

Reconceptualizing CLIL From Transformative Pedagogy Perspective: Pilot Debate Study in English Language Curriculum

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Abstract

This paper explores how Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) can be implemented in an English language curriculum at a Japanese university by taking the perspective of transformative pedagogy. Drawing on the 4C (Content, Communication, Cognition, and Culture) framework, we present a pilot debate class as one case example of a language-led course within our English language curriculum. Based on our understanding of CLIL pedagogy and our preliminary analysis of collected data obtained from the debate class, we argue that CLIL can be exercised in such a debate course as an integrated whole by closely interrelating the 4Cs, with Culture playing an integrative role in the framework. In the above example, students were engaged in speaking English in appropriate ways, thinking critically, presenting their ideas in a clear and persuasive manner, and taking the perspectives of otherness. All these processes would contribute to transformative pedagogy through raising students' awareness of social complexities and transforming their identities.

Keywords: *CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning), debate, 4Cs (Content, Communication, Cognition, and Culture), second language acquisition (SLA), transformative pedagogy*

Introduction

The aim of this paper is to explore how Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) can be implemented in an English language curriculum at a university by taking the perspective of transformative pedagogy. The authors of this paper spent their school years in the same period—the 1980s and 90s—but in different sociocultural contexts and contrasting English learning experiences. The first author, Ryo, went to a conventional secondary school in Japan where classes were given in a didactic manner with an emphasis on gaining a large amount of academic knowledge to prepare for university entrance exams. In this form of *traditional pedagogy*, characterized by “transmission of information and skills” (Cummins, 2004, p. 109), English teachers gave explicit instruction on grammatical structures and reading practice “with little emphasis on internalization of meaning or active communicative/authentic use of the language” (Cummins, 2004, p. 109). The second author, Yuka, went to an international school in Singapore where active student participation and collaboration were emphasized. This form of instruction, called *social-constructivist*, primarily aims to develop higher-order thinking skills through being engaged in projects and activities. In doing so, “[s]tudents’ prior knowledge is systematically activated, and they are encouraged to bring their experience or cognitive schemata to bear on solving problems” (Cummins, 2004, p. 110).

Although these two types of pedagogy are still dominant in many schools worldwide, another perspective, what Cummins (2004) calls *transformative pedagogy*, has emerged at the turn of the 21st century. This pedagogical perspective involves common characteristics of social-constructivist instruction but with different orientations. That is, whereas the first two forms have been primarily instructional-oriented, the focus of transformative pedagogy is on social and identity-investment dimensions—enabling students to analyze and understand the social realities of their own lives and of their communities through collaborative critical inquiry (Cummins, 2004). Cummins (2004) argues

that “[s]tudents discuss, and frequently act on, ways in which these realities might be transformed through various forms of social action” (p. 111).

Although the importance of transformative pedagogy has been widely recognized (cf., ‘Key Competences’ [OECD] and the ‘21st Century Skills’ [P21]), this perspective has not been fully practiced in educational contexts. In our view, the ideals of transformative pedagogy could be more usefully embedded in an English language curriculum by using an educational model, CLIL, in particular exercising its 4C—Content, Communication, Cognition, and Culture—framework. In what follows, we first define CLIL and discuss how content and language are organically integrated by using the 4Cs. We then consider how the 4C framework can be implemented to an English language curriculum at a university by illustrating a case example of a pilot debate class in our institution.

Theoretical Background

Defining CLIL

To conceptualize what is involved in CLIL pedagogy, we first consider a general widely accepted definition by Coyle, Hood, and Marsh (2010):

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. (p. 1)

As this definition states, CLIL regards the second language (L2) as an *additional* language in that first language (L1) acquisition is prioritized and opportunities of their L2 use is very limited beyond the classroom context. Differing from the other content-based instructions, such as immersion and English medium instruction (EMI), CLIL aims not to replace the L1 but to enlarge students’ linguistic repertoire of bi-multilinguals (Dalton-Puffer, 2017). This perspective can be compatible with the *multi-competence* view (Cook & Wei, 2016) in second language acquisition (SLA), assuming that the L1 always interacts with the L2 in mind, the L1 is a basis for self-regulation and learning, and L2 learning is “in essence a project of becoming bi/multilingual, multicompetent, and transcultural” (Ortega, 2015, p. 108).

This definition also states that CLIL gives attention both to content and language, assuming that varied forms of instruction can be designed as a continuum from the language-led to content-led poles. What ‘content’ means in CLIL depends on the learning context, ranging from traditional school curriculums, such as geography and biology, to project-based curriculums involving certain topics, such as the Olympic Games and global warming (Coyle et al., 2010). The more language-led form is termed ‘soft CLIL’ to describe the broad linguistic aims, while the more content-led, referred to as ‘hard CLIL,’ includes subject-based aims and objectives (Ball, Kelly, & Clegg, 2015). What is particularly significant in this dual-focused orientation is that both language and content are “interwoven, even if the emphasis is greater on one or the other at a given time” (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 1). The integration of content and language is further discussed later in this paper.

Other significant characteristics of CLIL, though not explicitly stated in the above definition, are *flexibility* and *inclusiveness*, as CLIL is often referred as an *umbrella* term. This attitude might come from its European origin—a group of pioneers advocated alternative terminology to account for pedagogies emerging from “diverse origins and varied purposes of different bilingual programs

throughout Europe” (Coyle, 2007, p. 545). To construct a common framework incorporating the rich and diverse political and sociolinguistic settings, CLIL takes a pragmatic and realist position by adopting a wide range of different SLA theories and language teaching methodologies, so that teachers are able to devise the optimal method of teaching in their own local contexts. Whereas this ‘transferability’ (Coyle et al., 2010) is advantageous in that CLIL can be adaptable to a wide range of classroom context, this flexible and inclusive orientation could also be regarded as a lack of coherence in CLIL pedagogy (Coyle, 2007), that is, there is a danger to obscure how CLIL differs from non-CLIL pedagogies.

Integrating Content and Language/Communication

As mentioned thus far, the general CLIL definition states its overall characteristics and orientations but also connotes its potential weakness. That is, because of its broad scope, it is less clear in what ways CLIL is distinguishable from the other language teaching methodologies. Towards a more principled—theoretically rigorous and practically transparent—pedagogy, Coyle et al. (2010) proposed four components—Content (subject matter), Communication (language learning and using), Cognition (learning and thinking processes), and Culture (developing intercultural understanding and global citizenship)—to construct a curriculum as an ‘integrated whole’ by making these four components closely interrelated.

The first two Cs, Content and Communication (or language), are “more than just a combination of two elements: real fusion asks for an understanding of the characteristics and interplay of both, and of the potential aims, processes and outcomes of the fused context” (de Graaff, 2016, p. xiii). The importance of integrating content (or, more generally, meaning) and language/communication can be supported by various theories proposed and elaborated in the area of SLA. First and foremost, CLIL is content-driven, so the linguistic needs “will be generated from the specific needs of the particular subjects taught” (Georgiou, 2012, p. 499). This ‘meaning-then-form’ principle has been emphasized by *focus on form*—“an occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features—by the teacher and/or one or more students—triggered by perceived problems with comprehension or production” (Long & Robinson, 1998, p. 23). Second, content matter could serve as *comprehensible input* (Krashen, 1985) when engineered to adjust an optimal—just beyond their current L2 competence—level to learners. Content matter also serves as context for authentic and meaningful communication, with a view to developing learners’ communicative competence through *negotiation of meaning* (Long, 1996). This communicative necessity makes CLIL differ from other language teaching methodologies based on traditional pedagogy; that is, CLIL learners are encouraged to “use L2 as they learn it rather than spending years’ rehearsing in a language class for a possible opportunity to use L2 some time in the future” (Georgiou, 2012, p. 496). Under such communicative condition, CLIL learners are expected to stretch their L2 competence by being engaged in various *output* functions such as noticing linguistic features and metalinguistic awareness (Swain, 1995).

Based on our understanding of Content and Communication integration in CLIL pedagogy, it is useful to refer to the scale of language and content proposed by van Lier in which learners are able to develop their L2 in a stepwise manner over years of study according to the progress of their L2 proficiency (Figure 1). With this scale, learners’ opportunities to receive academic content matter are “systematically ‘phased in’ over time, with the number of hours of L2 content instruction increasing with grade level” (Brinton & Snow, 2017, p. 11). Following the steps from more language-led (Point A) to more content-led (Point B) courses, content and language aspects are increasingly integrated as a whole within individuals.

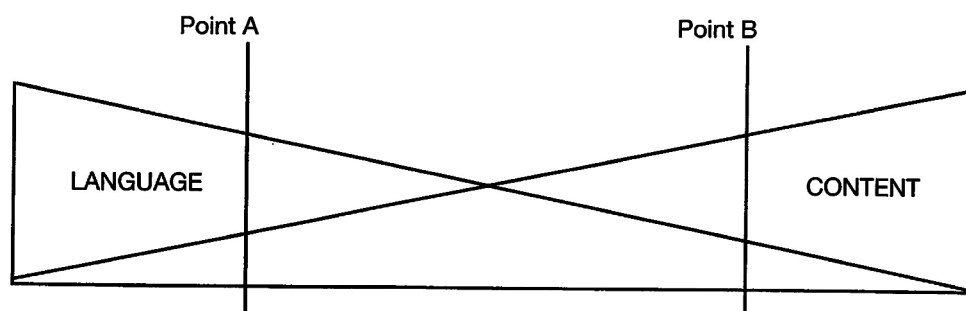
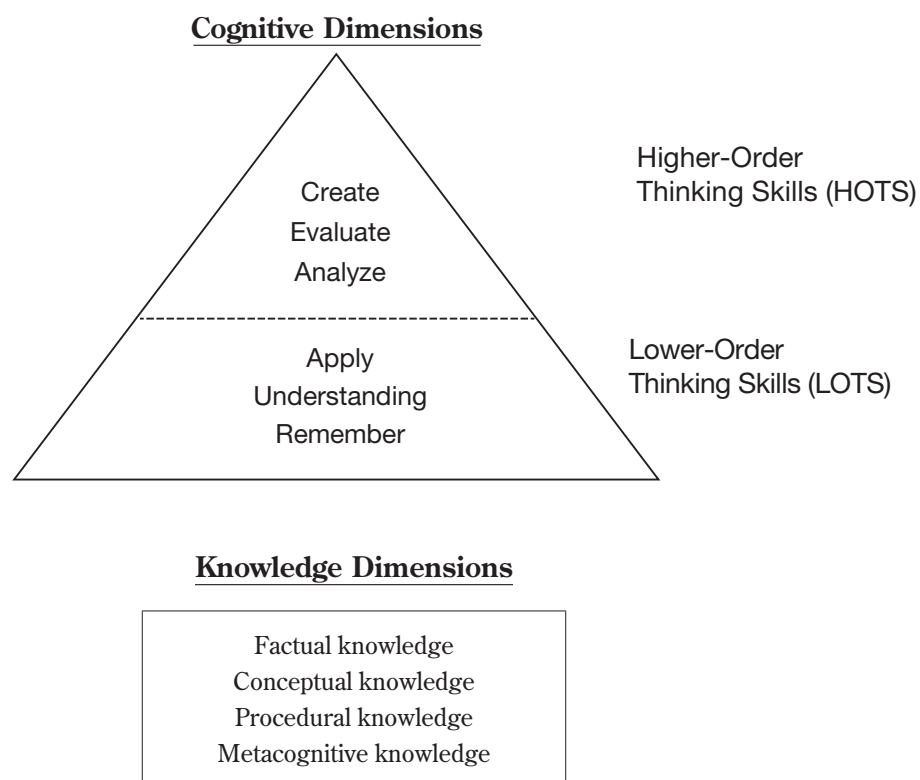


Figure 1. van Lier's scale of language and content (reprinted from Brinton & Snow, 2017, p. 8)

Integrating Cognition in English Language Curriculum

As stated above, CLIL pedagogy shares common characteristics with other language teaching methodologies in terms of content-language integration. What makes CLIL distinguishable from these SLA-driven methodologies might be its explicit focus on learners' cognitive development, that is closely aligned with content and language learning. To consider "how to actively involve learners to enable them to think through and articulate their own learning" (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 29), a useful framework is Bloom's (1956) revised taxonomy (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001). This model consists of six cognitive and four knowledge dimensions; the linkage of thinking to knowledge construction underlines the integration of content and cognition (Coyle et al., 2010; Figure 2). This taxonomy helps teachers consider which cognitive processes and knowledge to focus on in their teaching.



Cognitive Dimensions

- | | |
|-------------------------|--|
| 1. Remember | Recognizing, recalling |
| 2. Understanding | Interpreting, exemplifying, classifying, summarizing, inferring, comparing, explaining |
| 3. Apply | Executing, implementing |
| 4. Analyze | Differentiating, organizing, attributing |
| 5. Evaluate | Checking, critiquing |
| 6. Create | Generating, planning, producing |

Knowledge Dimensions

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| A. Factual knowledge | Knowledge of terminology, knowledge of specific details and elements |
| B. Conceptual knowledge | Knowledge of classifications and categories, knowledge of principles and generalizations, knowledge of theories, models, and structures |
| C. Procedural knowledge | Knowledge of subject-specific skills and algorithms, knowledge of subject-specific techniques and methods, knowledge of criteria for determining when to use appropriate procedures |
| D. Metacognitive knowledge | Strategic knowledge, knowledge about cognitive tasks, including appropriate contextual and conditional knowledge, self-knowledge |
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Figure 2. Bloom's revised taxonomy (based on Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001, pp. 29–31)

The integration of Content and Cognition is also inseparable from dimensions of language or Communication. Conceptually and cognitively demanding content is likely to require complex and advanced use of language, so it would be necessary to provide a “cognitively challenged yet linguistically supported” (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 43) condition in the CLIL classroom. To clarify the link between language and Cognition, it is useful to note the distinction between *academic language proficiency* and *conversational fluency* (Cummins & Man, 2007); the former concerns “the ability to interpret and produce increasingly complex written and oral language” (p. 801), and the latter concerns “the ability to carry on a conversation in familiar face-to-face situations” (p. 799). Because “each dimension of proficiency follows different developmental paths among both first and second language students” (Cummins & Man, 2007, p. 799), teachers and curriculum designers have to consider how the dimensions of language proficiency (i.e., either academic, conversational, or both) are closely linked to lesson content. In courses on developing academic language proficiency, for example, learners are required to understand linguistically and conceptually demanding texts and use low-frequency academic vocabulary and complex structures, which are hardly used in everyday conversation (Cummins & Man, 2007).

Although development of academic language proficiency is one significant objective in CLIL pedagogy (Dalton-Puffer, 2007), it would also be necessary to offer opportunities to develop conversational fluency because, in courses teaching academic subject matter (i.e., hard CLIL), learners have very limited opportunities to practice communicating their ideas about what they are learning. If the curriculum predominantly is academic oriented and “limits the opportunities for learners to talk more informally, it risks reducing their opportunities for language practice” (Ball et al., 2015, p. 100). The necessity of conversational fluency could be acknowledged by social-constructivist pedagogy, in which learners are likely to develop cognitive skills through active participation in their own learning experiences and close collaboration with experts and peers (cf., Vygotsky's concept of zone of proximal development). In a language learning context, Watanabe and Swain (2007) reported the benefit of collaborative work for L2 learning among different levels of proficiency based on their observation that social mediation comes not only from an expert but also from less proficient peers.

From the social-constructivist perspective, teachers have to offer *scaffolding* to maintain an optimal “balance between cognitive challenge for learners and appropriate and decreasing support as learners progress” (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 29).

To construct a balanced curriculum to develop both academic language proficiency and conversational fluency, it is useful to refer back to van Lier’s scale of language and content (Figure 1). Learners are able to start from more language-led courses, in which practicing conversational fluency is also emphasized, to more content-led courses to develop academic language proficiency as they progress within the curriculum.

Integrating Culture in English Language Curriculum: Toward Transformative Pedagogy

Finally, we turn to the fourth ‘C’—how culture can be included or integrated into the English curriculum. As a necessary step to cultural integration, we consider what is meant by culture in the CLIL pedagogy. A narrower definition of culture is often taught in language classrooms as “the four Fs”—“food, fairs, folklore, and statistical facts” (Kramsch, 1991, p. 218). However, culture can be more broadly regarded as “far more than a mere catalogue of rituals and beliefs” (Rosaldo, 1984, cited in Hinkel, 1999, p. 1) but rather as “a thread which weaves its way throughout any topic or theme” (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 54). In the CLIL context, understanding others and experiencing other culture are an important part of self- or identity-construction because “culture determines the way we interpret the world and ... we use language to express this interpretation” (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 390). By taking the perspective of otherness, “learners can have experiences which they could not have had in a monolingual setting ... [and] which are fundamental to a deeper understanding of global citizenship” (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 390).

In relation to self-constructive roles of culture, it would be meaningful to refer to *intercultural competence* that combines “language skills with knowledge, skills and attitudes that help learners become ‘intercultural citizens’” (Byram & Wagner, 2017, p. 141). Byram and Wagner (2017) further argue that “intercultural competence makes learners able to engage in intercultural communication to think and act critically and to negotiate the complexities of today’s world” (p. 141). This conceptualization of intercultural competence implies the close connections between Content, Communication, and Cognition *through* Culture—learners will develop intercultural competence in the language classroom through understating other cultures (Content), communicating with others (Communication), and learning critical thinking skills (Cognition), all of which contribute to developing competency to negotiate and solve complex social problems (Culture).

Focusing on intercultural competence in language classrooms can be associated with the objective of transformative pedagogy, in which learners are encouraged to analyze and understand the social realities of their own lives and of their communities through collaborative critical inquiry (Cummins, 2004). Cummins (2004) also argues that if the content of teaching is sufficiently interesting and relevant to learners, then they are likely to invest their identity. This process of identity investment is indispensable for maintenance of cognitive and academic engagement and serves as an opportunity to make learners transform themselves and equip them with the ability to understand the social realities in critical manners.

As discussed thus far, and taking the perspective of transformative pedagogy, the concept of intercultural competence involves the integrative roles of Culture within the 4C framework. As illustrated in Figure 3, we reconceptualize the 4C framework; each C is not positioned side-by-side, but Culture is given a superordinate role of integrating the other Cs. In other words, Content,

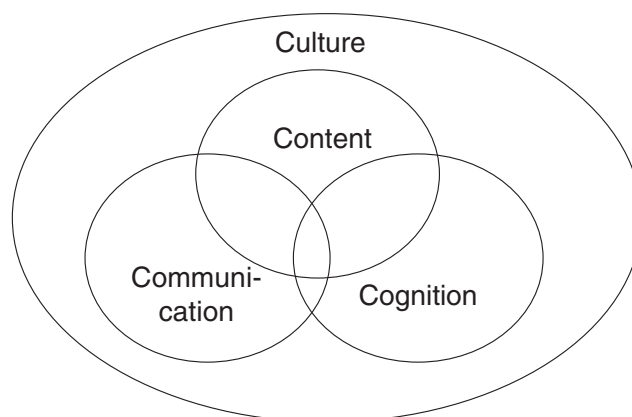


Figure 3. Reconceptualizing 4C framework

Communication, and Cognition are closely interrelated, being synthesized as an integrated whole by Culture.

Implementing 4C-Based English Language Curriculum: Case of Debate Course

Based on our understanding of CLIL pedagogy and reconceptualization of the 4C framework, we designed and implemented a pilot English debate curriculum. In the following sections, we describe the background of our CLIL curriculum then explain how the debate course is conceptualized and practiced within this curriculum by referring to some of our data collected from participating students and the instructor.

Background

Before explaining the debate course in some detail, we give the background about designing the new English language program including the debate course because there was a strong need of curriculum reform that came both from in and outside the university at an institutional level.

Needs From Outside University

With the introduction of the new Course of Study Guidelines by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports and Technology (MEXT), from 2020, English will be shifting from a ‘foreign language activity’ (*gaikokugo katsudou*) to an official subject for fifth and sixth grade students. They will be receiving a total of 70 class hours per year (about two classes per week) as a subject and 35 hours (about once a week) as a ‘foreign language activity’ for third and fourth grades. In total, students will be receiving 210 class hours during their elementary school years. Previously, students had received English instructions for only a total of 70 hours during their ‘foreign language activity,’ which means that the number of English hours that students are exposed to has nearly tripled.

Due to the drastic changes in early education, there was a strong need of curriculum reform to meet our prospective students’ needs in higher education. Students will likely be more exposed to communicative (productive) skills from early education, requiring cognitively more demanding tasks at university level. To meet these demands, we decided to reform the first year mandatory English curriculum by implementing a debate course and reducing the discussion class from two to one

semester. The aims with this course are to understand the nature and structures of debate in English, develop critical thinking skills by analyzing and formulating arguments on issues from multiple perspectives, and learn how to respond to questions through the development of research skills.

Needs From Inside University

In addition to and along with the change in early education, there has been an increasing demand to change the quality of English language teaching—for what content and how English should be taught—at higher education. In 2014, Rikkyo University was selected for government funding from the Top Global University Project (Type B: Global Traction Type). The fund was meant to financially support universities to play a leading role in facilitating the global competitiveness of higher education in Japan. The university was selected for its concept under the title “global liberal arts education x leadership education x self-transformation.” This involves (a) curriculum reform, (b) student consciousness reform, and (c) governance reform (Rikkyo, n.d.).

Part of this curriculum reform is to provide students an environment to develop their global perspectives within and outside Japan. Students are given opportunities to go overseas such as via summer programs and internship programs, and by 2024, the university expects 100% of students to have overseas experience (Rikkyo, n.d.). While encouraging students to go overseas, the university is also promoting internationalization on campuses and has set the goal to increase the number of international students to 2,000 by 2024 (Rikkyo, n.d.).

To better prepare students to be sent overseas and accept more international students on campus, there is an increasing number of courses offered in English by introducing more EMI courses. To make the transition smoother from the English language program to their EMI courses offered by each department, we decided to offer a CLIL program involving mandatory courses for first year and elective classes for second to fourth year students. The overall framework of English curriculum reform largely follows van Lier’s scale of language and content (see Figure 1). The English curriculum gradually shifts from language-led, general academic skills (i.e., discussion, presentation, reading, and writing skills) to content-led courses as their L2 proficiency progresses (i.e., CLIL courses). In the mandatory courses, English discussion is aimed at developing students’

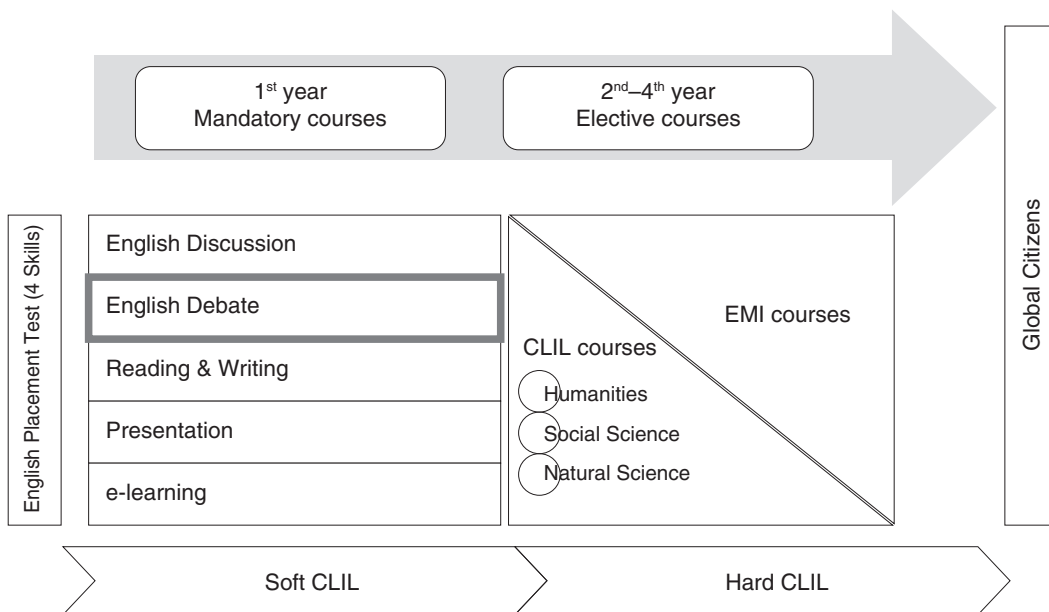


Figure 4. Four-year curriculum framework (adapted from Rikkyo HP)

conversational fluency as well as academic language proficiency. The CLIL courses for second and third year students are categorized into mainly three fields: humanities, social science, and natural science. Figure 4 shows the vision of students learning during the four years of their degree program.

Theorizing Debate Course From 4C Framework

Although the first-year courses focus more on the language dimension, content is interwoven within the entire curriculum. Thus, the underlining principle of CLIL pedagogy is also embedded in designing the pilot debate course. This section explains how the four core Cs (Coyle, 2007; Coyle et al., 2010) are designed and organically integrated into the curriculum. As presented below, the 4Cs are not mutually exclusive but closely interrelated and complement each other.

Content (Subject Matter)

Regarding content or subject matter in this debate course, a new theme was introduced to the class every other week. This included academic themes such as education, environment, business, technology, and gender (Figure 5). These were popular and relevant for university students worldwide, which we believed would likely to promote debatable issues.

	Content	Debate & Discussion Skills
1	Introduction to the course	Review discussion skills
2	Education 1	Introduction of debate skills Stating propositions 1; Constructing arguments 1
3	Education 2	Refuting and rebutting 1
4	Environment 1	Taking notes while listening 1; Evaluating a debate 1
5	Environment 2 Debate 1	Review
6	Business 1	Stating propositions 2
7	Business 2	Constructing arguments 2
8	Technology 1	Refuting and rebutting 2
9	Technology 2 Debate 2	Review
10	Gender 1	Evaluating a debate 2
11	Gender 2 Preparing for the final debate	Review
12	Final Debate 1	
13	Final Debate 2	
14	Wrap up; Reflection	

Figure 5. Pilot debate course syllabus

To help build their background knowledge of the theme, every week students were assigned reading texts for homework. Figure 6 gives an example of reading texts about technology for Weeks 8–9. The text included statistical data, facts, and examples related to the theme. Based on the information, students were also assigned to come up with a list of possible propositions to be used during the debate to be conducted the following week. By allowing students to generate the propositions on their own, this ensured their involvement by working on the topic that they are interested in pursuing in more depth.

Data

- In 2018, 15% of enterprises used artificial intelligence (AI) and by 2019 it was expected to be 31% of enterprises.
- South Korea’s automotive industry has 2,435 industrial robots for every 10,000 employees.
- By 2021, the AI healthcare market is projected to be at \$6.6 billion. For the US healthcare economy, AI could create \$150 billion in annual savings by 2026.
- 3D printing is a technology that was created in 1984 but it has recently become more popular in healthcare. In 2017, the healthcare 3D printing marketing was \$578 million, and it is expected to increase.
- In 2018, the National Police Agency reported the number of accidents causing death by elderly drivers in Japan rose to 460 or was up 10% from 2017. The cause of 136 of the accidents was not using the brake or steering wheel properly.

Facts/Examples

- AI technology is reducing the amount of time for administrative tasks in education, streamlining work in healthcare and cutting overhead costs in manufacturing.
- Convenience stores, such as 7-Eleven, are using self-checkout registers to deal with the shortage of workers. These registers can check the prices of the goods even without taking them out of the basket. There are even some chains that are thinking about being completely automated with no human workers.
- Japan, China, America, South Korea, and Germany are the world leaders in the industrial robot market.
- 3D printing could be used as an alternative for human transplants such as organs and personalized prosthetics or limbs.

Figure 6. Example of debate reading assignment: Technology (Yamamoto, Arthurson, Beck, Fearn-Wannan, Garside, Kita, Sturges, & Vaughan, 2020, p. 67)

The instructor’s role was to mainly guide the students through the research phase such as facilitating them to discover elements of an issue that needed further attention. At each stage of preparation, the instructor tried to make students be the decision makers and made them share their ideas with the class to create new understanding of the content.

At the end of each official debate session, students reflected on their own performance by filling out an online questionnaire in English. None of the responses were modified and adapted. The results of the student questionnaire revealed that students not only raised their linguistic competence and confidence but also their awareness of the theme. One student reported that “the themes generated my awareness of the current social issues” (Excerpt 1). Another student reported that “the debate made me think about the topic deeply” (Excerpt 2).

Communication (Language Learning and Using)

Debate was used as a pedagogical tool for “learning to use language and using language to learn” (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 54). English was used to introduce the content of the themes as well as fostering their communication, research, and critical thinking skills. During the first few weeks of class, the teacher introduced the following points:

- The purpose of conducting a debate
- Technical terms (e.g., proposition, affirmative and negative teams, and rebuttal) related to debate
- How to generate propositions
- How to give support for reasons using four types of evidence: example, common sense, expert opinions, and statistics (Lubetsky, LeBeau, & Harrington, 2000)
- Steps in formulating rebuttals
- Outline on the structure and timeline for each debate (Figure 7)

Affirmative Team (AT)	Negative Team (NT)
Affirmative Speech (3 min) (Construct your arguments)	
	Cross Examination (2 min) (Ask questions for understanding)
	Negative Speech (3 min) (Construct your arguments)
Cross Examination (2 min) (Ask questions for understanding)	
Preparation Time for Rebuttal	
	Negative Rebuttal (2 min) (Point out weaknesses)
Affirmative Rebuttal (2 min) (Point out weaknesses)	
	Negative Summary (2 min) (Summarize all of the arguments)
Affirmative Summary (2 min) (Summarize all of the arguments)	

Figure 7. Sample debate structure

While preparing for the debate, students worked in groups or teams of two, and the team members were shuffled each week. This created a comfortable class atmosphere, and a cooperative working relationship was built between partners. This collaborative learning environment enabled the students to develop higher-level thinking, oral communication, and increase their understanding of diverse perspectives. This was also shown from the follow-up interview conducted at the end of the semester (see Excerpts 3, 4, and 5).

Excerpt 3

Other students can support me and give new and effective ideas. My teammates tend to come up with better rebuttal. That’s very helpful for me.

Excerpt 4

I could share the task and conduct the research more deeply.

Excerpt 5

Team is better we can hear about other people opinions and find out about other perspectives. Then, I can make a more logical argument.

In terms of improving their communicative performance, after each official debate, self-assessment and peer-assessment for team members were incorporated to evaluate their own and the other team’s performance via participating in group discussion and writing reaction papers.

Cognition (Learning and Thinking Processes)

During the process of preparing and conducting the debate, students developed both higher-order as well as lower-order thinking skills originally categorized by Bloom (1956; Figure 2). The

results of the student questionnaire conducted in the pilot debate classes also revealed that while students prepared for the debate, students particularly fostered their higher-order thinking skills (HOTS): analyzing, evaluating, and creating (see Excerpts 6 and 7). For instance, when they searched for sources to support their arguments, they analyzed and made critical judgements on whether the sources were appropriate. They analyzed the articles and reviewed them to create their own arguments and rebuttal. While preparing for a rebuttal, they had to make informed guesses on their opponents' arguments.

Excerpt 6

I first made an argument and then I researched for the evidence that supports them. After that, I predicted what the opponent will say about my arguments at rebuttal. Then, I guessed the opponent's argument and made a rebuttal about it.

Excerpt 7

1. Firstly, I searched for other people's opinions on the Internet to come up with possible arguments.
2. From the opinions that I gathered from the Internet, I tried to predict the opposition arguments and from there, I made my own arguments.
3. After deciding my arguments, I looked for evidence that supported my thesis.
4. Lastly, I connected all the arguments and made sure it flows smoothly.

These findings are in line with other CLIL studies (e.g., Ball et al., 2015; Smith & Paterson, 1998). For instance, in CLIL courses, students tend to cognitively make more effort as they become more aware of the gap between their cognitive levels and current linguistic levels (Ball et al., 2015). In turn, getting involved into more cognitively challenging task leads to better language learning (Smith & Paterson, 1998).

Culture (Developing Intercultural Understanding and Global Citizenship)

Students were encouraged to search for information from within and outside Japan to state their arguments and rebut their opponent team during the debate. By introducing a wider cultural context, the aim was to promote cultural awareness and broaden their perspectives. They had to critically analyze within a wider global community. This gave them a chance "to become open-minded and critical by reflecting on their 'natural' way of looking at others' cultures and perhaps their own" (Byram & Feng, 2004, p. 161).

In the class, students became particularly aware of the cultural differences and similarities of other Asian countries (i.e., Singapore and China) through interaction with international students in class. This led to in-depth understanding of cultural difference as well as themselves. The cultural elements that featured and helped students self-identify came mainly from ethnicity, gender, and socio-economic status. This apparently became obvious, especially in gender-related themes (see Excerpt 8 from instructor's teaching diary). They recognized how certain issues are perceived similarly and/or differently in other cultures.

Excerpt 8

One Japanese female student had a strong opinion against having male workers take childcare leave. She believes they are not suitable for child raising biologically and expressed how her

father never did housework with frustration. Her teammate, a Singaporean of Chinese origin male student, tried to convince her that it is natural for fathers to carry out housework as well as child raising in his country. He even suggested by having fathers take the childcare, it reduces the stress of mothers.

Through examining and sharing the significance of culture, how cultural identities can impact and shape individual identities was addressed. This also showed that language and culture are inseparable in the learning process. As stated by Byram and Wagner (2017), students came “to value language education as an education for developing their identity rather than as the learning of a code that can only be used in some restricted environments” (p. 147). In other words, through learning the target language, students are also acquiring the essential knowledge about the world at the same time.

Discussion

Built on what we found in designing, conducting, and observing the debate class with our preliminary analysis of collected data, we now discuss how this debate course within the CLIL framework can be understood from the perspective of transformative pedagogy. For this aim, it would be beneficial to use Bernstein’s (1975) framework of visible (explicit) and invisible (implicit) pedagogy. More specifically, Content and Communication are categorized into visible pedagogy whereas, Cognition and Culture can be defined as invisible pedagogy. Our argument is that the pilot debate class was balanced between these two distinctive forms. The differences between visible and invisible pedagogies lie in how much there is teacher control in a classroom. In visible pedagogies, the teacher mostly controls and manages the structure of the lesson, and the information is transmitted directly to the students. In the debate course, the course themes were provided by the teacher and the rules for conducting the debate were explicitly taught by her. Students received continuous feedback from their teacher on their performance based on the set rubric so that they would become aware of what was missing to meet the criteria.

On the other hand, invisible pedagogies involve less overt instruction and students take responsibility in their own learning; as a result, learning takes place implicitly. In the debate course, invisible pedagogy was emphasized and for the majority of the classroom time, students worked in pairs, groups, and teams in a collaborative learning environment. The teacher served as a facilitator in class, arranging the team members, giving suggestions, and facilitating their discussion. As a team, they searched for information, organized their arguments, and prepared for the rebuttal. Through preparing for the debate, students were able to develop their critical thinking skills.

The aspects of invisible pedagogy were not clearly stated in the syllabus and course schedule (Figure 5) but played a significant part in students’ learning. The process of conducting a debate also clearly involves transformative pedagogy (Cummins, 2004) in which students become aware of the social and political realities of their communities and engage in discussion on “how it may be transformed through various forms of social action” (Cummins, 2004, p. 111). In the debate course, students generated the propositions within the framework of class-related theme. In a policy debate proposition, debate was framed in a way to encourage affirmative advocacy of a significant change/transformation in a government policy. Students outlined the current issues, indicated the specific advocacy and explained the reasons for adapting it. An example is a debate on the proposition, “All men should take paternity leave.” The affirmative side argued that even though the majority of

companies have childcare leave systems, in reality, only a small percentage of male workers actually use the system. They then proposed that the government provide funding for male workers to take leave. This in return, may increase the number of working mothers and have more fathers being involved in child raising. Through such a debate process, students were engaged in reflecting on their ideas, realizing another perspective, and negotiating the complexity of the issue. All these processes—critical, sufficiently interesting, and relevant to students—would contribute to elaborating their identities.

Conclusion

This paper was aimed at exploring the values and benefits of implementing CLIL in the English language curriculum at a university from the perspective of transformative pedagogy. We explained how the CLIL principles, especially the 4C framework, could be exercised in a university program where students are expected to develop their L2 proficiency by taking more language-led toward more content-led courses over the four-year period of study. We also presented our pilot debate course as one case example of a language-led course where students were engaged in learning the underlying 4Cs through a series of debate processes.

As stated in the dual-focused characteristic of its definition, one key to exercising CLIL is the integration of language and content, and this integration could be effectively achieved at curriculum level by adopting van Lier's scale of language and content. Even within language-led courses (i.e., mandatory courses for first year students in our curriculum) including debate, the content side needs to be closely interwoven with language use. Another key to exercising CLIL is to construct individual courses and the entire curriculum as an integrated whole by having the 4Cs be closely interrelated. As presented in our debate course, all the 4Cs are closely interrelated and complement each other. Academic language proficiency, for example, involves both Cognition and Communication components. As shown in Excerpt 8, elaborating content matter (e.g., paternity leave) requires a certain degree of identity investment and transformation.

From the perspective of transformative pedagogy, it should be emphasized that the component of Culture is given a prominent status—playing an integrative role of the 4C framework. That is, students might come to a language learning classroom with the aim of simply gaining practical language skills; however, in our curriculum they are engaged in performing English in appropriate ways, thinking critically, presenting their ideas in clear and a persuasive manner, and taking the perspectives of otherness. All these processes would contribute to becoming more aware of social complexities and transforming their identities. As rightly pointed out by Byram and Wagner (2017), through CLIL, students are likely “to value language education as an education for developing their identity rather than as the learning of a code that can only be used in some restricted environments” (p. 147). Implementing CLIL is challenging but rewarding and transformative for both students and teachers. This attempt provides an opportunity to consider how English language teaching can be offered effectively—students not only advance in their language skills but also transform their identities and develop their multicultural competency needed in this rapidly changing society.

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