Demystifying Current Trends in Language Education

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Influenced by increased globalization, a sense that Japan needs to catch up with the Asian region linguistically, and Ministry of Education policies, a plethora of new terms have entered our pedagogical discourse in recent years: CL, CLIL, CEFR, CEFR-j, and can-do systems of learning are some of the most influential methodologies making inroads into Japanese education. They appear ready to influence all of us involved in language teaching, if they have not already done so. However, what do these acronyms mean? This paper, based on a forum at JALT2014, is aimed at introducing collaborative learning (CL), content and language integrated learning (CLIL), and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). We give an overview of each term, explain why they are important, and describe experiences using them in the classroom. The purpose is to demystify some of the most influential trends in Japanese language education today.

　グローバル化、言語的にアジア諸国に追いつく必要があるという感覚、そして文科省の教育政策に影響され、我らの教育方法論には多すぎるほどの新しい用法が現れている。CL、CLIL、CEFR、CEFR-j、そしてCan-Do学習システムは日本の教育に大きな影響を及ぼした方法論の例である。言語教育に関係する全ての人たちに影響を与える勢いである。それではその略語は何を意味しているのであろうか。この論文は、JALT2014でのフォーラムに基づき、Collaborative Learning (CL)、Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)、そしてthe Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) を紹介する。まずそれぞれの概要、それらのアプローチを知っておくべき理由、そして教室での使用経験の説明を行う。今日の日本の言語教育において最も影響的な動向を理解するために、それらを共有、報告、試行することが目的である。

WITH THE aim of achieving the Japanese Ministry of Education's goals in English education (MEXT, 2013), there is an increased focus on group learning and content learning through English and a greater recognition of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), including can-do statements. The government has also promoted the idea that English should be taught primarily *in* English (MEXT, 2013), and, most significantly, there has been a push for Japan to cultivate global human resources (Cabinet Office, 2012) that are commonly referred to in Japan as global *jinzai*. According to the Cabinet Office and MEXT (2012), the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry (METI, 2011), and Ashizawa (2011), there are three factors to consider when cultivating global human resources:

Factor I:　Linguistic and communication skills;

Factor II:　Self-direction and positiveness, a spirit for challenge, cooperativeness and flexibility, a sense of responsibility and mission; and

JALT2014 CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

034

Factor III: Understanding of other cultures and a sense of identity as a Japanese.

To these are added five linguistic and communication skills:

1. communication skills for travels abroad,
2. communication skills for interactions in daily life abroad,
3. communication skills for business conversation and paper-work,
4. linguistic skills for bilateral negotiations, and
5. linguistic skills for multilateral negotiations.

Specifically, the Cabinet called for students to have a confident and active attitude toward communication with people of different countries and cultures as well as accurate understanding of the other party's thoughts and intentions based on his or her cultural and social background, the ability to provide logical and reasoned explanation of one's own views, and the ability to argue and convince the other party in the course of debates (MEXT, 2012, p. 3).

In an attempt to explore the connections between government policy and classroom practice, this forum at JALT2014 focused on three common trends specific to language education: collaborative learning (CL), content and language integrated learning (CLIL), and the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). This paper gives an overview of each presenter's understanding of policy, the relationship between the trend and government policy, and how each trend works in practice.

Collaborative Learning
Steven Paydon

CL denotes small groups of students working together to learn. The explicit goals of CL according to Bruffee (1993), as articulated by, Cross, and Major (2005), are "to develop autonomous, articulate, thinking people" (p. 7).

Policy

MEXT is the governing body responsible for making policy across Japan's centralized and tightly controlled national education system. One change MEXT is currently pushing towards is an increase in group learning. In a summary to a report compiled for MEXT's 2013 General Assembly, it was explained that the report opened by asserting that what the country most needs is "independent learning by each and every individual which leads individuals to be autonomic, collaborative and creative" (MEXT, 2013, para. 2).

More specifically, as outlined under Organization on the MEXT website, the Elementary and Secondary Education Bureau, a division of MEXT, promotes small-group teaching as one method to achieve their aim of developing children with a zest for living and solid academic abilities: "In order to improve solid academic abilities, Elementary and Secondary Education is promoting small-group teaching" (MEXT, n.d.).

With the goals of CL being the use of small groups to develop autonomous, articulate, thinking people, MEXT policy and CL objectives appear to be a mutually supportive combination.

Demystification of Collaborative Learning

As mentioned above, CL is essentially about students working together to learn in small groups. There are many terms similar to CL, for example

- cooperative learning,
- team learning,
- group learning, and
- peer-assisted learning.

These concepts all share similar ideas and there is significant overlap. The one popular term that causes particular confusion with collaborative learning is cooperative learning (both represented by the abbreviation CL), which is also about learners working together in groups. One might therefore ask, what is the difference between cooperative learning and collaborative learning? In answering this question, it should first be emphasized that cooperative learning and collaborative learning are much more similar than they are different. In fact, many authors and practitioners use these two terms interchangeably. However, some of the main departures in meaning have to do with the roles of knowledge, goals, and contexts (see Figure 1).

Cooperative learning	Collaborative learning
The teacher retains the traditional dual role of matter expert (knowledge) and authority in the classroom (Barkley, Cross, & Major, 2005).	"Knowledge is 'something people construct by talking together and reaching agreement'" (Bruffee, 1993, cited in Barkley et al., 2005 p. 6).
The goal of cooperative learning is to work together in harmony and mutual support to find the solution (Barkley et al., 2005).	The goal of collaborative learning is to develop autonomous, articulate, thinking people (Barkley et al., 2005).
Predominantly used in elementary and secondary school contexts.	Predominantly used in higher education contexts.

Figure 1. Cooperative learning vs. collaborative learning.

A major concern about both concepts, and probably especially pertinent with collaborative learning, is whether learning is actually taking place. Just putting students into groups and hoping for the best does not guarantee that they are actually learning. Essential elements ensuring achievement in cooperative/collaborative learning groups include

- positive group dynamics,
- individual accountability within the group,
- a goal that is important to the group, and
- cooperative goal structure.

Positive group dynamics are essential to provide the basis for learning to be achieved. For example, effective performance on group tasks requires constructive conflict. If students tend to avoid conflict—for example by voting, compromising, or withholding information to avoid discussion—then the group is not functioning effectively (Birmingham & McCord, 2004). If, however, students trust each other, they are more willing to take risks, to speak out, and to share their opinions. Trust allows all the participants of a group to be able to predict the behavior of others. When participants can make that prediction, they know they can speak freely without fear of being ridiculed. Therefore, unless group participants trust each other, it will be hard for them to have the conflicts that are necessary to challenge them to learn and help them grow. Group cohesion is also an important element of good group dynamics, and group dynamics can be purposefully developed. In fact, time spent on developing the dynamics of any learning group is likely to enhance learning because it optimises communication and interpersonal interaction.

Individual accountability means that every student in a collaborative group must be engaged and take responsibility for his or her fair share of the work. There should be no free riders taking credit for group work on which they have not had adequate input.

Goals are also important. When students value their group and perceive a goal to be important to the success of the group, they will align themselves to the goal and work hard to achieve it together. Group cohesion is particularly important here because the positive interpersonal relationships characteristic of a cohesive group will not only facilitate communication and interaction, but will also foster the value of the group to the students and see them carrying a level of obligation to do their fair share of work towards group aims.

Cooperatively structured goals are goals in which students have to cooperate to achieve success. When goals are structured cooperatively, students are assessed as a group, and all group members get the same grade regardless of how well they have performed as individuals. This leads to positive interdependence among a group's members. When students have positive interdependence, they seek outcomes that are beneficial to the group. Conversely, competitively structured goals equate with negative interdependence. Students perceive that they can only achieve their goals at the expense of the other students with whom they are competitively linked. Negative interdependence leads students to seek outcomes that are beneficial only to themselves. One especially beneficial outcome of cooperatively structured goals, as pointed out by Roseth, Johnson, and Johnson (2008), is that under this structure, the students' relationships tend to be more positive; the more positive their relationships are, the more they tend to achieve, showing a healthy and continuous cycle between positive relationships and achievement.

Implementation/Application

A CL approach to teaching has numerous advantages. Three advantages in particular are group dynamics, motivation, and cognitive development.

Group Dynamics

Groups provide opportunities for students to interact. Not only are group dynamics essential to optimizing CL achievement effects, but group work itself gives students the opportunity to develop the interpersonal relationships that lead to group cohesion and the development of mature, performing groups. Put simply, students need to interact to have relationships. If there is no interaction, there will be no relationships.

Motivation

Collaborative learning processes also tap into motivational needs as outlined in various theories of motivation. For example, being an accepted part of a cohesive group helps fulfill the belongingness needs as found in Maslow's (1943, 1970) theory of human motivation, or the need to belong as described in Baumeister and Leary's (1995) need-to-belong theory. Deci and Ryan's (2000) self-determination theory of human motivation also contends that relatedness, along with competency and autonomy, is one of the three basic psychological needs that, when satisfied, lead to enhanced self-motivation. Moreover, the reward that students get from belonging to a good group encourages obligation towards each other and a tendency to work hard to ensure success for that group.

Cognitive Development

CL also appears to mesh well with theories of cognitive development. Vygotsky's (1930s/1978) zone of proximal development (ZPD) and communities of practice (CoP) as developed by Lave and Wenger (1991) are two important theories that complement collaborative learning.

Zone of Proximal Development

In Vygotsky's (1930s/1978) words, the ZPD relates to learning as "the distance between the actual developmental levels as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86). The ZPD is clearly symbolized in Figure 1. The inner circle represents what the learner can do. The middle circle represents what the learner can do with help, and the outer circle represents what is beyond the learner's (current) means.
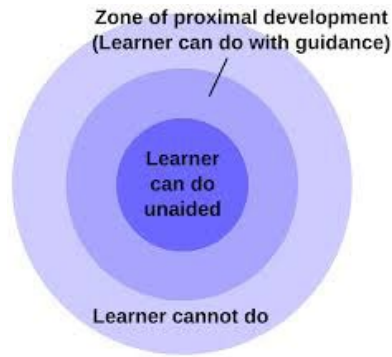

Figure 1. The zone of proximal development. Image is made available under the Creative Commons CC0 1.0 Universal Public Domain Dedication law.

The concept of a ZPD supports the effectiveness of CL because students come to the group with diverse backgrounds, but with enough overlap to form a common base for communication. Exposing all students to concepts and understandings that are within their ability to grasp, but not yet part of their personal understanding, enables students to learn concepts from each other that are just beyond their current level of development (Barkley, Cross, & Major, 2005, p. 14).

Communities of Practice

In a similar way, the CoP theory uses the group as the model of learning. According to Wenger's (2006) website introduction, "Communities of practice are groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly" (p. 6). This approach to learning is very similar to the age-old apprenticeship model as found in the workplace. Through a process of sharing information and knowledge within a group, the members learn from each other and have an opportunity to develop personally and professionally. For example, the kitchen of a large restaurant acts as a CoP. New apprentice chefs will typically enter their apprenticeship by washing dishes. Once they have become familiar with the systems, processes, and standards of the restaurant, they might graduate to food preparation, from there to basic cooking tasks; so they progress, developing their skills with the support of their community to the point that they may eventually run the whole kitchen. The members of the community share their knowledge in order for learning to occur. In a language class setting, students bring differing levels of knowledge to the group, but there is enough overlap that they can share that knowledge and learn from each other.

Conclusion

We have seen that MEXT policy is pushing for an increase in small group learning with the goal being to develop autonomous, articulate, and creative people. Collaborative learning utilizes the group to do just that. Therefore, CL seems to compliment MEXT policy quite well; because of this we might find that CL learning strategies will continue to gain support and popularity in educational contexts in Japan.

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

Sarah Louisa Birchley

In this section I explore how CLIL has gained traction in Japan and provide a sample CLIL lesson.

Policy

Altbach, Reisberg, and Rumbley (2009) in their report to the UNESCO World Conference on Higher Education defined a facet of internationalization as "the variety of policies and programs that universities and governments implement to respond to globalization" (p. xi). One such policy in Japan, as mentioned in the introduction, is the development of global *jinzai*. Such human resources are considered to be internationally competent employees who possess language skills, communication skills, intercultural competence, leadership, and creativity. Research suggests that demand for global *jinzai* by Japanese companies will grow by 240% between 2012 and 2017 to make up 8.7% of the employed population (MEXT, 2013). Japan has seen an enormous push towards the development of global leadership and career programs and schools launching programs that use English as a medium of instruction (EMI) and content and language integrated learning (CLIL).

In the case of CLIL, what is apparent in Japan is a classic case of policy borrowing (Phillips & Ochs, 2004). By importing CLIL, a university can legitimize their language policy and adapt it. In the process of borrowing, first comes cross-cultural attraction to the policy, second is an internal decision to use the policy, third is implementation of the policy, and finally internalization of the policy. The following section will briefly describe CLIL and how it was implemented in one university setting.

Demystification of Content and Language Integrated Learning

CLIL refers to situations where subjects are taught through a foreign language with dual-focussed aims, namely the learning of content and the simultaneous learning of a foreign language (Marsh, Mehisto, Wolff, & Frigols Martin, 2010). It is a term that is still elusive, but as the name suggests, it means using language to learn and learning (content) to use language. In addition to developing students' language and content knowledge, a CLIL lesson encourages the development of interpersonal skills and cultural awareness. CLIL emerged from the European education context; although the term was officially coined in 1994, it has been argued that it has existed in the French-speaking areas of Québec since the 1960s. CLIL is often defined in three ways: soft CLIL, in which the courses are language led; hard CLIL, in which the courses are content driven with partial immersion; and modulated CLIL, in which the courses are content led. More specific details can be found in the *CLIL Compendium* (n.d.) and in the work by Marsh et al. (2010) and Mehisto, Marsh, and Frigols (2008).

Who Teaches CLIL?

It is difficult to obtain accurate numbers of how many CLIL programs are currently underway in Japan. Yet research shows that with regard to EMI programs, as of 2006 there were 227 universities offering some form of EMI undergraduate courses and 20 universities offering full degree programs in English, amounting to approximately 35% (Brown, 2014; Brown & Iyobe, 2014). Therefore, it is important for teachers and researchers to share their experiences of using CLIL in different contexts. CLIL classes in Japan are taught by native English-speaking teachers, nonnative English-speaking teachers, content-trained teachers, and language-trained teachers, resulting in a need for professional development to serve the needs of a diverse set of instructors. Pilot research on CLIL teacher iden-

tity (Birchley, 2014) uncovered 16 typologies of CLIL teachers and three defined routes into CLIL. It is important to first consider the routes into CLIL as this is where the identity formation begins. The first route is through choice: Teachers actively seek out opportunities to teach on CLIL programs. The second is through force: Due to a lack of human resources at the school, often paired with budgetary constraints, teachers are forced to teach out-of-field (Hobbs, 2012). In these cases, individual teachers feel it is difficult to refuse the demands placed on them by senior teachers and out of a sense of duty or command, they find themselves teaching in a program. Finally, teachers teach CLIL through careful encouragement: These teachers are positive about CLIL, yet lack confidence in their ability. They are reluctant to step up to the post assigned. These teachers need to be carefully encouraged and somewhat gently coerced into teaching these courses.

The research also indicates tensions between content teachers and language teachers as to who should be responsible for developing and teaching CLIL courses. The teacher's academic background is sometimes called into question and there is much discussion as to whether someone is "qualified" to teach CLIL. Additionally, on some programs, language teachers team teach alongside content teachers in the same classroom and this new dimension of team teaching is worthy of greater study in the future. Slowly, researchers are building a more concrete picture of CLIL and teacher identity in Japan but much more empirical research is needed.

Implementation

Since 2012 I have been responsible for managing and teaching in a 4-year CLIL program at a private university (Toyo Gakuen University, International Career Program, 2015). The course was developed as a response to MEXT policies and globalization and with an awareness of what other universities in Japan were doing. In order to compete and stay relevant, the university developed this program. It has not come without challenges and is still not fully ac-

cepted by all faculty. We are now in the 2nd year of the program and conducting extensive research into its progress.

At my institution, as I am labeled both a language teacher (English) and a content teacher (seminar courses in business taught in Japanese), I was asked to create the CLIL course Global Business. First, I examined undergraduate-level global business courses at universities in the USA and UK. As the students taking the course would be studying faculty-level classes at overseas universities the following year, I needed to ensure that by the end of the course they had a basic knowledge of global business concepts on a par with overseas courses. Once I had gathered various curricula from different institutions, I made a list of the common units among them. This formed the content base for the class. Next, I used Coyle's framework (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010) to develop the curriculum and individual lessons and projects. This means lessons were based around culture, cognition, communication, and content (the four C's). For example, with regard to content, I asked "What will the student learn?" to establish learning outcomes. For cognition, I asked, "What kinds of questions do we want students to ask?" in order to activate their higher and lower order thinking skills. For communication I considered the language of learning, language for learning, and language through learning. Finally, for culture, I evaluated how I could develop students' intercultural understanding. As this complex framework can be challenging to apply when developing a course, the Appendix provides a sample CLIL project plan for part of a unit in the Global Business course.

Based on reflections written in my teacher diary during the 1st year of the program, I found that the most important elements of classroom practice were providing students with opportunities for peer-to-peer interaction and student-teacher interaction. In every lesson, I made time for whole-class discussion and cooperative and collaborative group work. Throughout the year I also included many task-based activities and required students to engage in critical reasoning.

Although I have enjoyed teaching these lessons, I found that sourcing appropriate materials, developing engaging tasks, and ensuring an adequate balance of the four C's were extremely time consuming compared to preparing for regular language classes. I have not been able to find a textbook to suit my needs and have developed original materials for this class. One personal challenge has been to ensure that enough content-specific language is taught alongside general and content-specific thinking skills. Particularly in the Global Business course, it has been important to be familiar with content-specific discourse, vocabulary, and concepts and to develop course specific can-do statements for language and content taught in the class.

Based on this experience, I suggest we need to consider the following points when developing a CLIL course. First, for teachers, we need to consider methods of entry to CLIL courses. How and why are we recruiting teachers to teach these courses? What does that mean for their sense of teacher identity? What responsibilities do we have for professional development? For administrators, we need to better consider training budgets, how we manage human resources, how to market these programs, and how to develop university entrance procedures based on these new types of courses. For students, we need to be wary of the experimental nature of these courses and considerate of their prior experience of language classes, their expectations, and their learning styles. Finally, for other stakeholders, we need to communicate what we are doing in CLIL classes with future employers, parents, and funding agencies to make these courses more transparent and our goals more shared.

Conclusion

The use of CLIL is a clear example of policy borrowing. CLIL is not just a combination of language and content, it is the complex collaboration between individual educators and administrators. Any tensions between content teachers, language teachers, and administrators need to be resolved, moving away from the "us" and "them" mentality. CLIL requires interactions between all stakeholders. I argue that the only way to successfully develop CLIL programs is through open communication, collaboration, and conversations across borders.

The Common European Framework (CEFR)
Philip McCasland

The final trend discussed in this forum was the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, and Assessment—the CEFR.

Policy

As mentioned in the introduction, MEXT has stated several factors for developing global *jinzai* (MEXT, 2012). Most specifically, Factor 1 (linguistic and communication skills) is subdivided into five distinct skills (Cabinet Office, 2012). The first three skills are task based and skill oriented, but the last two are more abstract and more difficult to learn and teach. Moreover, the first and second skills are based in a non-Japanese context of communication, but the others are based in a professional context, which may or may not be foreign. Nevertheless, by defining context and by stating the purpose of English use, albeit very broadly, the government is providing a general policy direction for English language education with the specific goal of developing global human resources. By answering the questions of "where" and "for what purpose," the practical aspects of English language learning becomes clearer. By applying the CEFR, all stakeholders in the language learning process should be able to more accurately define the context and purpose of language use. This is where policy meets reality.

Demystification of the Common European Framework

The CEFR is a system for appraising the achievements of foreign language learners that was developed in Europe by the Council of Europe as a result of 20 years of collaboration and research and is now used increasingly around the world. It is comprised of six levels (A1-C2), from breakthrough or beginner to master or proficient user. It is a performance-based benchmark of language competencies that inform curriculum design, textbook development, and learner achievement. It uses descriptors of a practical nature (can-do statements) that describe what a learner "can do" with the target language in a particular context.

The CEFR puts learner goals, needs, and abilities at the center of the curriculum as a basis of assessment: a basic framework from which other matrices of competencies can be developed. Other important aspects of the CEFR are globalized standardization, systematic assessment, and comparability and compatibility between programs, participants, and languages. It provides an opportunity to direct teaching toward a framework of general functional ability as opposed to teaching for a specific test and a specific test score. The CEFR, in short, is a standard for comparison of language education that can be used across 39 different languages, such as Arabic, Swedish, Korean, and Russian. It brings the practical and attainable aspects of language learning to the forefront of the education process by emphasizing what a learner can do. Thus, it puts the success of the learner at the heart of the curriculum to provide purpose for the learner as well as the instructor.

In many ways the CEFR is not a new concept. It has theoretical roots that can be traced back to communicative language teaching and more specifically the notional-functional syllabus of the mid-70s, which brought contextualized language and practical usage to language teaching, especially in syllabus design and curriculum organization (Brown, 1994). However, the CEFR takes the concepts of practical use and performance standards much further in a systematic assessment of language competence that can be applied across languages. Of course there are differing types of competencies (such as linguistic competence and pragmatic competence) that are based on discrete aspects of language that can be isolated and assessed. Yet, because the CEFR is primarily concerned with mastery of language skills and evidence-based assessment, competency is defined as ability, mastery, and proficiency. Therefore, it is designed to assess across multiple competencies such as knowledge, skills, and existential competencies, which can be further subdivided into linguistic, sociolinguistic, and pragmatic competencies.

Definition of Can-Do Statements

If the CEFR is the big picture, can-do statements comprise the pieces of the puzzle that together compose the bigger picture. Technically speaking "can-do statements can be defined as descriptions of competence of an individual language user" (Imig & O'Dwyer, 2010, p. 2). They are statements that students can agree or disagree with, such as "I can understand basic instructions" or "I can take part in a basic factual conversation on a predictable topic" (breakthrough level), thus indicating either the ability and competence to perform a skill or the need to learn that specific skill. In other words, can-do statements are affirmations for self-evaluation and reflection. The critical and evaluative nature of these statements has the potential to motivate the learner by placing the responsibility for learning, and more importantly the learner's progress, back in the learner's hands. This realignment of roles also has the potential to motivate the teacher, while revolutionizing the underling philosophy of a language program.

Implementation

One way to begin to implement the CEFR in a class is to rewrite the syllabus with the goals and objectives restated as can-do statements. On the first day of class, while introducing the course, ask the

students to evaluate themselves based on these statements, which should then be used at the end of the course for self-assessment. Here is an example of my own old style objectives (A) rewritten as can-do statements (B):

A) This class will be based on a reading circle model. Reading circles are small, student-centered reading and discussion groups that meet in the classroom to talk about the short stories in the textbook. Students will read these stories at home and prepare worksheets. In class, each group member will play one of five roles in the discussion.

B) This class is based on a reading circle model. By the end of this two-semester course students will be able to do the following tasks with at least a 75% proficiency rate: I can . . . use appropriate greetings; give a short introduction of myself, including interesting details; identify the name of my faculty and major; ask and answer basic questions about a story identifying themes, expressing opinions, and agreeing or disagreeing with my classmates' opinions; write a short paragraph (100-150 words) summarizing the story.

Impediments to Using the CEFR in a Japanese Setting

There are several linguistic and cultural obstacles that must be overcome when implementing the CEFR in a language program. On the linguistic side students are not accustomed to (a) thinking of a foreign language in pragmatic terms that can be translated into can-do statements; (b) analyzing themselves or the language of self-evaluation; (c) emulating or being asked to regularly demonstrate successful language use; or (d) visualizing themselves as successful L2 users, not just learners, which may be due to a lack of good role models. Culturally, Japan is a test-taking society in which students often demand numeric scores that are perceived to be more objectively valid. Another problem is that students tend to get stuck in a cycle of inability by focusing on what they cannot do, not what they can do. Learners often view language proficiency as an unattainable goal in which perfection can never really be achieved and language learning is a never-ending process. This philosophy of *cannot do* and "mission impossible" is the antitheses of the CEFR. Finally, there is a tendency to use grammar and vocabulary as the primary focus of assessment. Language achievement, when defined by these factors alone, is reduced to just memorizing another list of words to pass the next vocabulary quiz.

Principles of Implementation

A few principles of implementation that can be applied in order to overcome these impediments are as follows. First, provide simplified versions of can-do statements for students at the beginning no matter their level, which can even include translations in their native language. Next, provide clear examples for the interactive language benchmarks using audio and visual media. Third, explain the CEFR levels in relation to established standards that students are already familiar with such as TOEIC scores or program placement codes. Next, encourage students to rate themselves with partial credit (varying levels of success) to avoid an all-or-nothing mentality. By giving themselves partial points they say "I can do this task," albeit with limited proficiency or under these low stress conditions. Finally, encourage students to use the CEFR and can-do assessment for the other foreign languages they are learning as a point of comparison on a global standard.

Conclusion

The CEFR is generally not something that can be adapted to an entire curriculum in one fell swoop. Implementation often comes through a series of small, strategic steps that lead to a broader series

of phases. Therefore, implementation need not be immediately adopted across all aspects of the curriculum, but can be adopted by one teacher and later improved upon and expanded across the program over time. This phased adoption should be achieved in co-ordination with other important aspects of the curriculum: stand-ardized tests, textbook selection, evaluations and assessment, and student placements—again a step-by-step process. It should grow into a systematized cycle of teacher awareness, student awareness, and program-wide awareness that later informs the overall curriculum, especially related to assessment of program effectiveness and student success. Finally, it should be promoted, once the system is in place, to other stakeholders outside, yet supportive, of the school, thus becoming a point of pride for the institution in the attainment of global standards in an internationally recognized way.

General Conclusion

This forum concluded with more questions than answers, yet it provided a brief overview of three trends and how they are being implemented within different teaching contexts (at both national and private universities), as well as providing participants with an opportunity to share personal experiences of these trends and en-counters with policy. The audience cited issues with group work as a main point of discussion, both how to place students effectively in groups and how to encourage collaboration and group work among teachers. A common thread between each section of this forum and the open-floor discussion was the recognition that we, as educators in Japan, need to be better prepared: specifically, more aware of the language policies of MEXT and more engaged in professional devel-opment if we are to put these policies successfully into practice.

Bio Data

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Appendix

Sample CLIL Project Plan (Based on Coyle et al., 2010)

Part of a Unit on Teams & Workplace Communication

Aim: To show the different roles and communication styles within a team. Discuss why we need to be aware of different roles and how we can improve communication in the workplace.

Teaching Objectives:

Content:
- Belbin's Team Role Theory
- Birkman Method
- Communication styles (both verbal and nonverbal)
- Key issues connected to workplace communication

Communication:
- Explain personal team roles
- Explain types of workplace communication (verbal, nonverbal, digital, face-to-face, etc.)
- Make suggestions (ideas for better communication, better team composition)
- Present ideas
- Negotiate

Cognition:
1. Understand the relationship between the research on roles and how people communicate in teams in different settings
2. Problem-solving (how to overcome issues when encountering poor communication in teams)

Culture:
- Intercultural communication sensitivity in the workplace
- Civility in the workplace
- A sense of personal responsibility for communication
- A personal understanding of one's own communication style

Outcomes: At the end of the lesson (which spans several classes) students will be able to:
- Understand the relationship between team roles and communication styles
- Ascertain their typical communication style and role within a team
- Know how to recognize the roles of others
- Suggest ways to improve team performance
- Analyse and discuss their own and their peer's actions
- Understand that an awareness of such models can bring more harmony to a team, as team members learn that there are different approaches that are important in different circumstances and that no one approach is best all of the time

Tasks Planned:

Task One:

Students are split into teams of 6.
Each group is asked to do a modified version of the Marshmallow Challenge (http://marshmallowchallenge.com/Welcome.html). They are video recorded during the process.

Task Two:

After the challenge, students examine each tower produced by their peers. Students assess and discuss which team created the best structure (language is supported with language boxes). Students speculate as to why each team performed as they did.

Task Three:

Students are given a worksheet explaining Belbin's Team Roles. They are encouraged to align themselves with a role (based on how they performed in the Marshmallow Challenge) and discuss with each other what kind of roles the members of their team took.

Task Four:

Students watch the video back and re-evaluate the role they assigned themselves, looking for clues on their communication style and team behavior, speculating on how and why they did what they did.

Task Five:

As a whole class, discuss and analyse why the teams performed as they did (causes and consequences) and how to take responsibility for actions. Finally, the students are given a real-life scenario (based on their part-time job or their club/circle) and are asked to put together a team to conduct a particular task within the scenario (a real activity to put theory into practice).

Task Six:

As a whole class, we discuss how knowledge of team roles can be useful in the workplace (and in particular in group discussions during the job interview process).

Matrix:

Although Task One does not have such high linguistic demands or cognitive demands, the proceeding tasks require high cognitive and linguistic demands. Providing adequate language scaffolding and language boxes to help students express themselves in the later tasks allows the tasks to be more linguistically accessible whilst being cognitively demanding.

Scaffolding:

Language boxes, modified materials, mind-frames, teacher support.

Talk:

Students have opportunities to talk throughout each task.

Assessment:

Students review the video and write a reflection on how they performed during the Marshmallow Challenge, and their team role. These are shared with classmates via a class blog. Finally, students must write an academic paper on the difference between a group and a team based on *Belbin, Birkman* (and other theories they have studied in class) including their personal experience to demonstrate what they have learned and how they can apply it.