and the children) to speak Japanese and refrain from using English. However, there is no suggestion of a 'sink or swim' approach with 'little or no attention paid to language'.

Table 3. CLIL and Immersion distinction

	SOFT CLIL	HARD CLIL	IMMERSION
Who teaches?	CLIL language teachers in language lessons	CLIL subject teachers in subject lessons	Immersion subject teachers
Language work	Work on general language while supporting subject related topics	Work on the language of their subject	Little or no attention paid to language per se as teaching is done in another language
Aims	To teach language	To teach content and some language	To teach content
What do they teach?	The language curriculum	Curricular subject matter and subject language	Curricular subject matter

(Adapted from: Dale & Tanner, 2012, p.4).

Classes are divided into levels and taught accordingly, and the school tries to replicate what Japanese pupils would be studying at the same age in Japan. They therefore try to teach Japanese as a native Japanese child learns their language in Japan and try to teach it as a curricular subject rather than a L2. This of course, is very difficult to do as the school only operates on a fortnightly rather than on an everyday basis as in Japan. Therefore, the ability of these bicultural bilinguals is not the equivalent of pupils of similar age residing and educated in Japan.

The school could be classified as 'hard CLIL' to some degree as they are aiming to teach Japanese as a curricular subject with the same syllabus and aims of the Japanese language curriculum. This means that classes for 1st year elementary school students aim to cover the first 80 kanji. For second year pupils, an additional 160 kanji. However, as we have seen, classes are not necessarily comprised of pupils corresponding to elementary 1st or 2nd grade and are usually older. The fact that some of the pupils' study for a language proficiency test as in the aforementioned GCSE, and that lessons are catered to this would suggest that a softer CLIL approach whereby there is more emphasis on the language being an L2 is being used. GCSE foreign language examinations are classified like this.

Although the school does not explicitly announce that it is a CLIL school it can be suggested that the education principles and objectives the school adopts reflect the dual focus of CLIL whereby the foreign language is employed for the learning and teaching of both content (in this case Japanese culture), and language. However, the teachers are all volunteers and are not well versed in the principles of CLIL. There is also no set syllabus and the teachers are merely trying to mimic what is done in the equivalent year in Japan, which has limited success. Success was usually dependent on parental attitudes outside of the classroom and their efforts with trying to raise their children bilingually.

However, by introducing the concept of CLIL to these teachers, it can be suggested that it gave the teachers a theoretical framework to hang their teaching practice on. The teachers expressed genuine interest in the approach and agreed that it is a methodology that would cater well to heritage language learners like their own pupils. Borg (2003) defines teacher cognition as "what teachers think, know, believe and do" (p. 19). Sasajima and Borg (2009) indicate that teacher cognition contributes to class improvement and might be stimulated by changing the educational paradigm, such as adopting CLIL (p. 31). Sasajima (2013) concludes that CLIL could change how teachers think about teaching and learning and improve their practices.

8. Conclusion

The traditional curriculum or *kokugo kyouiku* used at most heritage language schools seems to be based on a model that focuses on discrete language items such as the number of *kanji* to be learned and does not lean towards the development of cognitive academic language ability. Cognitive language ability, a strong component of CLIL, includes the ability to explain and discuss academic subjects as well as the ability to make coherent utterances on a discourse level. Studies have found that students from such schools may have difficulty performing complex cognitive tasks using the heritage language (Cohen, 1998). As a basic proposal, schools that teach heritage language learners must aim to place an emphasis on high levels of communication and an integrated and thematic curriculum. Collaborative learning such as team projects would be beneficial for content and language learning. A systematic progression of literacy development in the target language along with a unified and clear curriculum that teachers are comfortable with, and can execute, are also highly recommended. Finally, parental support and involvement are also important. Heritage language speakers are neither L1 nor L2 language learners and therefore a methodology like CLIL has the flexibility to mold and bend according to their needs.

The school in this case study does not tick all the boxes that a CLIL curriculum should have but the potential is there. With some tweaks, teacher training and syllabus development, heritage language schools could have the ability to package their product or classes with a CLIL theoretical framework, which can potentially enhance the child's transition from BICS

to CALP. This would allow students to understand the aims of their classes and would give the parents a better understanding of the practice and theory behind them in addition to class and course objectives. The positive linguistic and cultural outcomes found in this study, such as the formation of linguistic and cultural identity, can provide evidence for the potential of CLIL in supplementary schools not just in the UK but also Japan as an effective pedagogy for the teaching and learning of heritage languages.

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Appendix A

Open ended question items

1. こぐま会で`日本語先生として、どれ位の期間働いていましたか?
2. こぐま会の目標とすることは何だと思いますか?
3. 先生の教育理念は?
4. CLIL は Content and Language Integrated Learning（内容言語統合型学習）の略語で「クリル」と読みます。内容（例：異文化理解などのトピック）と言語（実質的には日本語）の両方を学ぶ教育方法です。聞いたことがありますか。
5. こぐま会では CLIL という方法をやっていると思いますか?
6. 継承語学習者のため、CLIL はいい教育方法だと思いますか
7. 継承語学習者にとって、日本語と日本文化は一緒に学ぶことが重要だと思いますか
8. 日本語を学ぶにあたり、生徒に達成して欲しい目標はありますか。

Likert Scale questions.
Teachers chose to what extent they degreed or disagreed with each statement based on the following options.
1.とてもそう思う　2.そう思う　3.どちらでもない　4.そう思わない
5. 全くそう思わない

9. ご自身の生徒（継承語学習者）にとって、日本語の授業は難しいと感じますか。
10. 生徒が良い発音で話すことは重要である。
11. 生徒が日本語の文化を知ることは重要である。
12. 生徒にとって最も大切なのは語彙である。
13. 生徒にとって大切なのはコミュニケーション能力である。
14. 生徒にとって大切なのは漢字を書くことである。
15. 生徒にとって大切なのは漢字を読めることである。
16. 生徒にとって大切なのは文法である。
17. 生徒にとって大切なのは訳すことである。
18. 繰り返し練習することは重要 である。
19. 正しく言えるまで日本語を使わないほうがよい 。
20. コミュニケーションを重視した授業が最善である。
21. 日本の文化を重視した授業が最善である。
22. 授業中、英語を使うことがある。
23. 日本語より日本の文化を教えている。
24. 日本の文化より日本語を教えている。

Appendix B (For the Japanese mother)

1. イギリスに住んでどのくらいになりますか?
2. 英語の能力はどのぐらいですか（英語に関する視覚をお持ちでしたらご記入ください。）
3. お子様をバイリンガルに育っていますか。
4. あなたにとって、バイリンガリズムの定義は？
5. お子様をバイリンガルに育てやすい環境にありますか。
6. どのようなバイリンガル教育方法を行っていますか。

成功していることはなんですか。
難しいことはなんですか。

7. お子様と一緒に話すと日本語で話しますか。
8. 日本語で話しかけるとお子様はいつも日本語で答えますか。
9. ご主人はお子様に日本語で話しますか。
10. 毎日、日本語に接する時間はどのぐらいですか。足りると思いますか。
11. お子様をこの補習授業校に通わせている理由はなんですか。

Appendix C
GCSE sample question

Test question
Your friend, Noboru Yamamoto, has left a message on your phone. What does he say? Listen to the recording and complete the following statements by putting a cross in the correct box for each question.

Transcription of the listening test
Noboru: もしもし、のぼるです。もうすぐキャンプですね。
キャンプは木曜日からです。山に行きます。
おべんとうを持ってきてください。

Questions

He is talking about…
A work experience.
B language exchange.
C camping trip.
D an away match.

It will start on…
A Monday.
B Tuesday.
C Wednesday.
D Thursday.

You are going to visit…
A the seaside.
B a mountain.
C a river.
D the city.

You should bring some…
A food.
B money.
C water.
D sun cream.

The Journal of Japan CLIL Pedagogy Association (JJCLIL) Peer-review Policy

All submissions are peer-reviewed for the following purposes:

- To enhance the academic, educational and practical value of the study of CLIL pedagogy
- To reduce bias and error in research and practice
- To ensure the accuracy of the information

Submissions should be made primarily by teachers and researchers who have given presentations at J-CLIL conferences, research meetings and seminars.

Each submission is evaluated by two reviewers selected from among the J-CLIL members.

The reviewers make one of the following recommendations to the editorial board.

A. Accept

B. Accept after revision

C. Do not accept (entitled to submit to the next version after revision)

*The editorial board hopes all reviewers will kindly give helpful suggestions and comments to the author(s) in order to help improve the quality of the paper.

(Peer-review after revision)

In the event that the reviewers' evaluations differ, the editorial board members make a final decision.