Content-Based Instruction (CBI) in Japanese college classrooms: Focusing on language, content, or both?

by

Norie Moriyoshi

Department of Integrated Studies in Education

McGill University, Montreal

August 12, 2010

A thesis submitted to McGill University in partial fulfillment

of the requirement of the degree of

M.A. in Second Language Education

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am indebted to a number of people who supported me from the initial stages to the final draft of this project. Without their generous help it would not have been possible to complete my thesis.

First and foremost, I would like to express sincerest gratitude to my supervisor, Dr. Roy Lyster. His encouragement, prompt support, and unerring academic judgment firmly guided me, yet still allowed me to traverse my own path. I cannot fully express my appreciation for his tremendous patience in helping with even the most basic of questions, and for generously sparing time for meetings which provided invaluable counsel. The ways he "scaffolded" me was adjusted to my level and enabled me to develop an understanding in accordance with my abilities at that that time. His prompts helped me realize where my focus should lie, and enabled me to reach higher order thinking. My heartfelt appreciation is extended to my wonderful supervisor, Dr. Lyster.

I would also like to convey my deepest appreciation to Dr. Tomoko Kaneko, who inspired my journey to Canada. Without meeting her and engaging in her compelling class, my direction in life would be immensely different, and it would not have been possible to pursue such a higher education.

I extend great appreciation for the caring I received from friends and colleagues. Kazuya Saito, Masatoshi Sato, and Ye Zhu helped me to avoid pitfalls, especially in the initial stages of brainstorming and thesis writing. Critical comments and pragmatic advice by Matthew Clyde, Matthew Woods, and Sarah Wilson helped heighten my academic writing. Without "setting a goal," as taught by Caroline Moons, I could not have continually pushed myself. I am also grateful to Arielle Aaronson for her beautiful French translation of my abstract.

I would like to express my gratitude to Professor Tadashi Bannai and Professor Kayoko Yoshida who held meetings in order to let me conduct my research. I am also grateful to the two teachers and 76 students who provided precious data. They were very kind to participate in my study, especially since their spare time was so limited.

Last but not least, I would like to thank my parents, sister, grandparents, and Ruru. Thank you for unconditionally believing in me and for providing constant moral support. It is to them that I dedicate this thesis.

ABSTRACT

This study examined the ways in which CBI classes are taught, including teachers' comprehensible input, the amount of student output, and the perceptions of both students and teachers regarding CBI. Two intact postsecondary CBI classes in Japan, totaling 76 students and two native English-speaking teachers, were observed and video recorded over 7.5 hours. In order to better comprehend reasons for their behavior and decision-making in class, all participants completed questionnaires and teachers were interviewed on the final day of classroom observation.

Classroom observational data revealed that students had limited output practice, owing arguably to multiple factors identified in this thesis. Descriptive analyses revealed that teachers provided extensive comprehensible input to students, focusing exclusively on course content rather than grammatical teaching, especially on vocabulary whose meaning was conveyed through repetition and gestures. Regarding perceptions of CBI, both teachers and students perceived CBI classes to be effective for improving listening skills and content knowledge.

RÉSUMÉ

Cette étude examine les façons dont les cours CBI (*content-based instruction*) sont donnés en analysant le “comprehensible input” des enseignants, le taux de production orale des élèves, et les perceptions des élèves et enseignants envers les cours CBI. Deux classes de CBI au niveau post-secondaire au Japon comprenant 76 étudiants et deux enseignants anglais-langue-maternelle ont été observé et enregistré sur vidéo pendant 7.5 heures. Chaque participant a complété un questionnaire et chaque enseignant a passé une entrevue afin de mieux comprendre les motivations de leur comportement et leurs décisions en classe.

Les données observées en classe ont démontré que la pratique orale des élèves était limitée : les raisons pour laquelle sera identifiés dans ce texte. Des analyses descriptives démontre que les enseignants ont fourni aux élèves une quantité importante de “comprehensible input”, et que l’objectif du cours était uniquement le contenu - surtout le vocabulaire - plutôt que la grammaire. Le sens du vocabulaire était exprimé par répétition et par les gestes chez les professeurs. En ce qui concerne les perceptions de CBI, les enseignants ainsi que les élèves ont considéré les cours de CBI très efficace : les compétences d’écoute ainsi que la connaissance du contenu ont été améliorés.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

Chapter 1

RATIONALE

In this chapter, I will present the rationale for the present study by explaining situations of Content-Based Instruction (CBI) in Japan. I will also review some reported CBI studies at the postsecondary level in Japan and will justify why investigating CBI classrooms in this context is important.

CBI programs at the postsecondary level were initially implemented around the mid 1980s and early 1990s (Wesche & Skehan, 2002) and were highly influenced by Canadian immersion programs adopted in the 1960s (Swain & Johnson, 1997). Since then, the use of subject matter to support L2 learning has been appreciated, "theoretically, empirically, and pedagogically for its contributions to global L2 proficiency and academic skill development across a broad spectrum of learners" (Pica, 2002, p. 15).

Although CBI is not a "panacea" (Wesche & Skehan, 2002, p. 227), it has become an established method of instruction in ESL programs (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 2004) and it has been implemented in various EFL contexts (Brinton et al., 2004; Davies, 2003; Hadley, 1999; Hoare et al., 2008; Meehan, 2010; Murphey, 1997; Nagahashi & Duell, 2008; Rohe, 2005; Stryker & Leaver, 1997; Sugita, 2006; Xiaoqiong & Xianxing, 2008) regardless of learners' ages (Brinton et al., 2004; Wesche & Skehan, 2002). Murphey (1997) stated that "CBI in the EFL context is an exciting endeavor well worth the doing and well worth improving" (p. 29).

In Japan, until very recently, many institutions continued to adopt grammar-translation methods of instruction. From an educational point of view, as a consequence of large class sizes and a lack of opportunities to use English outside of class, this method was conveniently adopted. In secondary education, because university entrance examinations assess primarily reading comprehension, knowledge of grammatical rules, vocabulary, and translation skills (Fotos, 2005; Sakui, 2004), grammar-translation methods tended to be a dominant. From cultural perspectives, students' resistant behavior toward speaking (Li, 2001; Torikai, 2005) seemed to make the implementation of the method easier.

Therefore, from both points of view, the grammar-translation method seemed to fit well in the Japanese contexts.

However, one negative result of traditional grammar-oriented teaching is students' poor oral production skills; consequently, communicative skills needed more attention. Communicative language teaching (CLT), that is, the implementation of communication tasks in the L2, was introduced to Japan by scholars who were trained in English-speaking countries and was "accepted conceptually" in the 1980s (Oda & Takada, 2005). Gradually, as the Japanese economy grew, "its strong influence in the international market caused a boom in the learning of English" (Oda & Takada, 2005) for the sake of international communication. Following the educational reform of secondary schools in 1989 (MEXT, n.d.b), university educational reform was executed in 1991 (MEXT, n.d.e). Curriculum design of postsecondary education was given freedom (Hadley, 1999) and the number of CLT programs as well as CBI classes increased. The trend toward CLT and CBI continued after the Japanese government announced "a strategic framework for Japanese people who are able to use English" (MEXT, 2002) and stated the need for objectives at the university level regarding the training of people qualified to be at the front lines of the business sector internationally. Students are now expected to have learned practical English skills by the time they graduate from universities.

According to MEXT, the number of postsecondary schools that provide subject matter classes in English, so-called CBI, has increased from 234 in 2000 to 317 in 2005 (Chuokyoikushingikai, 2003, MEXT, n.d.a.). In particular, the statistics indicate that it has become widespread at a conservative pace in national universities compared to private ones (Hadley, 1999; Chuokyoikushingikai, 2003, MEXT, n.d.a).Yet it may be possible that the number of CBI classes is even larger than the reported number, because course titles given to CBI classes are sometimes unclear and people may not be able to tell whether the courses are regular English classes or CBI classes (Murphey, 1997).

Following the aforementioned transition of English education in Japan, CBI is regarded as an alternative to traditional foreign language approaches

(Stryker & Leaver, 1997) and has been considered to be "worth the pay off" (p. 312) in the long run even if the introduction of CBI should be "tailor made" (Wesche & Skehan, 2002, p. 85) to fit into local contexts (Brinton, et al., 2003; Butler, 2005; Wesche & Skehan, 2002).

However, Li (2001) wondered whether western language teaching methods fit the demands of EFL contexts. Butler (2005) also questioned whether CBI for students in EFL is practical or not.

One way to clear up any resistance may be to investigate the present conditions of CBI classes. For that purpose, qualitative and quantitative CBI studies are required (Brinton et al., 2004). As investigating the conditions of CBI classes in Japanese contexts has been less carried out, research in this area can contribute to our understanding of the current situation and demands of CBI, how courses are taught, as well as the perceptions of teachers and students regarding CBI. If there are problems regarding implementing CBI, they need to be addressed for further improvement. Accordingly, I hope that the study described in this thesis may serve as a pilot study and springboard for future studies.

Chapter 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter draws upon previous research to summarize features, formats, theoretical backgrounds, and issues surrounding CBI programs, as well as solutions to resolve these issues. Contextual factors and cognition regarding teaching practice that may influence CBI will also be discussed. Additionally, this chapter indicates my intent behind conducting the current study.

1. Rationale of CBI

1.1 *Definition of CBI*

CBI is conceived as "the concurrent study of language and subject matter, with the form and sequence of language presentation dictated by content material" (Brinton et al., 2004, p. ix). Wesche and Skehan (2002) described it as "two for one" (p. 221). That is, the integration of language and content learning is considered desirable or effective for language learning (Brinton et al., 2004; Kasper 1997; Nagahashi & Duell, 2008; Okazaki, 1999; Savignon, 1991; Sugita, 2006) rather than traditional language learning (Newton, 2009; Stryker & Leaver, 1997). Especially, CBI provides rich exposure to form-meaning relationships with the target language in a "highly contextualized and particularly relevant subset of the language" (Wesche & Skehan, 2002, p. 220). That is, the instruction meets the demand that students learn vocabulary and grammar in "clusters related to given contexts or topics" (p. 38) rather than isolated communicative instruction. As well, CBI meets students' academic needs with authentic materials (Stryker & Leaver, 1997). Students employ various skills (Chamot & O'Malley, 1996; Cunliffe, 1998; Currie, 1999; Lyster, 2007; Rohe, 2005; Spack, 1997; Stoller, 2002) in order to deal with norms and rules of target language usage (Wesche & Skehan, 2002) in cognitively demanding tasks in content-reduced situations (Cummins, 1985). Accordingly, such features of CBI assist to improve student's language abilities and content knowledge alike.

1.2 *Formats of CBI*

Three CBI prototypes – sheltered, adjunct, and theme-based – were described in 1989 by Brinton et al. (as cited in Brinton et al., 2004), and these remain the basis of CBI, even though newer formats now exist (Brinton et al., 2004, p. 246). Some relatively recent formats reported by Stryker and Leaver (1997) include the vocational-oriented English for Specific Purposes (ESP), and English for Academic Purposes (EAP). They also note discipline-based instruction, Language for Special Purposes (LSP), and Foreign Language Across the Curriculum (FLAC).

Brinton et al. (2004) aptly explained different formats of CBI. According to them, the sheltered model provides support for facilitating both development of language proficiency and knowledge of subject matter. However, the language focus is restricted to comprehension and necessary study skills to master a subject matter. Therefore, because the center of the curriculum is content, the focus of evaluation is content mastery. The course is taught to students who are 'sheltered' from native speaking students and uses appropriate or modified texts that match students' linguistic level. The format may be appropriate for any age group; however, the course may not be appropriate for lower language proficiency students because of the "linguistic and conceptual" (Brinton et al., 2004, p. 20) complexity of academic subject matter. Met (1998) stressed the importance of ensuring that students possess a certain level of language proficiency to "meet the demands of the content" (p. 43).

Regarding the adjunct model, Brinton et al. (2004) emphasized the importance of concurrently teaching academic subject matter and foreign language skills. In the model, students concurrently attend two classes: one is a language class with non-native speaking students, and the other is a content class with a mixture of native and non-native speaking students. Both classes are team-taught by language and content specialists. In these classes, the language teachers and the content teachers collaborate to coordinate assignments. Academic language skills and content-specific language are interwoven. Similar to sheltered instruction, the "linguistic and conceptual" (Brinton et al., 2004, p. 20)

complexity of the subject matter may not be appropriate for students with low English proficiency.

Theme-based models are presented by language teachers rather than subject matter teachers. Selected topics or themes that have a central role in the curriculum provide the content from which students learn (Brinton et al., 2004; Shang, 2006; Stryker & Leaver, 1997). This model can be implemented in any institutional context with students who possess a variety of proficiency levels; it has been widely used in foreign language settings (Brinton et al., 2004; Davies, 2003; Stryker & Leaver, 1997). Materials are teacher-made or adapted from outside resources. One type of theme-based model aims for integrating the topic into the teaching of all skills rather than dealing with one single activity such as a reading exercise. Another variation of the model deals with one major topic, such as 'marketing', over a period of time (Brinton et al., 2004, p. 15).

A discrete difference from the sheltered model is that the focus of learning in the theme-based model is on improving language skills instead of content mastery. But more importantly, Brinton et al. (2004) added that the different formats of CBI should be treated as a continuum rather than as discrete entities. In each format, "different degrees of content integration, task, material authenticity and learner accommodation" (p. 23) are predicted. As well, modified models of CBI can be a combination of features from two different formats.

1.3 *A Theory of Second Language Acquisition*

1.3.1 *The input hypothesis*

From Second Language Acquisition (SLA) perspectives, the Natural Approach, which does not place any emphasis on teaching grammar, is the central support for content-based instruction classes such as immersion (e.g., Harley, 1989). The Input Hypothesis coined by Krashen (1982) is one of notions in the approach. The hypothesis explains how language learners move from one stage to another. Krashen (1982) conjectured that, if learners were provided with comprehensible input consisting of structures a bit beyond their current level of competence, they would "move from stage *i* to stage *i* + 1" (p. 21). Thus, teachers make an effort to use "context," "knowledge of the world," and "extra-linguistic

information" (p. 21). The provision of comprehensible input should neither entail "a greater amount of expansion and embellishment" (Ehrlich et al., 1989, p. 403) nor be too simple or unnatural (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). In addition, teachers are required to decide on the appropriate amount of assistance to make input comprehensible and what the appropriate degree of pushing is (Lyster, 2007).

Apparently, teachers put effort into providing comprehensible input by employing a variety of instructional strategies for introducing new topics and terminology (Wesche & Ready, 1985). "[T]he teacher has to get the pupils' attention, monitor their understanding by constant checking, clarify, explain, define and when appropriate summarize" (Ellis, 1984, p. 120). Students may be able to fill the gaps between their already acquired knowledge and new knowledge (Stoller & Grabe, 1997), when teachers provide support through graphic organizers, multimedia, gestures, cognates, synonyms, and shorter phrases; also helpful is natural redundancy in phrasing, repetition of vocabulary, confirmation checks, and students' previous knowledge (Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000; Echevarria & Graves, 1998; Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2008).

Above all, cognitive perspectives recognize the importance of repetition as a learning device. It makes input comprehensible (Tomlin, 1994), helping students learn new words, concepts, and skills (Echevarria et al., 2008). As well, self-repetition is used by teachers to facilitate comprehension (Chaudron, 1988, p. 85). Wesche and Ready (1985) revealed that French and English professors used more words in both exact self-repetition and combinations of exact self-repetition and rephrasing for L2 students. When repetition techniques are employed, teachers seem to be selective regarding key points that the students are expected to learn and thus attempt to expose the details multiple times (Marzano, Pickering, & Pollock, 2001, p. 132).

Similar to language-related instructional strategies, visual aids can help make input more comprehensible (Early & Tang, 1991; Met, 1998), as non-verbal clues can "stretch" language competence (Neu, 1990). Gestures seem to be used most frequently with L2 learners (Wesche & Ready, 1985). Manipulative or other physical movement has been acknowledged as an effective way to help concept

development (Met, 1998). In a similar vein, Danesi (2003) explained that visual imagery can foster conceptual competence. Some experimental studies showed that using video facilitated improvements in students' comprehension (Driskell & Radtke, 2003; Herron, Morris, Secules, & Curtis, 1995 Secules, Hellon, & Tomasello, 1992). As well, Rubin (1994) stated, "studies have suggested that visual support can enhance listening comprehension" (p. 204). In other words, non-verbal clues lower the cognitive load in order to help construct abstract concepts (Roth, 2001). It should be noted, however, that non-verbal support may be culturally specific (Fiksdal, 1990; Hall, 1976) and may inhibit opportunities for discourse-rich language exposure (Lyster, 2007). In addition, abstract concepts may be difficult to express through gestures.[1] Moreover, too much use of non-verbal behavior may make lessons unauthentic (Lazaraton, 2004).

Other examples of comprehensible input reported as effective include providing examples and step-by-step explanations of concepts (Rosenthal, 1992); providing supplemental materials (Echevarria & Graves, 1998; Rosenthal, 1992); appropriate use of L1 (Butler, 2005); consistently pausing between phrases (Echevarria & Graves, 1998, Rosenthal, 1992) and using a predictable instructional routine (Snow, 1987).

It is important to note that different content areas may require teachers to use different instructional strategies in order to help students understand. For example, in science classes, students need to deal with "technical vocabulary, intensity of the information, systematic interrelationships among concepts, and precision in the stepwise directions to follow in experiments" (Dixon-Krauss, 1996, p. 45). In history textbooks, sufficient elaboration upon terminology or events may not be provided. Many texts assume readers are aware of the meaning of the terminology. Therefore, part of the teacher's responsibility is to provide instruction that helps students understand concepts systematically, logically and in a structured way. In science classes, modeling is effective. In social studies classes, textbooks may deal with "facts and ideas about various cultures" but

[1] According to Danesi (2003), there are two main concepts: concrete and abstract. The former is something that can be demonstrated in a physical way but the latter cannot. Thus, language needs to be used in order to represent the abstract concepts rather than just "pointing out" (p. 63).

some abstract information may be included in a "condensed form" (Dixon-Krauss, 1996, p. 48). In order to define different types of colonial protest, for example, visual aids from newspapers, photographs or reenacting scenarios may be helpful in understanding vocabulary such as "speeches, stamp burning, political cartoons, destroying property, marches and forming armies" (Short, 1994, p. 598). Similarly, when explaining abstract concepts, visual representations that relate to students' personal experiences may be helpful. For example, teachers may explain *point of view*, *oppression*, and *self-government* by using a news clip about recent riots and other current protests (Short, 1994).

Depending on students' language proficiency, the way of providing *comprehensible input* may differ. For students with limited language proficiency, more extended explanations through gestures may be required (Weber & Tardif, 1991), as well as using visual clues and metalinguistic analysis. For example, Echevarria and Graves (1998) observed science lessons in a sheltered instruction class and a mainstream class. When a teacher in the sheltered class wrote words such as *conductor*, *insulator*, and *passes through* on the board, the teacher also used gestures at least seven times in addition to providing visual clues. The teacher also provided metalinguistic analysis regarding appropriate word choice. On the other hand, a teacher in the mainstream class simply rephrased "An insulator holds electricity in and a conductor lets energy flow through" to "An insulator does not allow electricity to pass through. And a conductor allows electricity to pass through" (p. 153). These examples illustrate that teaching strategies need to be devised in accordance with students' language proficiency level. Different language skills are expected when students become advanced language learners. Cloud et al. (2000) provided different task demands for different language proficiency levels. According to them, the more language proficient students become, the less non-verbal support from teachers is expected (p. 126).

1.4 *Positive Reactions Toward CBI*

There are ample favorable responses toward CBI (Leaver, 1997; Murphey, 1997; Stryker, 1997). Students expressed satisfaction with their improvement

regarding critical thinking skills (Fujii, 2000, p.14), autonomous learning (Okazaki, 1999) as well as L2 improvement (Corin, 1997; Klahn, 1997; Klee & Tedick, 1997; Leaver, 1997 Stryker, 1997; Sugita, 2006). Even students who showed only minimal linguistic growth and who did not perceive content to be relevant to their demands enjoyed CBI programs (Stryker, 1997).

Musumeci (1996) reported that students appreciated subject matter taught in the target language. Similarly, students in the CBI program at the University of Ottawa felt satisfied with the quality of L2 teaching. Classroom activities, as well as the extra attention teachers and tutors were able to provide because of the small class sizes were viewed as advantageous (Weinberg, Burger, & Hope, 2008).

Enhanced motivation, excitement, and self-confidence through CBI and immersion were reported by students (Cunliffe, 1998; Fujii, 2000; Genesee, 1987; Hanna, 2002; Hauptman, Wesche, & Ready, 1988; Leaver, 1997; Stryker, 1997, Sugita, 2006; Vines, 1997; Weinberg et al., 2008). Likewise, Gaffield-Ville (1996) revealed that students showed fulfillment of their study in CBI programs. "Students felt a sense of accomplishment, knowing that they are studying authentic content material in the target language" (p. 114). Moreover, one student stated, "I believe these courses are a great idea. They work well as a transition to taking courses in French (my next step), and they helped correct my most frequent errors. I am not as embarrassed to use my French as I was before" (Ready & Wesche, 1992, p. 401).

Students' satisfaction toward the opportunities for L2 production in real situations and solving real problems in their second language is clearly evident (Hauptman et al., 1988; Klahn, 1997). Prof. Maune in Hokusei Gakuen Junior College Department of English agreed with the significance of authenticity in CBI classrooms: "The classroom here is a real English speaking situation /~/ because we are dealing with real questions, not with textbook situations that have some relation to real life but not much" (Hokusei Gakuen University, Junior College Department, n.d.). Students at Hokusei Gakuen University Junior College commented that CBI classes were meaningful because "the course is easy to follow and enjoyable" and because students were exposed to current, hotly

debated issues (Hokusei Gakuen University Junior College Department, n.d.). Similarly, students who attended Intensive English Studies (IES) at Kansai Foreign Language University reported that they were able to improve abilities of making connections with others (Fujii, 2000).

1.5 *Some Major Concerns about CBI*

A number of issues have been raised regarding CBI, including those revolving around funding, assessment, and material resources (Brinton et al., 2004; Butler, 2005). Other concerns involve collaboration among teachers and administration, including providing professional development in order to maintain teachers' expertise in administering both content and language teaching to students' levels (Brinton et al., 2004; Butler, 2005). One of the most discussed topics among second language acquisition researchers is about the interface of language and content teaching regardless of context. This is an especially critical issue at the post-secondary level when dealing with advanced content and language (Brinton et al., 2004, p. 245). Students' L2 improvement in CBI has been demonstrated through empirical studies and discussed in various contexts such as ESL, EFL, and FSL. One famous example is the study of French immersion in Canadian contexts. Studies revealed students obtained near nativelike receptive skills which contrasted with their weaker functional expressive skills (Swain, 1985), including lexical choices, grammatical structures, and pragmatic expressions (Lyster, 2007). Even when students received "formal metalinguistic instruction in language arts periods" (Lightbown, 1998, p. 191), their L2 development on expressive skills was not significant. It indicated that sufficient exposure to comprehensible input was beneficial for content learning, but not necessarily for grammatical improvement (Swain, 1988). Focusing on subject matter itself may not provide adequate language teaching for maximizing second language learning (Harley & Swain, 1984; Lyster, 2007; Pessoa, Hendry, Donato, Tucker, & Lee, 2007; Swain, 1988). Therefore, it is questionable if L2 accuracy development continues to occur in contexts where teachers substantially focus on input.

There are a number of factors that account for French immersion students not attaining native-like expressive skills. First, in the immersion classroom, there is a focus on global comprehension or comprehension of meaning (Harley, 1993), especially concerning lexical items (Lyster, 2007; VanPatten, 2004). It makes sense in a way that vocabulary plays an important role for comprehension of meaning (VanPatten, 2004). Ultimately, the sufficient provision of vocabulary-focused teaching may provide students with vocabulary development opportunities (Spencer & Guillaume, 2006).

Such underlying factors might have directed teachers to choose certain instructional strategies. For the purpose of comprehension of content, non-linguistic instructional strategies are commonly used and they may be beneficial especially for non-proficient young language learners (Harley, 1993). However, Netten and Spain (1989) argued that "low achievers may also receive more non-verbal messages than high achievers" (p. 499-500), indicating that students may need help expanding their language repertoire to deal with "complex grade-level" material (Schleppegrell, Achugar, & Oteíza 2004, p. 69). Therefore, different instructional strategies may affect students' achievement (Netten & Spain, 1989). Lyster (2007) cautioned that over reliance on non-verbal support may discourage production opportunities and ultimately may affect students' L2 communicative achievement.

Second, a focus on comprehension over production may have influenced students' development of expressive skills. Thus, students might not have been encouraged to produce the target language due to the types of questions asked by teachers (Allen, Swain, Harley, & Cummins, 1990) or the extent to which teachers pushed students to use certain linguistic forms (Lyster, 2007; Muranoi, 2007; Musumeci, 1996). For example, in immersion classes, teachers elicited "short responses of minimal complexity" (Allen et al., 1990, p. 75). Moreover, Swain (1988) reported that in immersion classrooms, teachers rarely asked students about what they intended to say or write. In higher grades, teachers tended to provide knowledge of subject matter through teacher talk while students

listened and had few opportunities to use the language in class. If Krashen's Input Hypothesis was right, students' L2 development could have improved.

A third factor that may account for French immersion students not attaining native-like expressive skills involves negotiation of meaning. Often, morphological components that were not seen as hindering meaning, and other linguistic features that were infrequent or lacking in saliency (Harley, 1993), were not the central focus in class. Instead, in immersion class, when interaction occurred between teachers and students, negotiation of meaning – not form – was the central focus.

According to Long's Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996), immersion students should have improved their accuracy of grammatical features through their exposure to meaning-focused classes. Students should have been able to make form-meaning connections and should have learned grammatical features. However, those were inadequate. Therefore, the underlying problem in immersion contexts was not due to the amount of negotiation of meaning, but was rather a result of less emphasis being placed upon negotiation of form. Teachers did not provide systematic or frequent corrective feedback (CF) to students (Allen et al., 1990; Day & Shapson, 1996; Swain, 1988). This indicated three points. First, "the use of feedback is not high on teachers' list of priorities" (Lyster, 2007, p. 92). Second, students did not have opportunities through meta-linguistic analysis to draw on linguistic features systematically and intentionally. Third, teachers and students in immersion classrooms may have developed a code to comprehend each other's talk that didn't adhere completely to L2 linguistic norms. As a negative consequence of the lack of negotiation of form between instructors and pupils, a "leveling-off effect" (Lyster, 2002, p. 239) was observed.

Another factor that may have influenced immersion students' inability to verbally express themselves as well as native-speakers could simply be because content-based classes may not have covered all the linguistic features of the L2, because language functions, forms, and discourse features vary (Butler, 2005; Schleppegrell et al., 2004). Some linguistic features may not have been salient for students, and, thus, they may have encountered only certain subsets of the target

language in class (Brinton et al., 2004, p. 243). Godman (1982) stated that "academic subject has a linguistic register expressed in grammar and restricted vocabulary" (p. 92). For example, the meaning of 'pressure' changes depending if the subject is politics or science (Godman, 1982). For this reason, students may be only exposed to a certain subset of the target languages (Brinton et al., 2004) or may only receive reduced input on particular linguistic features which may "not be used or infrequently used" (Lyster, 1998a, p. 85). Swain (1988) reported that immersion teachers made a distinction between "tu" and "vous" as either singular or plural. However, they rarely used "vous" as a marker of politeness or deference. As a result, immersion students did not learn the sociolinguistic function of "vous" and they underused "vous" compared to native French speaking students of the same age. As Met (1998) concisely stated: "certain functions and lexical domains may be learned and others may not" (p. 45).

In a similar vein, some students may not have learned even though teachers put much effort into creating activities which addressed a vast array of linguistic features. In other words, even if "creativity and pedagogical know-how expected of teachers" (Lyster, 2007, p. 44) were present, perhaps students did not notice or just did not avail themselves of the opportunities to practice. For example, in Harley's study (1989), students described childhood memories while aided by photos from their youth. They were supposed to practice French perfect and imperfect past tenses; however, they instead chose to use the present tense. Likewise, in Day and Shapson's study (1991), students designing a futuristic space colony were asked to practice the conditional mood, but, again, the present tense was used. One of the reasons was that these activities were similar to other familiar activities in CBI (Lyster, 2007). These outcomes suggest that students were not aware of focusing on target forms in the way that teachers (and researchers) had expected.

1.6 *Negative Reactions Toward CBI*

Negative student perceptions toward CBI seem to be related to students' personality and their learning styles (Stryker, 1997). As well, perceptions are also

closely related to L2 proficiency level. Students with a lower proficiency tend to view CBI negatively, perhaps because of the difficulty of the course.

Fujii (2000) administered retrospective evaluations to students of varying proficiency levels in content-based English classes. The evaluations revealed that advanced and intermediate students reacted positively toward CBI; but, some lower proficiency students expressed they did not appreciate nor enjoy the content-based classes. The main reasons were the cognitive load of the course and students' lack of learning strategies. These findings were reiterated in additional studies in which students who lacked sufficient English abilities were frustrated and intimidated in CBI classes (Hanna, 2002; Stryker, 1997).

Butler (2005) questioned that, if it was difficult for students to process the content in the target language, the program may be inappropriate for L2 learning and content learning. "Language is essential for activities such as finding out about historical events and geographical information" (Chamot & O'Malley, 1996, p. 263). Students are required to understand language in order to understand content (Hanna, 2002; Ready & Wesche, 1992).

1.7 *Solutions to Make CBI More Effective*

Resolving shortcomings of CBI is essential. Providing rich instruction on both discourse and language has been suggested (Genesee, 1987; Lyster, 2007; Netten & Spain, 1989) At the same time, the integration of both syntactic and semantic processing that draws attention to linguistic features is crucial to maximize CBI potential. In other words, increasing the amount of output and form-focused instruction (FFI) for "interlanguage features that have reached a developmental plateau" (Lyster, 2004b, p. 321) is recommended. It is based on the notion of counterbalanced instruction (Lyster & Mori, 2006) that was built on Skehan's (1998) dual-coding information processing model:

> Instructional activities and interactional feedback that act as a counterbalance to the predominant communicative orientation of a given classroom context will be more facilitative of interlanguage restructuring than instructional activities and interactional feedback

> that are congruent with the predominant communicative orientation. (Lyster & Mori, 2006, p. 294)

1.7.1 *The output hypothesis*

Based on the counterbalanced approach, input-focused CBI classroom may need to increase opportunities for student L2 output. Swain's (1995, 2005) Output Hypothesis puts forth that the more students produce output, the more opportunity they have for noticing linguistic features, thus shifting from semantic to syntactic processing. Swain (1988) explained that understanding discourse may not necessarily require people to possess syntactic and morphological knowledge; however, such knowledge is essential to produce the discourse accurately. An additional advantage of output is that it provides students with opportunities of generating new hypotheses on linguistic features, which leads to testing the hypotheses and enhancing fluency (Swain, 1985, 2005).

Output practice has been recognized as significant for language learning. One key point of output is that production should be comprehensible. Swain (1985) defined comprehensible output as "output that extends the linguistic repertoire of the learner as he or she attempts to create precisely and appropriately the meaning desired" (p. 252). The other key point is that the effects of practice may be modality specific (DeKeyser, 1997; Lightbown, 2008). That is, speaking practice is essential to improve speaking (DeKeyser, 2007). Consequently, "practice plays an essential role in the development of performance with interalanguage grammar" (Muranoi, 2007, p. 65). Needless to say, practicing teachers know that production is crucial for speaking and writing improvement (Muranoi, 2007).

Simply applying findings of psychology to second language acquisition merits caution (Lightbown, 2008), because "production rules are not specifically linguistic but true of all aspects of the mind" (Cook, 1993, p. 247). However, the significance of practice for knowledge procedualization was well explained by DeKeyser (2007) who drew on cognitive and educational psychology theories. DeKeyser clearly stated that the practice he suggested was not identical to the mechanical practice observed in behaviorism; rather it was perceived as "specific

activities in the second language, engaged in systematically, deliberately, with the goal of developing knowledge of and skills in the second language" (p. 1).

DeKeyser draws on skill acquisition theory (Anderson, 1990), according to which practice may help solidify the connection between declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge (Anderson, 1990; Towell & Hawkins, 1994). Once fixed, "procedural knowledge can become automatized" (DeKeyser, 2007, p. 3). At the stage of automaticity, access to knowledge becomes "spontaneous, effortless, fast, and errorless" (p. 3). In short, practice may be helpful to reduce reaction time and error rate (DeKeyser, p. 4).

DeKeyser (2007) also took into account the role of practice from an Educational Psychology standpoint. According to DeKeyser, educators and educational psychologists believe that "deliberate practice can lead to an enormous reduction in the time it takes individuals to reach real-world performance criteria" (p. 5). Because practice concerns the issue of transfer, Transfer-Appropriate Processing (TAP) plays a role. Blaxton (1989) explained that with TAP, "memory performance will be improved to the degree that the type of operations performed at study overlap with those required at test" (p.658). Likewise, Segalowitz(1997) stated:

> Transfer appropriate learning refers to the idea that the expression of previous learning will be successful to the extent that the learner's psychological state, existing at the time of learning, matches that required at the time of expression. When the match is strong, learning is said to be transfer appropriate. (p.105)

However, it is important to note that some linguistic rules may not require going through declarative to procedural processing and production, and that the positive impact of practice may be related to certain linguistic features or learner factors (DeKeyser, 1998).

According to Day and Shapson (1996), students who engaged in discourse about science had output opportunities more frequently and showed higher L2 achievement compared to those who received traditional instruction. The difference was made possibly because engaging in discourse and using language

serve as a basis for improving languages (p. 80). However, eliciting students' production may not be done easily in content classrooms. According to Allen et al. (1990), data sets from two immersion classrooms, one grade 3, the other grade 6, showed similar types of student production. The most frequent source of student talk was "selecting from limited choice" (p. 75). Allen et al. (1990) concluded that teachers should encourage student-initiated discourse and use open-ended questions that require students to respond using their own words.

One key to increasing the amount of student output is to make teachers aware that they ought to provide students with opportunities to practice productive skills. However, Holley and King (1971) stated that teachers tended to spend more time for correction, explanation and restatements of questions than on moments of silence (p. 497). From a pedagogical perspective, taking the time to elicit students' production is valuable (Allen et al., 1990). 'Wait time' is effective for students to put their thoughts into words, "activating the muscles in order to produce the answer out loud" (White & Lightbown, 1984, p. 241). Thus, students benefit from extra time to formulate their ideas not only in CBI classes (Cloud et al., 2000) but also language classes in general (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). Nakane (2005) specifically proposed that "allowing longer wait-time after questioning" is likely to improve the participation for Japanese students in university classes in general. Rowe (1972) revealed that elementary science teachers provided students only one second, on average, to start an answer to a question. If students did not respond to a teacher's question within one second, teachers repeated questions or called on others to respond. In discourse-rich classes, the average wait time was around three seconds. Rowe (1972) concluded that longer wait time promoted students' "desired inquiry behaviors" (p. 2).

Similarly, White and Lightbown (1984) suggested that five to ten seconds constitute appropriate wait time following a teacher's question. Their findings showed 41% of questions were answered when students received 2.1 seconds of wait time. It should be mentioned that appropriate wait time may differ depending on contexts. Cloud et al. (2000) stated that "second language learners and students

from some cultural groups required longer wait times than native English-speaking students from majority group background" (p.145).

Changing the format of classroom activities such as having "goal directed small group" (Harley, 1989, p. 357) work that requires students to use the target language during a task also seems to be an effective way to increase student output (Allen et al., 1990; Musumeci, 1996; White & Lightbown, 1984). This is considered effective because students rarely asked questions in class (Musumeci, 1996; White & Lightbown, 1984).

1.7.2 *Form-focused instruction (FFI)*

According to the counterbalanced approach, meaning-focused CBI classes may need to introduce more form-focused activities in order to facilitate form-meaning connections and accuracy of L2. Therefore, it is beneficial for content learning to be complemented by form-focused instruction (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Lightbown & Spada, 2006; Lyster, 2007).

One may wonder whether grammar classes may take the roles of form-focused instruction (FFI). However, having separate classes specifically for grammar may not be effective, as is suggested by the TAP theory (Lightbown, 1998); rather, language teaching is "best done within communicative activities, rather than independently" (Wesche & Skehan, 2002, p. 227). One may surmise that some linguistic features may be difficult to learn in communicative activities since attention to meaning and to form compete with each other. Lightbown (2008) also wondered about this, and mentioned that activities in which students have opportunities to focus on L2 without the pressure of communication are necessary.

Different researchers have slightly different views concerning FFI. Some take the position that FFI aligns with incidental language learning (Genesee, 1987: Long, 1991; Richard-Amato & Snow, 1992), some identify with input-oriented learning (VanPatten, 2004), and others vie for the inclusion of systematic language teaching and considerable amounts of output in FFI (Lightbown, 2008; Lyster, 2007). Despite differences, it seems to have been acknowledged that FFI takes two forms: proactive and reactive (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Lyster,

1998a). The proactive approach involves "pre-planned instruction designed to enable students to notice and to use target language features that might otherwise not be used or even noticed in classroom discourse" (Lyster, 2007, p. 44). It is supported by cognitive psychology regarding noticing and the proceduralization of knowledge. The effectiveness of the proactive approach has been documented through experimental studies (Day & Shapson, 1991, Harley 1989, Lyster 1994, 2004b).

The reactive approach involves "CF [corrective feedback] as well as other attempts" that are "relatively unplanned and spontaneous" ways of drawing learners' attention to form and meaning (Lyster, 2007, p. 47).[2] It has been suggested that the provision of CF should be "in the heat of the moment" (Lyster, 2007, p. 137) according to TAP theory. Cognitive psychologists concur, believing that immediate feedback is more efficient, as "procedural 'knowledge' that led to the error is still active in memory" (DeKeyser, 2007, p. 5). Some may be concerned that providing feedback may "interrupt communication for the sake of formal correction" (Chaudron, 1988, p. 134); however, "this may be a false paradox" (Lyster, 2007, p. 93-94) and as Swain (1988) notes, providing CF for all linguistic errors is not recommended. Teachers are able to provide CF while at the same time maintaining the flow of communication (Lyster, 2007). Teachers "do not have to choose between communication on the one hand and corrective feedback on the other" (Lyster, 2007, p. 93). Accordingly, the substantial positive effect of the reactive approach in maximizing the potential of CBI has been documented through both experimental and descriptive studies (e.g., Doughty & Varela, 1998; Lyster & Ranta, 1997, Panova & Lyster, 2002).

In sum, various studies have upheld the feasibility and effectiveness of both reactive and proactive FFI in meaning focused classrooms (e.g., Lightbown, 1998; Lyster, 2007). However, it is crucial to note that the effectiveness of oral CF categorized as reactive FFI may vary depending on focused grammatical

[2] Lyster and Ranta (1997) categorized types of CF into: clarification requests, repetition, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, explicit correction, and recasts. Later, Lyster (2004b) introduced the term 'prompts,' which encapsulated clarification requests, repetition, elicitation and metalinguistic clues.

features (Lyster, 2004b; Lyster, 2007; Sheen, 2006), learners' proficiency level (Ammar & Spada, 2006), learners' age (Oliver, 2000) and learning orientation (Lyster & Mori, 2006). Importantly, a recent meta-analysis of interaction studies conducted by Mackey and Goo (2007) reported that the effectiveness of CF varies depending on contexts such as ESL or EFL. Lyster and Saito's (2010) meta-analysis on oral CF revealed that contextual factors were not significant. Rather, they revealed that many variables such as CF types, type of outcome measure, and age mediate feedback effectiveness.

2. Contextual Factors in CBI

2.1 *Definition of ESL vs. EFL*

Similar to FFI studies, contextual factors and other variables need to be taken into account for CBI studies. As Butler notes (2005, p. 229), the "distinction between ESL and EFL may not be clear cut." Indeed, defining ESL and EFL can be difficult and somewhat contentious, but there is clearly a distinction. Kenkyusha Dictionary of English Language Learning and Teaching ESL (Yoneyama, 2003) explains the terms differently. ESL indicates a condition of English learning in which English is used as an official language for politics, economics and law and used in daily conversation. Such countries include Singapore, India, Nigeria, and the Philippines (p. 98-99). On the other hand, EFL refers to a condition of English learning in which English is taught as a school subject, but not as a medium of instruction. Also, English is not used as an official language for politics, economics and law, and not used in daily communication (p. 91). The important distinctions between ESL and EFL have been recognized by Strevens (1992), who indicated differences in the two in terms of students' familiarity with English, their expectations of success, and their variations in the level of achievement (p. 36-37). That is, in ESL and EFL, English teaching and learning may differ.

2.2 *Considerations of CBI in EFL Contexts*

It may be important to distinguish between ESL and EFL in order to interpret CBI in various contexts. These contexts depend upon students'

objectives for participating in a CBI class, the qualifications of instructors (Butler, 2005), and the educational background of the students (Savignon, 2005). Above all, the objective of enrolling in a CBI class may differ between EFL and ESL, as students in ESL tend to join mainstream classes which include native speakers of the target language (Briton et al., 2004; Butler, 2005; Hanna, 2002). In addition, for such students, both learning language and learning content are essential in order to maintain pace with native-speaking classmates. On the other hand, joining a mainstream classroom is not often an objective of EFL students. Instead, for them, the purpose of CBI could be foremost as an English class or as a content class that is, at least, taught in English to EFL students (Hanna, 2002, p. 67). For this reason, students' motivational differences may be apparent (Butler, 2005, Hanna, 2002). Even though students learn both content and language in CBI, they may not be motivated to apply the acquired knowledge to a practical situation because their surroundings do not require them to use the target language outside of class.

In addition to students' objectives for attending CBI classes, teacher knowledge concerning cultural understanding and the teacher's proficiency in the target language may impact student learning. As well, it may also be important for teachers who teach in an EFL context to have an understanding of students' previous educational experiences and their cultures (Butler, 2005).

3. Cognition Regarding Teaching Practice

3.1 *Teachers*

It is also important to explore the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their teaching practices (Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004; Kane, Sandretto, & Heath, 2002; Pajares, 1992). Yet , terms employed by researchers are not consistent. Some studies refer to 'principles of practice,' 'personal epistemologies,' 'perspectives,' 'practical knowledge,' or 'orientations.' A commonality across the studies is that all studies deal with cognitive subject knowledge and beliefs. In terms of beliefs and perceptions, they are certainly related to each other. Pajares (1992) stated that "beliefs subsequently affect perception" and "…beliefs impact on perceptions that affect behaviors" (p. 317).

Johnson (1994) also stated that teacher beliefs influence perceptions. By definition, it seems reasonable to hypothesize that perceptions and beliefs are related to each other since both entail what is happening in the brain.

Teachers' beliefs are usually consistent with their theoretical beliefs (Johnson, 1992; Kagan, 1992) and their own decision making (Shavelson, 1973). Put differently, teachers' beliefs may be the best indicators of the type of instructional decisions they make (Farrell & Lim, 2005, p.8). However, mismatches between teachers' stated beliefs and practice have been revealed because of contextual factors (Fang, 1996) such as time constraints (Yoshida, 2008) and poor student performance (Graden, 1996). The inconsistency was explained by Basturkmen et al. (2004) by introducing two different knowledge types that teachers possess during their teaching. One is technical knowledge that indicates "the body of explicit ideas derived by a profession from deep reflection or empirical investigation." (p. 246). The other is practical knowledge that represents "the procedural knowledge an individual practitioner has derived from experiences of teaching and learning languages" (p. 247). The point is that technical knowledge is not always procedualized. It seems that it takes time to procedualize their technical knowledge to be accessible. That is, technical knowledge changes to practical knowledge over time. However, during online teaching, teachers refer to practical knowledge. As a result, discrepancies may occur, but they may diminish with experience (p. 267).

3.2 *Students*

Not only teachers', but also students' cognition should be acknowledged, because sometimes teacher practices and student perceptions may not match (Yoshida, 2008). In addition, as Richards and Lockhart (1994) state, learning is "not necessarily the mirror image of teaching." Students bring their own beliefs concerning appropriate classroom behavior and teacher-student interaction (p. 55). It may be informative to explore students' thoughts pertaining to issues revolving around CBI classes. As Richards and Lockhart (1994) explained, if students think "it is not polite to ask the teacher a question during class time," (p. 55) their perceptions may be reflected in their classroom behavior. In brief, in order to

understand reasons behind students' behavior, it is necessary to investigate students' perceptions.

4. The Current Study

The current study investigates CBI classrooms in EFL contexts as well as issues that arise in implementing CBI in EFL classrooms. Through classroom observation, I will investigate how and what is taught in CBI classes. In addition, reasons behind the ways of delivering lessons and students' behavior are analyzed. As Brinton et al. (2004) stated, CBI research has been moving toward detailed analysis of classroom practices. Recently, both descriptive (Duff, 2001; Early, 2001; Gibbons, 1998; Kong, 2009; Musumeci, 1996; Pessoa et al., 2007) and experimental (Burger & Chrétien, 2001; Rodgers, 2006) studies have been reported. We can all agree that classrooms have the potential to provide a fertile field for researchers interested in all facets of language teaching and learning to conduct both qualitative and quantitative research that can both improve our understanding of how languages are learned and help us develop more effective ways to teach them (Brinton et al., 2004, p. 255).

What should be emphasized concerning CBI studies is context, especially the variation of CBI in ESL versus EFL contexts. CBI is context specific (Butler, 2005; Hanna, 2002). Ample case studies involving CBI in ESL contexts at the college level have been conducted. However, controlled experimental CBI studies at the college level are still very limited in EFL (Bae, 2007; Sugita, 2006). Ample descriptive case studies that documented implementation of CBI in various educational contexts have been reported at the college level in ESL contexts but not very much in EFL settings. In Japan, most CBI studies at the college level concern innovation of curriculum (Hadley, 1999; Murphey, 1997), descriptions of course content with teachers' impressions (Balint, 2004; Davies, 2003; Nagahashi & Duell, 2008; Rohe, 2005, Spiri, 2004), and a combination of surveys or interviews of student and teacher perceptions (Cunliffe, 1998; Fujii, 2000; Hanna, 2002; Okazaki, 1999). To my knowledge, the ways in which CBI classes are conducted, as studied through third-person classroom observation, has not yet been reported.

Following the CBI studies in Japan, my research questions are:

1) To what extent do Japanese college students produce English orally in CBI class?
2) What types of language-related and non-linguistic instructional strategies are employed for comprehensible input by teachers in CBI classroom?
3) What kinds of perceptions do both teachers and students have regarding the effectiveness of CBI?

In the next chapter, the methodology for implementing the current study, which was designed to address each of these questions, will be presented.

Chapter 3
METHODOLOGY

In this chapter I will describe the study context, participants, data collection instruments, and data analysis, including the coding categories used to analyze the classroom data. The categories emerged from classroom observation and will be explained along with examples obtained in class.

1. Context

1.1 *General Settings*

There are 406 colleges (28 national or public and 378 private) and 773 universities (178 national and 595 private) in Japan (e-Stat, 2009a, b). Among these many institutions, the current study was conducted at two CBI classes (Geography and Sociology) at a private college located in northern Japan. The target department was the English department, which emphasizes authentic English and aims to develop students' awareness of internationalization. According to its university profile, students experience lectures given by native English-speaking teachers as well as extensive use of DVDs and computers in a unique curriculum to improve their comprehension of English and their self-regulated practical English skills. In this context, CBI classes (i.e., History, Geography, Psychology, Sociology, Life Science, Statistics, Anthropology, and World Music) were designed in order to meet the objectives of the department. The program was implemented in 1993, two years after the educational reform for universities was undertaken by the Japanese government. Since then, the format of classes has been left to the discretion of individual teachers and, as a result, the lecture format has remained the same.

The Japanese government has acknowledged the uniqueness and success of the CBI program and, since 2004, the department has received financial support ("support program for distinctive university education" and "support program for contemporary educational needs") consecutively for five years from

2004 to 2008[3]. This college is the only college in Japan to receive such funding (K. Yoshida, personal communication, March 2, 2010). This funding reflects the current success of the program and its potential to benefit the needs of society. The total amount of funding from the above support programs is $790,000 (1$ = 100 yen) and provides 50% of the money needed for the entire department budget (Kiyose, 2005-2006). Although "CBI programs, however, often lack administrative support because they are not easily interchanged with other courses and their resource requirements often challenge shrinking budgets" (Brinton et al., 2004, p. 253), the program in the present study has sufficient funding to sustain itself.

1.2 *Course Objectives*

The objective of the Geography course is described as follows on the school website: "the scope of the study of geographical concepts will be expanded to the physical world. Human impacts and efforts to modify or manage the physical environment will be included." The objectives of Sociology II are as follows:

> The focus of Sociology II will begin with the problems created by gender and social stratification such as eating disorders, low self-esteem and the serious health issues which result. Additional topics will be: aging societies, crime, continued focus on education including inequality in schools due to poverty, the failure of charter schools in the USA, home schooling and alternative schools. The course will also focus on social inequality and social justice.

[3]"Support program for distinctive university education" (Tokushoku GP) and "support program for contemporary educational needs" (Gendai GP) were started for competition among universities and curriculum development purposes. The college had received the support since 2003 and 2004 respectively. Those are considered as educational version of 21st century of COE program. The former is an award for achievement toward particular programs which meet the needs of modern society and educational objectives. The latter is an award for estimation of future possible achievement on certain peculiar programs at higher education. For organization which applies for the award, it is required to work on a certain program which meets the objectives of the award continuously and the evidence of achievement regarding the program is required (Benesse, 2004; MEXT, n.d.c, n.d.d.).

Clearly, course objectives were focused heavily on content learning rather than grammatical learning. In fact, both teachers commented that grammatical errors would not be reflected in their grading, even though they have noted inaccurate use of English in students' answers on tests or assignments.

1.3 *Course Materials*

Both Geography and Sociology had assigned textbooks, which were *The New Wider World* (Waugh, 2003) and *Sociology A Brief Introduction* (Schaefer, n.d.), *Introduction to Sociology* (Tischeler, 2004) respectively, for eight weeks. In terms of authenticity of materials, it was maintained in both courses, because they were not intended for non-native English speaking people. Supplemental materials in the Geography class included worksheets related to the textbook, an educational video regarding geographical features such as formation of a meander, mechanism of floods, journey from the source of the river down to the mouth, historical event, and satellite photographs of cities or geographical features. In the Sociology class, printed supplemental handouts about recent statistics from the national center for education in the U.S. and FBI regarding school violence, school crime and poverty were used and a BBC documentary about bullying was introduced to students.

2. Participants

In the current study, 44 Geography students, 32 Sociology students, and two EFL teachers (both native English speakers) teaching CBI classes in the program at a college participated.

2.1 *Students*

A total of 76 Japanese sophomore college students majoring in English from two CBI classes participated. According to the university profile, this represents more than half of the 149 sophomore students enrolled in the department.

Regarding students' English proficiency level, 40 students provided their ITP TOEFL and TOEIC scores, revealing average scores of 447 and 515 respectively. Both teachers judged students' English abilities as intermediate and

stated that all aspects of their English abilities (i.e., listening, speaking, reading and writing) needed a lot more improvement.

According to the department program requirements, the participants developed their basic English skills during the first year of college because they had completed skill-based English courses such as Listening Skills, Oral English I and II, Reading I and II, Eisakubun (English composition), and Vocabulary Building I and II in the previous two semesters. During their second year of study they were taking more required courses, such as English Grammar, Study Skill II, and Assembly II. Other classes offered at the department for such students were either electives or complementary courses, including CBI courses which run for a total of 90 minutes per week.

Information about student participants was gathered through questionnaires described below. Their average age was 20.1 years, ranging from 19 to 41 years. In addition, on average each student had spent 8.6 years learning English with a range from 7 to 14 years. Regarding English use in their daily life, most students expressed that they had limited exposure to English outside of class; 36 reported rarely or almost never using English outside of their classes. Only one student reported using English more than five days a week outside of classes. Given their average age, years of English learning and frequency of using English outside class, it appears to be the case that most students' English experiences began in Junior high school or a bit earlier and were restricted to English classes at school and secondary education. In addition, concerning their secondary school education, 74.8% of students reported receiving grammar or translation-oriented instruction followed by integrated skills (12.5%), communication (10.7%), and CBI (1.7%). Taken together, most students can be considered form-oriented learners based on their previous EFL instruction.

2.2 *Teachers*

The two full-time teachers, one female and male, who participated in the study are both native English speakers, on from Canada and the other from the U.S. One possessed a Master of Science degree in Environment Management and the other a Ph.D. in Anthropology. Their length of stay in Japan ranged from 14 to

18 years and both had over 12 years of experience teaching English at either the secondary or post-secondary level. However, experience in teaching CBI classes varied from less than one year to 12 years. In addition to Sociology and Geography, at the time of the study the teachers were also teaching Oral English, Japanese Culture, Anthropology I and II, Graded Reading I and II, Study Skill I and II, and Intercultural Communication.

3. Procedures

This exploratory and observational study focused not only on the nature of CBI classrooms (e.g., how content was taught), but also on students' and teachers' perceptions of CBI classes. This was achieved through classroom observation, questionnaires and interviews with a mix-method design that brought quantitative and qualitative components together. The qualitative data, including information obtained from participants using open-ended questions in questionnaires and during interviews, were used to better understand the quantitative data obtained from questionnaires and classroom observation.

3.1 *Instruments*

3.1.1 *Classroom observations*

Both audio- and video-taping were used to identify the ways in which lessons were delivered using various types of instructional strategies to enhance students' comprehension of content. I intended to use the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) coding scheme (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995) in order to record activity types. However, the classes were lecture-oriented with few interactions between teachers and students and the modality of learning was mainly focused on listening. Therefore, it was not relevant to measure the extent to which the mother tongue and target language were used, teacher talk and student talk, and modality of instructional activities. For this reason, the grid was not employed. Instead, I took field notes about what participants said and also noted my own thoughts and interpretations.

3.1.2 *Questionnaires*

I developed questionnaires for both students and teachers (see Appendices A and B) by drawing on previous CBI studies including immersion contexts (e.g., Lyster, 2007) and referring to form-focused instruction (FFI) in various contexts with various students (e.g., Lyster, 1998a, 2004b; Yoshida, 2008). The questionnaires were then modified based on both student and teacher behaviors observed on the first day of classroom observation.

The questions elicited demographic information, both factual (e.g., age, gender) and behavioral (e.g., previous teaching practice, experience living abroad), and also attitudinal information (i.e., perceptions of CBI) through multiple choice, four-point-Likert scale[4], numeric items (i.e., years of previous teaching experience) as well as open-ended questions. Eight out of 23 questions were open-ended questions used to explore reasons behind the quantitative responses.

3.1.3 *Interviews*

Similar to the process of developing questions for questionnaires, ten interview questions (see Appendix C) were developed by referring to previous CBI studies (e.g., Brinton et al., 2004; Lyster, 2007). Semi-structured audio-recorded interviews were employed to provide interviewees with some flexibility and variation in their responses (Punch, 2009). Although a set of guiding questions was prepared in advance, it was used only as a guideline. When I wanted interviewees to clarify responses, I prompted them to explain what they stated or asked them a follow-up question. The data set from these interviews was used mainly to clarify teaching strategies used in CBI, to elicit information about difficulties or differences between CBI and other English courses, and to evaluate the effectiveness of the program for Japanese students who need to improve various aspects of their English abilities.

[4] The reason for a 4 point-Likert scale is that Japanese students may be more likely than North American groups to use the midpoint on the scale (Chen, Lee, & Stevenson, 1995) if an odd-numbered scale is used.

3.1.4 *General procedure*

The research was conducted over a period of four weeks with classroom observations in two different subject matter classes (90 minutes × 5 classes) using digital video recordings. To do this, I placed a voice recorder on a platform that was in front of the black board. I was an 'unobtrusive' (Patton, 2002, p. 291) observer and took some field notes on both students' and teachers' remarks, and also notes, diagrams, and pictures presented by the teachers on the blackboard. I also noted both students' and teachers' behavior that could be interesting to explore in future questionnaires and interviews.

Following the last day of the observation, interviews were conducted with two teachers and questionnaires from both students and teachers were administered. This was done at the end of my research to avoid a situation where students and teachers' behavior in class could have been affected by knowing the questions asked in the questionnaires and interviews.

4. Data Analysis

4.1 *Coding Procedure*

In this section, the ways in which data from classroom observations, questionnaires, and interviews analyzed are outlined.

4.1.1 *Classroom observations*

In the first phase, in order to grasp the characteristics of the classes broadly, the instructional time devoted to each teaching activity (e.g., lectures, teacher-student [T-S] interaction, tasks from textbook or work sheets, student presentation and other) was measured by using the counter on the audio recorder. After calculating the time span for each teaching activity, I conducted descriptive statistics using frequency counts. Following this analysis, the number of words spoken by students and teachers in class were counted, because time span alone may overestimate the number of words spoken in an activity if frequent pausing occurs.

In the second phase, instructional strategies were categorized and quantified into three main groups: language-related instructional strategies, non-

linguistic instructional strategies, and a combination of these two instructional strategies. The classification was based on the data obtained in the current study.

In the third phase, student output was analyzed. First, types of students' production were identified and the extent to which teachers encouraged students' production was also analyzed by identifying types of question asked by teachers. Teacher moves eliciting answers when students made mistakes or did not respond to teachers were also examined.

Data sets from the two classes were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. For qualitative analyses (i.e., cases of "pushing"), discourse analysis was conducted, while all the numeric data (e.g., time span for class components, number of language-related instructional strategies, non-linguistic instructional strategies and combination of language-related and non-linguistic instructional strategies, numbers of questions asked by teachers) were analyzed using descriptive statistics, specifically, using frequency counts.

4.1.2 *Questionnaires*

To quantify the questionnaire data, I conducted descriptive statistics using frequency counts. Responses from open-ended questions were used to complement the quantitative data by illuminating the reasons behind responses to the Likert-scale questions.

4.1.3 *Interviews*

The interviews were first transcribed and their contents were classified into themes. Only relevant questions that provided insight into teachers' behavior in class and their perceptions expressed in a questionnaire were selected.

4.2 *Coding Categories*

4.2.1 *Characteristics of CBI Classes*

4.2.1.1 *Proportion of each classroom activity*

Based on the data set from classroom observations, lessons were divided into six main components, including the time span of tasks, video, T-S interaction, student presentations, lectures, and others. Specifically, tasks indicate activities

from either the textbook or worksheets. T-S interaction includes (a) informal interactions that were irrelevant to the subject matter in class, (b) instructional directive interactions, and (c) content learning interactions. Student presentation indicates a group presentation. Lecture indicates a teacher monologue, excluding tasks, videos, student presentation, interactions between T-S and other. Other indicates time span for confirmation checks without students' responses and teachers' questions followed by no student response.

4.2.1.2 *The amount of teacher-talk vs. student-talk*

In order to verify the amount of teacher's input and students' output, the total number of words produced by teachers and students in class were compared.

4.2.2 *Input*

4.2.2.1 *Language- related instructional strategies*

Language-related instructional strategies were classified into three main groups (i.e., repetition, explanation, and examples) and were then further sub-divided, as outlined next along with examples from the present study.

Repetition of:

Questions

T: So how about precipitation? **Which box would precipitation go in?**

Answers

S: Two.

T: **Two.** OK. Yes, all right. So, evaporation would be seen in the **number two.**

Vocabulary

T: OK, so…next part… was Deltas. **Deltas.**

Expressions

T: OK, so this idea of shame… the victims…that feel shame is very very sad, because it means that somehow, a…they feel…they deserve such…a…such treatment…, which is **really really sad.**

Explanations

T: And a... they were tried /---/ to.. get Japan…a… to introduce peer support. And it worked quite well in England. OK? **It worked very well in England.**

Procedural directives

T: I would like you to look at question 6 which is page 298, **page 298** of your book there is question 6 and.. don't worry about B part, just A …, I would like you just to try that a little bit to refresh your memory of different parts of a river. (Writes ***⑥a*** *on board*). So **6a** you can just write for example write the letters in your book. If you look at the diagram in **question 6** you can see mountains, valley, flat plain, and of course river in the middle of it.

Previously learned items in previous classes

T: **So last time at the beginning also previously we talked about the hydrologic cycle, the water cycle.**

Explanations of:

Vocabulary

T: So V-shaped valleys are **where the river is cutting down into the rock and leaving shape like a V.**

Concepts (i.e., The teacher gives explanation of a process, formation, mechanism, effects of something)

T: You can think of it more simply**,** as just the valley sides /---/ the river are steep. So again, water...flows more quickly of course. **If you have steep. OK… This is steep , if it's steep water will go very quickly.**

Video

T: OK. So **this introduces us to the idea of floods and how they happen and what can be done or what cannot be done to prevent them.**

Examples of:

Vocabulary

T: ***Barato*** river is really /---/ ox-bow lake.

Concepts (i.e., use of proper names or similar or typical situations for illustration)

T: For example **the *Ishikari* river.** If you go into *Taisetsu* mountains, rivers are not very wide, but they look very fast there are many rapids might see waterfalls. But when it gets closer for example to Sapporo, the river is very wide, meanders doesn't look so fast.

4.2.2.2 *Non-linguistic instructional strategies*[5]

Five non-linguistic instructional strategies were identified (i.e., use of gestures, drawing, showing, writing, and video) and are outlined next along with examples from the present study.

Gestures (i.e., use of hand and body movements)

T: So, for example, if I want to walk through **straight *(*gesture)**, down here. I want to walk **straight (gestures)**, **I am going to walk but when I come here, I cannot continue to walk. There is something in my way, so I will be diverted** (**gestures**) OK? **I'm walking straight/---/ something here I can go this way (gestures)**. It means to…change… the course that it takes (shows the drawing on the board). Divert means to **move away (gestures).**

Drawing (i.e., use of chalk and the blackboard)

T: So, Delta is where the river come up…so, (**draws *'Delta' on board***). You remember that…the mouth of the river (**draws *a picture of delta on board***) is where the river meets the sea….so every river has a mouth somewhere whether/---/ to the sea or lake… /---/ Smaller rivers usually mouth is not so big but big rivers such as the Mississippi river…because there is so much water…coming over such a flat area (gestures).

[5] When the number of occurrences was counted, one occurrence was regarded as one time rather than considering a length of one occurrence. For instance, 2 min video clip and 30 min video clip were both considered as one occurrence. Writing one single word and one sentence were also both one occurrence.

Writing[6] (i.e., use of chalks and the blackboard)

T: OK. Bullying and victims' situation dynamics (**writes *'Bully-victims Dynamics' on board***). OK. Dynamics in other words, when I talk about dynamics, I am talking about interaction, right? I am talking about what's going on (**gestures**). OK. What's going on..between the bully and the person who is bullied (**gestures**).

Video (i.e., use of projector)

The teacher shows short clips which explain vocabulary or concepts as well as long documentaries which explain a whole topic discussed in class. In addition, sometimes a still image of a video was used by a teacher to explain a word or concept.

Showing (i.e., teacher points to the textbook, worksheet, handout, drawing or text on the board so that students can see what the teacher is verbally explaining).

T: And I gave you a handout on this today. Ah…it's called 'safe'. And it's students against violence everywhere. OK? Students against violence. (**holds up the handout**).

4.2.2.3 *Combination of strategies*

Following the respective language-related and non-linguistic instructional strategy analysis, I analyzed several combinations of language-related and non-linguistic instructional strategies that occurred simultaneously. There was a total of 35 different combinations; the most frequent of these will be reported on in the next chapter.

4.2.3 *Output*

4.2.3.1 *Students' overall production*

Words or phrases produced by students were quantified then classified into four categories: comments on teacher talk, on content, on instructional directives, and on topics irrelevant to content.

[6] Writing was categorized into non-linguistic instructional strategies because writing words or sentences on the board entailed visual components.

4.2.3.2 *Types of teachers' questions*

Types of questions were divided into five groups by referring to some previous studies (e.g., Lyster, 2007; Musumeci, 1996; Wong-Fillmore, 1985). These include: questions on content, questions on instructional directives, pseudo questions, comprehension questions, and asking for agreement.

Content questions:

T: How about surface runoff?

Procedural questions:

T: Are you finished?

Pseudo questions (used to move the topic along without encourage students to respond; see Wong-Fillmore, 1985)

T: So, B2 where else may surface water be stored? On the surface, ice, snow, rivers, lakes. Of course the other yellow box stored as ground water, so that would just be ground water.

Comprehension questions

T: Do you understand? Is that OK?

Asking for agreement

T: If you have to target the region, it would be the south. Right?

4.2.3.3 *Teachers' pushing*

Teachers' pushing immediately after students' mistakes or clarification. In order to comprehend the ways teachers interact with students and the extent to which they encourage students to produce English in class, some examples of "pushing" were explored.

Teachers' pushing immediately after students' non-responses. Cases of "pushing" following students' non-responses were also explored and the focus of the analysis was to investigate types of strategies used by teachers when faced with a students' non-response. Four types of teacher strategies employed immediately following student non-responses were identified: (a) providing (i.e., examples, explanation, comments, questions), (b) changing topic, (c) pushing students to retrieve prior knowledge, and (d) writing down.

Providing examples:

T: How about divert? How about divert? Can you understand this?

S: (*Silence)*

T: So, for example, if I want to walk through straight down here, I want to walk straight, I am going to walk but when I come here, I cannot continue to walk, there is something in my way, so I will be diverted.

Providing explanations:

T: Anybody know?

S: (*Silence*)

T: You get so much water coming into the water, and it gets very high, and covers a wider area.

Providing comments:

T: Does anybody understand pollution?

S: (*Silence*)

T: I think this is really common word.

Changing topic:

T: In which box would condensation occur? One two three four five or six? Remember condensation usually happens where… cold air meets warm air, so the water in the warm air… when it meets the cold air… can come back to being liquid water. Which box do you think would show condensation? Any takers? One two three four five six?

S: (*Silence*)

T: OK. Let's try another one then.

Repeat questions including reformulated questions: The teacher asks a reformulated question again after the silence to give students a chance to answer.

Example 37

T: How about meander? How about meander?

S: (*Silence*)

T: Which one is the meander?

Pushing students to retrieve prior knowledge:

T: How about…let's see one that's not so difficult. How about surface

runoff? Which one do you think would be surface runoff?

S: (*Students are mumbling*)

T: Remember, rivers are example of surface runoff, so when water is running over the surface of the land down toward the earth.

Writing down (i.e., on the blackboard):

T: Do you understand Fertilizers?

S: (*Silence*)

T: (***writes*** *"fertilizers" on board*)

4.2.4 *Perceptions*

4.2.4.1 *Students' questionnaire*

The students' questionnaire (see Appendix A) was composed of 23 questions, grouped into the following six categories: motivation toward the class, uniqueness of the class, class expectations, comprehension, production, effective teaching strategies and preferences. Each category will be analyzed and only categories directly related to the study will be presented.

4.2.4.2 *Teachers' questionnaire*

The teachers' questionnaire (see Appendix C) included 24 questions that were classified into six categories: content vs. language, provision of input, T-S interaction, students' comprehension, students' production, and students' preferences. Similarly, each category will be analyzed and only categories directly relevant to the study will be presented.

4.2.5 *Interviews*

The interviews were first transcribed and then their contents were classified into 17 themes[7]. Although both teachers kindly shared their thoughts by expanding on my questions (see Appendix D), only content directly related to the study will be presented in order to back up the quantitative data from questionnaires and teachers' behaviors in class.

[7] See Appendix D

5. Summary

In this chapter, I presented the methodology for the current study. In particular, I provided background information on the context and participants as well as the procedure and coding categories used for data analysis. I gave detailed explanations regarding the analysis categories to make the study transparent. As qualitative approaches "rely on the vividness and logic of researchers' descriptions and inferences as confirmation of the validity of the descriptions" (Chaudron, 1988, p.23), detailed explanation of coding categories is necessary for the reliability and validity of the study. In the next chapter, I report on the results of the coding procedure

Chapter 4
RESULTS

This chapter presents the quantitative and qualitative results yielded by the classroom observations and the questionnaire data. The classroom observation data were categorized and quantified in accordance with the coding scheme presented in the previous chapter. The questionnaire data were classified into themes and will be presented qualitatively to complement the classroom observational data.

1. Communicative Orientation of CBI Classrooms

1.1 *Proportion of Each Classroom Activity*

Given the predominance of a teacher-led lecture format, student talk was rare, both in terms of the average time spent on different activities and in the number of words spoken by students and teachers. Regarding time spent on different activities, lectures accounted for 63.6% of class time, while teacher-student interaction accounted for only 1.5% of class time. Watching video was the second greatest use of class time, at 15.7%. The proportions for tasks (9.4%) and student presentations (6.8%) were similar to each other although student presentation was observed in only one out of five classes.

1.2 *The Amount of Teacher-talk vs. Student-talk*

The number of words spoken by teachers and students was calculated, confirming that the classrooms were heavily teacher controlled and students seldom produced English in class. Teachers uttered a total of 25,944 words whereas students uttered only 1,842 words (1,763 of which were spoken during a group presentation). Important to mention is that, when they spoke, both teachers and students focused mainly on subject matter rather language. In fact, grammatical teaching in CBI classes was not detected at all.

2. Input

2.1 *Instructional Strategies*

In order to investigate what accounted for the large proportion of teacher talk, teacher utterances were closely analyzed, revealing that both teachers employed various instructional strategies to scaffold student comprehension mainly of course content. These strategies can be divided into two groups, as defined in the preceding chapter: language-related and non-linguistic instructional strategies.

2.1.1 *Language-related instructional strategies*

Language-related instructional strategies were classified as either repetition, explanation, or examples. Table 1 shows that repetition (*n* = 585) was the most frequently employed strategy among language-related instructional strategies. Specifically, both vocabulary and explanations were often repeated.

Explanations (*n* = 114) were the next most frequently used language-related instructional strategy. More than 69% of the explanations were about vocabulary (*n* = 79) and these ranged from one-word explanations such as synonyms (e.g., 'interaction' for the explanation of 'dynamics'), to whole sentences used to define word. (e.g., "V-shaped valleys are where the river is cutting down into the rock and leaving shape like a V").

Examples (*n* = 34) were not used as frequently as the other two strategies. However, according to my observations and analyses, in these classrooms, examples were seemingly used to extend information or to support explanations. When specific terminology or concepts related to the subject matter were introduced, one teacher in particular provided locally-based examples that students might be familiar with in order to help them connect this new material to the real world. As with explanations, around 64.7% (22/34) of the examples were provided for vocabulary teaching purposes.

Table 1

Number of Occurrences of Frequently Used Language-related Instructional Strategies

Repetition (*n* = 585)	
Questions	37
Answers	54
Vocabulary	207
Expressions	2
Explanations	194
Procedural directives	52
Previously learned items in previous class	39
Explanation (*n* = 114)	
Vocabulary	79
Principles	13
Video[8]	22
Examples (*n* = 34)	
Vocabulary	22
Principles	12

2.1.2 *Non-linguistic instructional strategies*

The 594 observed instances of non-linguistic instructional strategies were classified, from most to least frequent, as gestures (*n* = 228), showing (*n* = 159), writing (*n* = 108), drawing (n = 82), and video (*n* = 17).

[8] It was provided in English regardless of language use in video.

Most gestures were hand gestures. They often accompanied verbs, nouns, adjectives, and prepositions in order to describe quantity (e.g., *full* of water, *all* of that rain, and attack you *more*), size (e.g., *small, big, wide*), position (e.g., *up, down, bottom, into, under, around, and over*), movement (e.g., *fall down, take away, flow through, and move back*), gradient (*flat, steep*), speed (e.g., *quickly, fast*), shape (*V, U*) and certain lexical items (e.g., *slope, tunnel, flood, plain, meet, take, hurt, damaged, dam, priority, escalate, weak, agreement, and cell phone*).

According to my observations, drawing was effective for explaining transformations or relationships between things (e.g., drawing a lower water level in a cup to illustrate evaporation). Showing seemed helpful to reinforce teacher talk and scaffold students who may have had difficulty keeping up with the pace of the lessons. Teachers employed textbooks, textbook related handouts, worksheets, photos on the screen, drawings on the board, or writing on the board; however, textbooks were used most frequently. In both showing and drawing, teachers tended to rely frequently on demonstrative adjectives such as *this* and *these* and deictic adverbs such as *here* (e.g., while drawing an arrow, a teacher said, "The water is coming *this* way").

Writing was often used to confirm answers, introduce vocabulary, and organize key points. Words written on the board were often single words or phrases, rather than complete sentences, possibly because this was an effective technique for presentation or due to time constraints. Finally, video seemed to be successful when introduced to students in both classes by not only helping to facilitate students' comprehension of the content presented but also by drawing students' attention to the lesson, regardless of the language (English or Japanese) or length of the video.

2.1.3 *Combination of non-linguistic and language-related instructional strategies*

Similar to findings of language-related instructional strategies, the number of occurrences of repetition in combination with other non-linguistic instructional strategies (n = 142) was the most frequent, followed by explanations (n = 95) and examples (n = 18).

When teachers explained vocabulary (*n* = 54), repeated explanations (*n* = 42), and repeated answers (*n* = 38), non-linguistic instructional strategies were often employed at the same time. As stated earlier in the analysis of language–related instructional strategies, repetition of vocabulary (see Table 1) occurred most frequently, whereas in the analysis of non-linguistic instructional strategies, gestures occurred most frequently. However, as Table 2 shows, the combination of repetition of vocabulary and gestures (*n* = 3) rarely occurred. The most frequently used combination was explanation of vocabulary and gestures (*n* = 29) followed by repetition of answers and writing (*n* = 28).

Table 2

Number of Occurrences of Frequently Used Combinations of Language-related Instructional strategies and Non-linguistic Instructional Strategies

	Gestures	Drawing	Writing	Showing
Repetition (*n* = 142)				
Questions	0	0	0	2
Answers	6	2	28	2
Vocabulary	3	1	8	6
Expressions	0	0	0	0
Explanations	22	5	10	15
Procedural directives	0	0	3	10
P.L.I. in the previous class	7	5	6	1
Explanation (*n* = 95)				
Vocabulary	29	7	9	9
Concepts	5	1	1	5
Video[9]	15	1	4	9
Examples (*n* = 18)				
Vocabulary	5	1	0	4
Concepts	5	1	0	2

An interesting observation was the tendency not to combine gestures and complex key words. For example, when a teacher mentioned *erosion*, gestures

[9] It was provided in English regardless of language use in video.

were not employed; however, when the teacher explained the term by using related synonyms such as *break down* and *fall away*, gestures were used. Similarly, when a teacher said *condensation*, gestures were absent; however, when the teacher provided an example explaining the word, gestures were employed:

> /~/ for example, if this room is very hot and it's cold outside, on the window, you might start to get some like steam (Gesture) and then maybe water drops (Gesture). This is condensation.

Thus, repetition of vocabulary was not accompanied by gestures (n = 3), whereas repetition of explanation was (n = 29).

Additionally, for some language-related instructional strategies, certain non-linguistic instructional strategies were employed in particular. For example, in repetition of questions, only showing (n = 2) was used, in repetition of answers, writing (n = 28) was frequently used, and in repetition of instructional directives, showing (n = 10) and writing (n = 3) were used.

3. Output

3.1 *Students' Overall Production*

Students seldom spoke up in classes, as shown in Table 3. Aside from the class in which students gave presentations, only 79 utterances were spoken. Among the words, 20 were Japanese, while 59 were English. The shortest utterances were English letters such as "G" or "F"; the longest utterance was the phrase "side on the river," which was a repetition of a previous teacher utterance. Fourteen utterances were students' comments on teacher talk, such as [Fuun, (*I see*)], [Zenzen chigau, (*My answers are so different*)], [Oh, (*Wow*)], I am happy, [Oh! (*Wow!*)], and [Eh-? (Really?)], [Mondai Wakannai, (*I do not understand the questions*)], and [Nanka yoku wakannai, (*I do not understand it very well*)]. Sixty-seven words – for example, "Four," "Flood," and "V-shaped valley" – were produced within T-S interaction that focused on content. Moreover, there were two cases of instructional directives, "Is it one?" and "Just one?" The rest of the words occurred in informal T-S interaction not relevant to content.

There are two important points to note. First, I only documented student talk that occurred in front of the whole class. Students had also asked questions concerning content and instructional directives to a teacher who was circulating throughout class while the students were working. Second, student talk on informal topics irrelevant to subject matter seldom occurred in front of the whole class. The exceptions were greetings at the end of each lesson, and one accident in which a student dropped her electric dictionary on her foot during a lecture. This indicates that, throughout five classes, teachers did not stray from the topic of the lessons. Classes focused primarily on subject matter from the beginning of class to the end of class.

Table 3

Utterances Spoken by Students in Class[10]

Hmm. /Is it One? Just one? / Four. / [Go.] / Two. / Three. / Six. / Stored./ No./ [Fuun.] / [Ko-zui.] / [Ko-zui.] / Flood. / Thank you. / [Iwareta.] / [Mondai Wakannai.] / [Zenzen chigau.] / [Nanka yoku wakannai.]/ G? / C. / H. / F. / [Oh.] / I am happy. / E. / Side of the river? / O. / I. / [Oh!] / [eh?] / L? / V-shaped valley. / Nothing. Nothing. / [Hazukashii.] / [Eh-?] / D / Effect. / Effect. / Effect. / Thank you. / Bye see you. / Thank you. / [Ite. Itai.] / [Daijoubu desu.] / Yes. / Danger to people. / Unpleasant smell. / Unsightly. / [Hidoi.] / What is [hidoi]? / [Kankyo.]

3.2 *Types of Teachers' Questions*

During the five observed classes, the number of *content questions* was 80, that of *pseudo questions* was 14, that of *procedural questions* was 24, and that of *comprehension questions* was 37. The prevalent characteristic, found in all of the questions, was that students were not required to produce sentences to respond. Instead, it seemed that students were urged to say English letters or words such as "G" and "Yes," or short phrases such as "V-shaped valley," "Unpleasant smell," and "danger to people." Above all, *pseudo questions* did not require students to produce English at all. Upon first hearing them, *pseudo questions* seemed to be

[10] The words do not include those produced in a group presentation. More importantly, words produced by students who did not consent to audio-taping were excluded.

questions that teachers asked in order to elicit an answer. However, when studied further, it was noted that there was no silence after the questions were asked. Students were not given time to respond. It seems that teachers, in asking these questions, did not intend to elicit responses. Similarly, asking for agreement did not require students to respond either. According to classroom observations, students simply listened to the teacher talk without responding or they just nodded or shook their heads rather than producing language. From these results, it seems that some types of questions did not provide students with opportunities for output practice.

3.3 *Teachers' Pushing*

For the most part, questions asked by teachers did not seem to require students to produce English using their own words. However, sometimes teachers made an effort to elicit students' answers and to encourage participation when students either made mistakes or did not respond to the question.

Teachers' pushing immediately after students' mistakes or clarification.

Throughout the observed classes, there were only three examples of the teachers "pushing" their students. Below in Example 1, in turn 3, a student said "V-shaped valley," which was the wrong answer. The teacher did not immediately provide the correct answer. Instead, the teacher conveyed negative feedback by uttering "Hmm..." This allowed the student to recognize that the answer was incorrect. The teacher pushed the student by providing a hint, "V-shaped valley comes a little bit earlier in the river," in order to elicit a different answer from the student or from other students. However, since the student who made the mistake was embarrassed, the teacher ended up giving the answer, and did not push students further.

Example 1

1. T: What is L?
2. S: L?
3. S: V-shaped valley.
4. T: Hmm…
5. Ssame: Nothing. Nothing.

6. T: V-shaped valley comes a little bit earlier in the river.

7. Ssame: [Hazukashii.] (*I'm ashamed.*)

8. T: That's OK. So *L* looks kind of like a wall… next to the river…remember.what things look like walls next to the river? You kind of miss….OK so levée. L is levée. OK? The kind of wall on the side of the river. OK, how about well…so v-shaped valley? Actually *A* will be where V-shaped valley is.

9. S: [Eh-?]

In Example 2, even after a student answered correctly, the teacher asked a further question concerning the meaning of a word. Then, the teacher pushed twice to elicit an answer from students (in turns 6 and 8). The teacher provided multiple chances for students to answer one question. In other words, students were given more opportunities for production than was usual during T-S exchanges.

Example 2

1. T: Any others?

2. S: Unsightly.

3. T: Unsightly. All right. Very good. So also on the left side. Unsightly, near the bottom. What does this mean, unsightly?

5. Ssame: [Hidoi.] (*Awful.*)

6. T: OK. What is [hidoi] (*awful*)?

7. Ssame What is [hidoi] (*awful*)?

8. T: Something is bad. What is bad?

9. S: [Kankyo.] (*Environment*.)

10. T: Ah…OK. In this case, if you look at this *sight* means see, what you can see is very ugly basically. A more simple way to put it would be ugly. Unsightly.

In Example 3, the interaction occurred during a pause in the viewing of a video about a flood. From turns 1 to 5, the teacher tried to elicit the word 'flood' by asking a total of six questions providing hints explaining floods in turn 1. A student answered correctly and, in turn 7, the teacher did not hear the answer or

wanted the student to say it in English. In turn 4, the same student repeated the answer again. Then, the teacher used an elicitation technique to prompt the student to answer in English. This was the only case in which a teacher forced students to respond in English throughout the observed classes.

Example 3

1. T: What were they showing there? What was happening? On those rivers? You can see the meanders, but then so where the river meandered was blue, then almost everything became blue. What's that called? Anybody know? You get so much water coming into the river and it gets very high, and covers a wider area. Do you know what that's called? Anybody?
2. S: [Ko-zui.] (*Flood.*)
3. T: Hmm?
4. Ssame: [Ko-zui.] (*Flood.*)
5. T: OK. Do you know what you call it in English?
6. Ssame: Flood.
7. T: Flood. OK. That's right. So flood. So this is perhaps the main reason why people make the river straight is to of course not to make more floods, but to avoid floods. So floods happen when the water level gets very high, the river flows over its banks and covers a much wider area. Only for a short period of time, but if people are living there, that's long enough to be a very big problem…for them.

Table 4

Type and Number of Teacher Moves Immediately Following Students' Non-responses

Providing (*n* = 10)	
Examples	1
Explanation	2
Comments	1
Questions	6
Changing topics (*n* = 3)	
Pushing students to retrieve prior knowledge (*n* = 2)	
Writing down (*n* = 4)	

Teachers' pushing immediately after students' non-responses. There were some cases in which students did not respond to the teachers' questions. Therefore, from time to time, teachers strove to help students reach an answer by providing examples, explanations, comments, and by questioning them. Teachers also pushed students to retrieve prior knowledge and to write down vocabulary or sentences (see Table 4). Five cases where teachers provided answers immediately after students' non-responses were excluded from analysis because they did not act as "pushing" insofar as students were not given chances to answer the questions again. Among six out of 19 cases, students were successful in providing correct answers. Two examples are presented below.

In Example 4, the students' non-response was evident in turn 2. Following the non-response, the teacher's first move was to repeat the question to elicit a

student's answer. Such a move provided wait time for students and, in this case, a student ultimately provided the correct answer (i.e., the letter 'I') in turn 5.

Example 4

1. T: How about a meander? How about a meander?
2. (*Silence*)
3. T: Which one is the meander? (Questions) I think all of you remember meanders are the places where river curves.
4. S: I
5. T: I. Yes, OK.

The following example is another successful elicitation of a student response. After some students mumbled (in turn 2), the teacher provided previously learned information to students to push students. Rather than providing the correct answer right away, the teacher allowed another opportunity for responding. This resulted in a student giving the correct answer, in turn 6. Although the student's answer was in Japanese, the teacher did not push for an English answer. Instead the teacher chose to restate the answer for the students in English.

Example 5

1.T: How about..let's see one that's not so difficult. How about surface runoff? Which one do you think would be surface runoff?
2. S: (*Mumbling*)
3. T: Remember rivers are example of surface runoff, so where water is running over the surface of the land down towards the earth.
4.S: (*One student responded to the question with lower voice*)
5. T: Yes?
6. S: [Go.] (*Five.*)
7. T: [Go.] (*Five.*) Five. OK.

4. Perceptions of CBI

4.1 *Students' Perceptions of CBI*

Students' perceptions of CBI were considered important, as perceptions may explain students' attitudes in class. For this reason, parts of the questionnaire data are reported below, taking into account the classroom observational data.

4.1.1 *Reactions toward CBI*

There are three notable findings that I would like to mention. First, as Figure 1 indicates, around one-third of the students expressed that their initial motivation for enrolling in the classes was because of their interest in the topic (*n* = 23) rather than for English improvement (*n* = 4) or improvement of both English and content knowledge (*n* = 6). Therefore, it seemed that, initially, CBI classes might not have attracted students who were most interested in improving their English proficiency.

Second, students' reactions seemed related to aspects of classroom activities. Most of the time was spent on lectures, which possibly made students think they had ample listening opportunities. However, they seldom had speaking practice in classes. Accordingly, the majority of students thought that their listening skills would improve (*n* = 55). Figure 2 also indicates that three students thought the classes would be helpful for improving their speaking.

Third, while just around half the students expressed that they sometimes did not understand English (see Figure 3), 95.1% (58 students) indicted they would recommend the class to incoming students for L2 improvement. Thus, even though the students did not understand classes perfectly, they thought that the classes were beneficial for language improvement. Similarly, while half the students felt that they sometimes did not understand the content (see Figure 3), 70.5% (43 students) thought they would be able to improve their content knowledge (see Figure 2). In particular, students felt visual representations expressed through multimedia, drawings, and gestures were more informative than verbal instructional strategies such as providing examples, repeating words or sentences, and giving definitions of words (see Figure 4). This finding was interesting, as it showed that students' perceptions did not necessarily match the

most commonly used instructional strategies in the classroom. In class, for language-related instructional strategies, repetition was the most commonly used instructional strategy by the teachers, while students did not think repetition was the most helpful strategy. Similarly, gestures were employed more frequently than drawing pictures, whereas students felt that the latter was more effective for content learning.

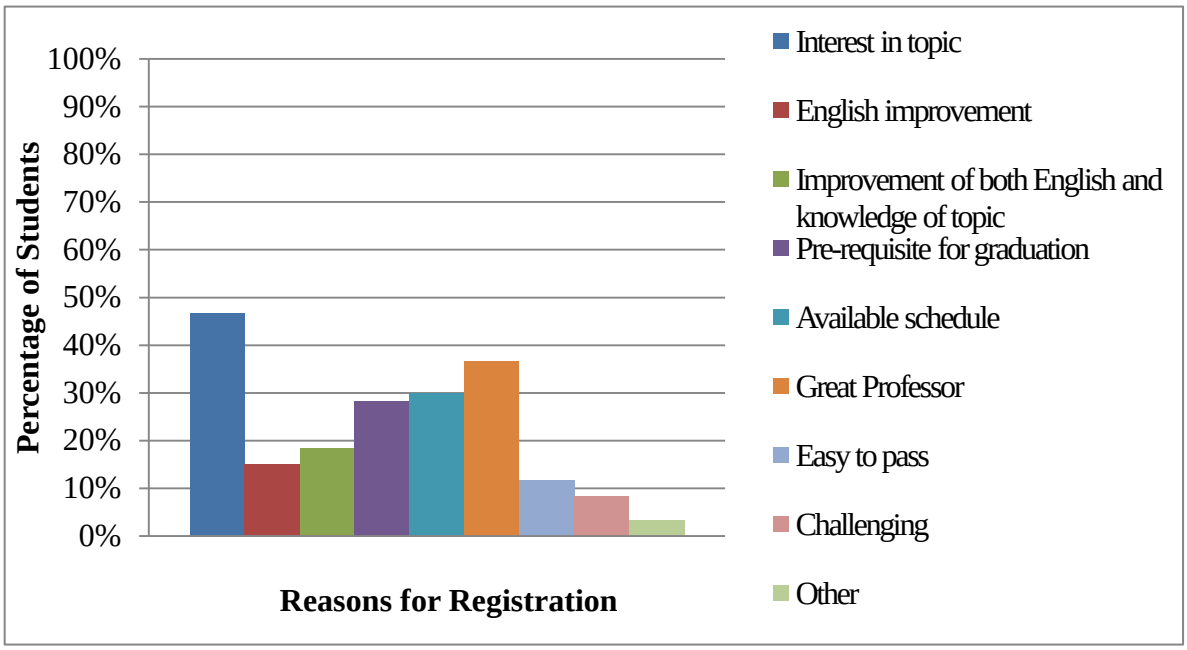

Figure 1. Reasons for Enrolling in the Course

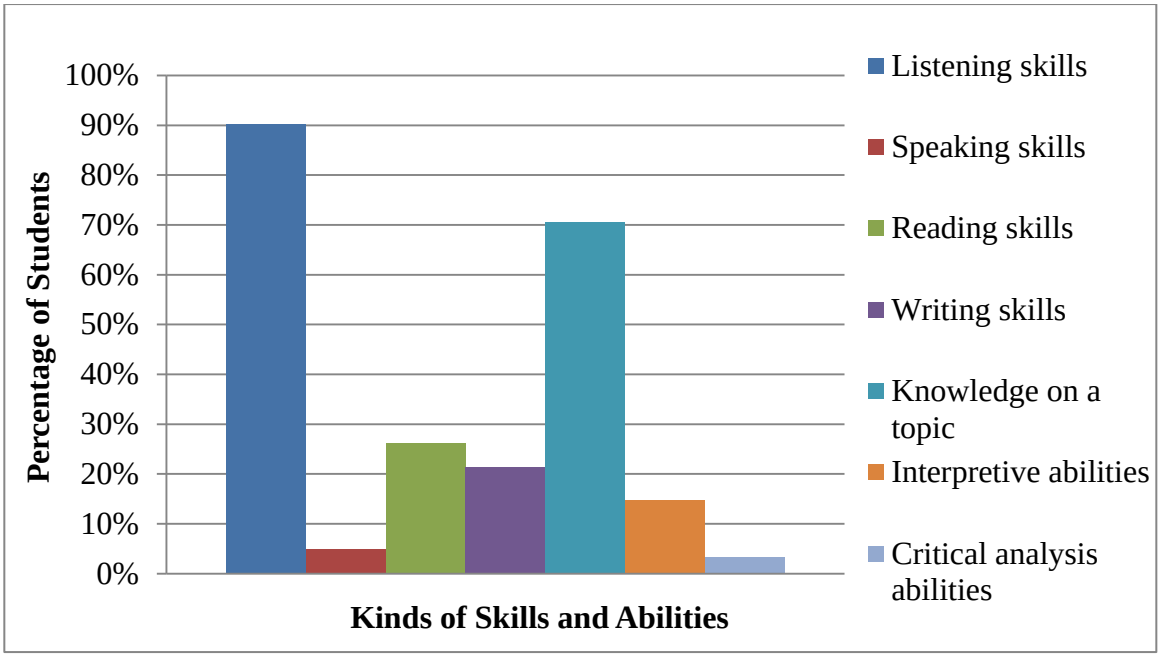

Figure 2. Skills and Abilities Students Expected to Improve in Class

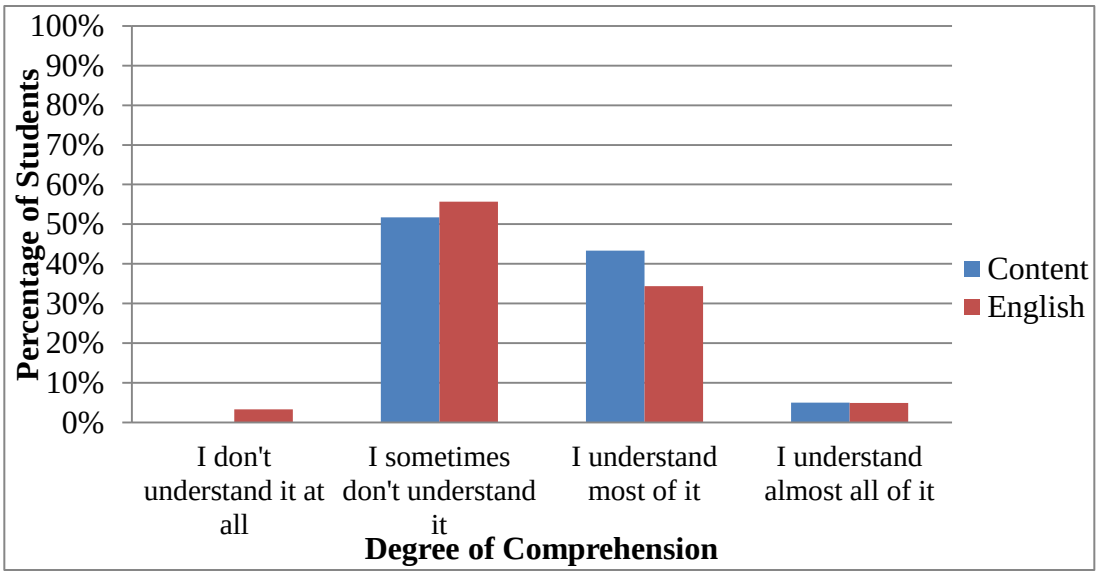

Figure 3. Students' Perceived Degrees of Comprehension of Content vs. English

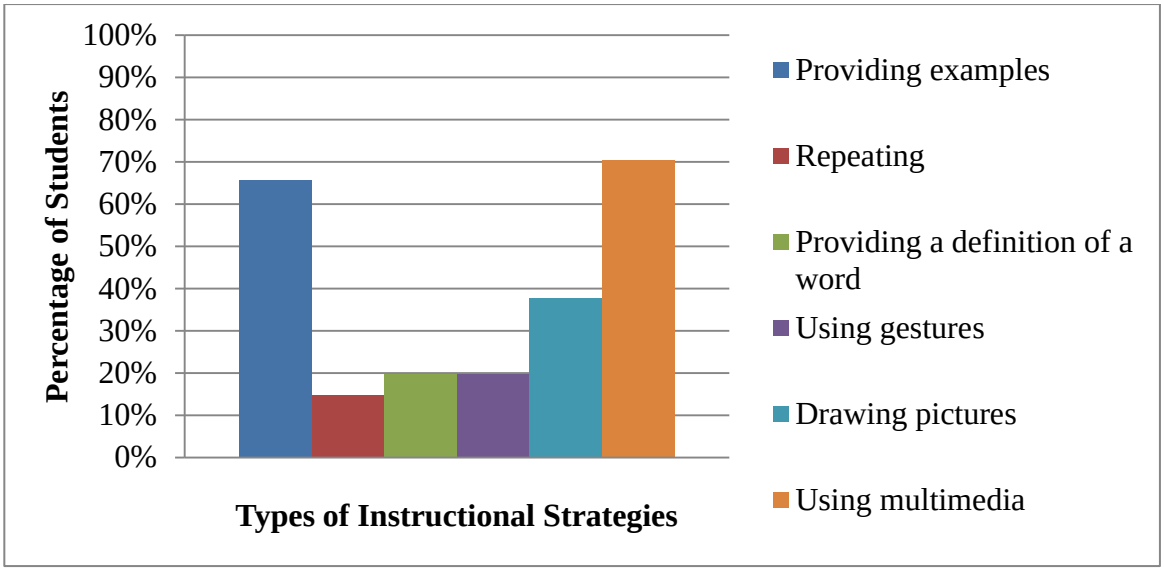

Figure 4. Effective Teaching Strategies for Content Learning Selected by Students

4.1.2 *Production in CBI*

In order to investigate why students did not choose speaking skills as targets for improvement in CBI classes, the ways in which students perceived production in class were closely analyzed. One notable point was that, even when students encountered a point they did not understand, many would not inquire about the point in front of the whole class. Instead, 33 students (54.1%) indicated that they would choose to research the information on their own (see Figure 5). Some students believe that the process of searching for answers by themselves helps them improve their English (n = 4), or they just do better when solving problems by themselves (n = 4) and can solve problems by consulting dictionaries (n = 8). This was unexpected for me, as I had predicted that students would raise more culturally related reasons, such as shyness (n = 1).

As seen in Table 5, 27 students expressed that the reasons that it was often (n = 16) or always (n = 11) difficult to speak up in class were not related to shyness. Instead, students put forth that it was lack of opportunities (n = 7) and the quiet atmosphere (n = 5) that resulted in their lack of production. Only 4 students felt shyness made it difficult for them to say something in front of the whole class.

Moreover, 41 students (67.2%) responded that they were 'never' embarrassed to make mistakes in class (see Table 6). Accordingly, embarrassment about making mistakes and difficulty in speaking in class may not necessarily be closely related to each other in this context.

In sum, questionnaire data revealed that shyness may not be the major reason for students producing only 79 words in class. From the students' perspectives, the small amount of production resulted from lack of opportunities and the atmosphere in class. That is, they tended to think that external rather than internal factors contributed to the results.

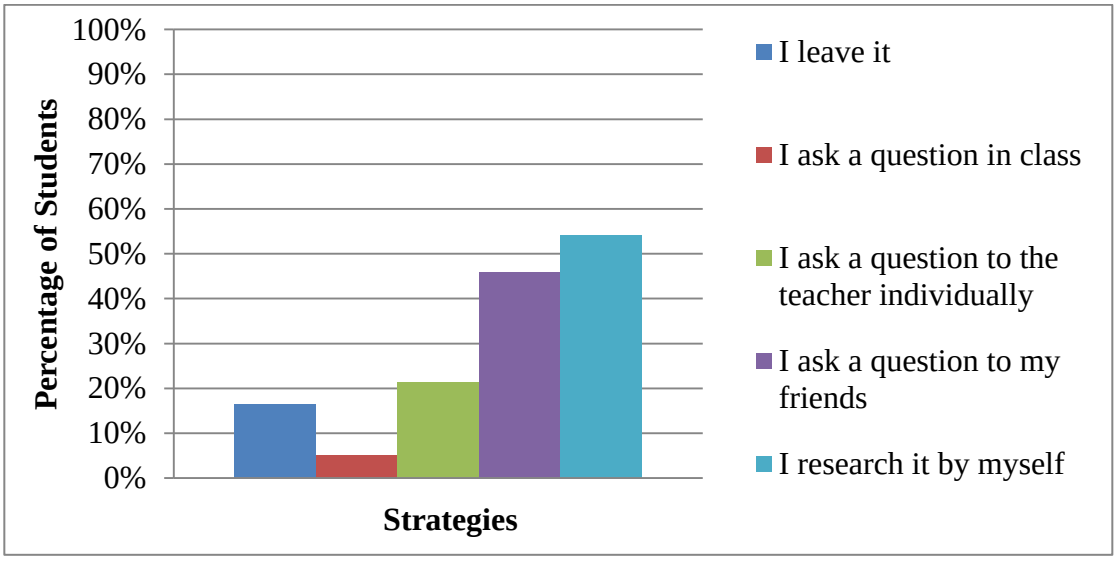

Figure 5. Students' Strategies for Overcoming Lack of Understanding

Table 5 *Frequency of Difficulty Speaking Up in Class*

Never	Sometimes	Often	Always
23.7%	16.9%	27.1%	18.6%

Table 6 *Frequency of Embarrassment to Make Mistakes in Class*

Never	Sometimes	Often	Always
67.2%	19.7%	6.6%	6.6%

4.2 *Teachers' perceptions of CBI*

Teachers' perceptions of CBI, as gathered from the questionnaire, will be presented by taking classroom observational data into account and by considering relevant data from the students' questionnaire.

4.2.1 *L2 learning in CBI*

Both teachers agreed that CBI is effective for L2 development. In interviews, one teacher stated, "Definitely I think so. I mean, I think teaching English for English's sake has its limits." Similarly, the other teacher stated, "I think it is effective for various reasons." One possible reason was that "they [the students] have to use the language, they have to be able to understand, they have to be able to express themselves through writing or speaking etcetera. So, I think it helps both definitely." However, the primary goal in CBI was content learning, thus learning English seemed to be treated, as one of the teachers commented, "not so much the goal, as a tool to achieve another goal."

The two teachers, like their students, believed that listening skills and knowledge of the subject matter would improve in class. However, both teachers selected responses indicating that they did not believe students' writing or speaking abilities would improve in CBI classes.

Again, this was in line with students' perceptions. Due to the predominant lecture format of class, it may be assumed that not only students, but also teachers, were aware that teachers mainly talked and students mainly listened.

One difference between teachers and students was that teachers selected critical analysis abilities to be learned, while few students selected it. However, it

is important to note that "not being selected" does not mean that students do not learn the ability. It is possible that students were not sure what it meant or they may have learned critical analysis unconsciously.

Regarding differences between the two teachers, one teacher selected reading ability, whereas the other teacher did not. I think the difference resulted from the observation that one class regularly used an assigned textbook, whereas the other class did not use a textbook.

4.2.2 *Interface of language and content teaching*

As seen in the classroom observation data, grammar teaching was not observed at all; rather, the focus of teaching was on content and both teachers had a shared perception that content learning was more important than form-focused language learning. One reason that teachers do not focus on both language and content at the same time is that it is challenging for them to do so. However, it may not always be the case, as one teacher's response showed disagreement. The teacher focused on content teaching, but not because of the difficulty of teaching content and language at the same time.

4.2.3 *Comprehensible input*

Both teachers agreed that providing comprehensible input is crucial. Whereas one teacher expressed knowledge of how to provide comprehensible input, the other did not, stating, "As it is my first experience teaching such a class, I am also learning as I go." However, in class, regardless of their perceptions about how to provide comprehensible input, both teachers provided extensive comprehensible input through their content-based instruction. Thus, both teachers knew how to provide comprehensible input, but one teacher just did not acknowledge it or perhaps was modest, having taught CBI classes for less than one year. In addition, their perceptions and the instructional strategies they presented were consistent. One teacher thought that effective instructional strategies for content learning included using visuals, videos, and providing locally-based examples. From observing his class, it was apparent that he used these instructional strategies in his teaching. Likewise, the other teacher thought

that using Japanese, repeating previously learned items, and providing different words or explanations were effective strategies for content learning. In her teaching, she used all of these strategies.

4.2.4 *Teacher-student interaction*

In class, since T-S interaction rarely occurred, I expected both teachers would perceive T-S interaction as not being important in CBI. However, the two teachers' perceptions were in opposition. One teacher disregarded the importance of teacher-student interaction, while the other stated "it helps the teacher know what the students are thinking / understanding and gives students an opportunity to practice implementing their new knowledge."

4.2.5 *Students' production*

Even though teachers disagreed on the importance of T-S interaction, both had positive attitudes toward the importance of student production in L2 development. This was also unexpected, considering the minimal amount of student talk in class. One teacher strongly agreed with the importance of students' production in class for language development, because "it shows students' depth of understanding and allows them to incorporate the learned ideas, vocabulary, etc. into their production of L2." The other did not select one of the given categories (ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree") to rank the importance of student production and instead wrote "perhaps" in the margin. Even though students had limited opportunities to produce English in class, it was interesting that teachers valued students' production. I think that the teachers' positive way of thinking was reflected in their teaching in class, because both tried to elicit students' answers by pushing or providing opportunities for group presentations.

4.2.5.1 *Effect of class size on students' production*

The size of the CBI classes seemed to affect the amount of opportunities for students' production. In the interview, one teacher stated that "they [the students] don't get that much of a chance to work on speaking in this class, partly because the numbers [of students] are so high"

4.2.5.2 *Effect of teachers' perceptions of Japanese students on students' production*

Teachers did not seem to have any expectations about how much students participate in class because Japanese students tend to be quite reserved. In the interview, one teacher commented that "they do not raise their hands or ask questions." In addition, the same teacher explained differences between Japanese and American students: "As you are probably aware, students in Japan tend to be reluctant to participate in class, which is unlike my experiences in the U.S."

4.2.6 *Students' comprehension*

Although students were not given opportunities in class to display their comprehension of the content through production of English, the teachers agreed that their students understood both content and English in CBI classes. One teacher shared that students' comments on attendance cards and assignments indicated that the "majority are able to understand acceptably well." That is, there is a mutual understanding between teachers and students, and both teachers acknowledge that CBI courses provide an appropriate degree of difficulty for students.

4.2.7 *Form-Focused Instruction (FFI)*

Due to lack of formal language teaching, it was understandable that one teacher did not answer the question about FFI in the questionnaire. The other teacher, however, agreed with the effectiveness of FFI in CBI classroom, stating that "I believe it can be and intend to continue to keep abreast of developments to determine what is and isn't useful improving the experiences of the learners." This teacher thus acknowledged the importance of FFI yet, in practice, did not give it as much importance as content teaching.

4.2.7.1 *Effect of students' previous FFI*

Different opinions were expressed by the two teachers regarding the influence of students' previous instruction on FFI. Through a personal communication over the phone, one teacher shared with me that students' learning

orientation, formed by their previous language focused instruction in secondary school, had not influenced the absence of language teaching in CBI. In contrast, the other teacher mentioned that he thought teaching practices can be unconsciously influenced both by teachers' past teaching experiences and learners' past learning experiences. In particular, the teacher revealed that his specialty was geography rather than teaching English, and he therefore placed greater emphasis on content teaching.

4.2.7.2 *Effect of class time on FFI*

FFI was limited by the length of classes. In an interview, one teacher mentioned that "there isn't enough time or scope to spend too much time concentrating on form." According to my classroom observations, sometimes 90 minutes was not enough to cover all of the content required for the lecture, even when teachers focused only on teaching content.

4.2.7.3 *Effect of the Perceived Roles of CBI on FFI*

CBI classes were perceived, in general, as content learning class, while other English classes were considered to cover the material missing from CBI classes.

As one teacher said:

> There are specific grammar classes like ~sensei's. For me, I do not feel so much that it's particularly my job to focus on grammar especially in content classes. I am much more a content person. I want them to get the content. I want them to understand more than the noun or verb agreement.

5. Summary

In this chapter, I presented findings regarding the behaviour, attitudes, and perceptions of both teachers and students, drawing on findings from the classroom observations and questionnaires. The data clearly revealed that the classrooms were completely meaning oriented and that teachers provided students with

sufficient input, but with lack of opportunities for production. In the next chapter, I will interpret reasons behind the findings by drawing on previous studies.

Chapter 5
DISCUSSION

In the beginning of this chapter, I discuss the nature of CBI classes. I will then interpret findings presented in previous chapters by drawing on relevant research, with a focus on how educational and cultural backgrounds may affect teachers' behavior in class and students' perceptions of CBI.

1. Large Amount of Teacher Input vs. Small Amount of Student Output

The amount of input far exceeded that of output. That is, teachers were the main initiators in class. This concurs with previous findings (Allen et al., 1990; Musumeci, 1996; Swain, 1988). One possible reason in the specific setting of this study may be explained by a collectivist cultural perspective, in which classes are teacher-centered. In this cultural group, the teacher's authority is readily apparent in class. Teachers are "treated with respect" and "outline the intellectual paths to be followed" (Hofstede, 2001, p. 100). Another explanation for this finding is that it is also typical of EFL classrooms. Walsh (2002) stated that "teachers talk most of the time" (p. 4) in a list of ten key features of EFL classrooms.

With respect to the small amount of student output, the current study seems to represent a typical EFL classroom, in which students speak rarely (Li, 2001) or are passive (Hyland, 1993) and produce "minimal" output (Swain, 1988, p. 70). Again, in this specific setting, we may be able to draw on the collectivist cultural point of view, according to which "…students do not speak up in class, even when the teacher puts a question to the class. For the student who conceives of him or herself as part of a group, it is illogical to speak up without being sanctioned by the group to do so" (Hofstede, 2001, p. 235).

2. Focus on Course Content

The study showed that input was focused heavily on course content. The instructional strategies kept students "'on-target', content wise" (Swain, 1988, p. 70). As reported in previous studies, keeping students focused on content seems to be the "primary advantage of CBI over other CLT approaches" (Wesche &

Skehan, 2002, p. 220). Therefore, this study is consistent with "typical content teaching" (Harley, 1993, p. 75). The teachers in this study were arguably able to focus exclusively on content in this way because their students were not ESL learners needing to improve their English abilities to catch up with target language speaking students in mainstream classes. As well, it was not necessary for students to learn English for ordinary social interactions. In EFL contexts, students have little opportunity to adequately use English outside class (Oda & Takada, 2005). Accordingly, the main reason that students in the present study enrolled in CBI classes was interest in the topic (46%). In addition, both teachers expressed the importance of course content learning rather than FFI. Thus, both students and teachers were in agreement on content-focused teaching.

Due to the focus on content teaching, there were no instances of grammar-focused teaching or linguistic negotiation in the current study. Previous findings corroborate this lack of FFI (Harley, 1993; Pica, 2002; Rodgers, 2006). It might be argued that whenever CBI courses are offered they provide meaning-oriented instruction irrespective of context.

These findings seem to contradict the claim by Lyster and Mori (2006). According to their interpretation, one of the reasons that Japanese immersion classrooms focused more on form compared to French immersion was because of the context of JFL[11]. Lyster and Mori (2006) speculated that "social settings may have affected overall communicative orientations in predictable ways, making FI [French immersion] instructional settings more meaning-focused and JI [Japanese immersion] instructional settings more form-focused" (p. 293). This claim led me to expect that in the classrooms in the current study teachers would focus more on grammar. However, it is important to differentiate the age of participants. In Lyster and Mori's (2006) study, target students were fourth-grade and fifth-grade students who were quite possibly less experienced in formal grammar instruction in their lives. In contrast, around 75% of students in the current study received grammar or translation oriented English classes throughout their secondary

[11] Japanese as a Foreign Language

education. Even though participants in this study did not possess perfect knowledge of English grammar, they at least had basic knowledge of it.

In the current study, exclusively meaning-oriented classrooms seemed to create optimal language learning opportunities for students. This may be because form-oriented learners can benefit from counterbalanced instruction, in accordance with Skehan's (1998) dual coding system and the counterbalance hypothesis. Students who know language rules may benefit more from meaning-oriented classrooms. Similarly, at a glance, based on the counterbalance approach as proposed by Lyster and Mori (2006), it may seem that students who participate in language-focused classes throughout secondary school benefit from content-oriented instructional options. However, it is crucial to keep in mind that the extent to which FFI should be complemented with CBI for form-oriented learners has not yet been fully explored in EFL contexts. In order to prove the effectiveness of completely meaning-oriented CBI classes as well as the benefits of FFI for L2 improvement for form-oriented learners, experimental studies that measure students' L2 improvement are called for. What is more important to note is that the counterbalance hypothesis was established where meaning-oriented classrooms provided FFI regardless of learners' learning orientation. That is, it is risky to draw the conclusion from this study that a meaning-oriented classroom without FFI was beneficial for form-oriented students in the study.

3. Effects of the Lack of FFI

Findings from the current study revealed that the lack of FFI was neither due to students' English proficiency level nor their familiarity with teaching practices in secondary school. The amount of FFI was also not because of instructors' competency in teaching content and language.

A possible reason for the lack of FFI in the CBI classes was that teachers failed to prioritize negotiation of form. Both teachers agreed that learning content was more important than learning form; the purpose of vocabulary teaching conducted by teachers in present study was exclusively for the sake of comprehension of classes. Thus, the vocabulary teaching was not regarded as FFI. However, this is not to say teachers did not value formal grammatical instruction

for L2 development. One teacher clearly indicated the importance of FFI, even though FFI was not evident in his teaching. This discrepancy between the teachers' perceptions and practices was not surprising, based on previous studies (Fang, 1996; Graden, 1996; Yoshida, 2008). A more likely explanation for the lack of teaching FFI in CBI classes is that teachers did not perceive FFI as having a role to play in their classes, but did in other classes. For example, CBI could be perceived as a class exclusively focused on content learning, while grammar related areas of English would be tackled in a grammar class, and, therefore grammar would not specifically be addressed during CBI. This situation appears to be similar to cases found in Canadian immersion, where students were given formal grammar lessons alongside content classes (Lightbown, 2008).

Another possible reason that teachers did not attribute nay importance to FFI in their content-based courses may be that the interface of content and language teaching was difficult to deal with because of limited class time. The duration of class affects teaching practice (Farrell & Lim, 2005). In this study, as in a study by White and Lightbown (1984), limited class time led to teacher-initiated classes. In addition, the time constraints may have forced teachers to focus on teaching only subject matter. Even without break time during a 90 minute lecture, sometimes teachers were not able to cover even the course content that they wanted to cover in that lesson. From my point of view, I thought if teachers had not spent time covering previously learned material, they could have potentially had time for language teaching. However, when I observed the class, it was the time of year when students search for employment and some students missed classes or came to class late. Because of this, it seemed that teachers carefully reviewed what they had taught in the previous class.

4. Significance of FFI

Due to a consensus about content focused teaching among teachers and students in the current study, delivering completely meaning-oriented classes may seem appropriate. However, from a pedagogical perspective, adopting FFI in immersion or CBI is recommended (Day & Shapson, 1991; Harley, 1989; Lyster, 1994, 2004a, 2004b; Pica, 2002; Rodgers, 2006). Incorporating content and

language learning is effective for L2 language learning, even for students who also receive separate grammar classes. Ammar and Spada (2006) and Lyster (2004a, 2004b) illustrated the benefits that learners receive from combining FFI and CBI, rather than from being taught grammar alone.

Empirical studies have shown that both reactive and proactive FFI may be helpful to cope with fossilized interalanguage and to improve the accuracy of L2. However, overemphasis on form at the expense of meaning may spoil features of CBI. In order to make a strong argument, empirical studies in context are necessary. Still, based on previous Canadian immersion and CBI studies (Lyster, 2004a, 2004b; Pica, 2002; Rodgers, 2006), the lack of FFI in CBI may indicate that these classes have not yet reached their full potential (Lyster, 2007).

5. Comprehensible Input

As previously stated, CBI classrooms focused on course content and, thus, comprehensible input was provided to facilitate students' comprehension of content. Teachers may use these strategies to attract students' attention and to confirm their understanding, as noted by Ellis (1984). In the CBI classes, teachers used various instructional strategies including gesturing, repetition, rephrasing, redundancy, visual representations, comprehension checks, review of previously covered material, and an awareness of learners' background. These reflect core instructional strategies reported in previous studies (Cloud et al., 2000; Echevarria & Graves, 1998; Musumeci, 1996; Snow, 1987; Wong-Fillmore, 1985). There seem to be similarities in effective instructional strategies, regardless of the format of CBI, the target students, and the contexts. Teachers "explain or summarize facts and ask questions" (Swain, 1988, p. 70) by using both language (e.g., repetition) and non-linguistic aids such as gestures (Weber & Tardif, 1991, p. 930).

In general, regarding comprehensible input, teachers' perceptions of effective instructional strategies for content learning and their teaching practice seemed consistent. The consistencies between teachers' perceptions of their teaching strategies and their actual in-class use of these strategies may occur because teaching practice is the indicator of decision making (Farrell & Lim,

2005) influenced by their theoretical beliefs (Johnson, 1992) that may be formed by their own experiences (Snider & Roehl, 2007).

5.1 *Vocabulary*

In the current study, the data on language-related instructional strategies revealed that vocabulary teaching was a central element of CBI. Teachers frequently repeated vocabulary or provided explanations by using vocabulary items, whole sentences, or examples. This was not surprising because previous studies also revealed that various instructional strategies were employed especially concerning vocabulary learning (Harley, 1993; Schleppegrell et al., 2004; VanPatten, 2004). One possible reason that teachers emphasize vocabulary is because students tend to seek help on lexical items (Musumeci, 1996) that are specific to the subject at hand. Flowerdew and Miller (1992) revealed that new terminology was an issue that tended to hinder comprehension: "I am weak in listening because if there is a vocabulary I don't understand then I miss many main points" (p. 70). Participants in Weinberg et al. (2008) reported the importance of vocabulary learning in CBI: "I found that the vocabulary presentations in the FLS course enriched my knowledge of vocabulary and helped me better understand the course" (p. 75). Often, in my study, learning vocabulary was necessary, as both courses included specific terms related to their subject matter. For this reason, lecturers should keep new terms to a reasonable load for each lecture (Flowerdew & Miller, 1992, p. 77). This was most evident in the geography class, where technical terms were required material. Even in Sociology, as Dixon-Krauss (1996) mentioned, sometimes explanations of technical terms used for abstract concepts were required; however, in this study, vocabulary teaching did not occur frequently in the sociology class.

Learning vocabulary was surely helpful for facilitating comprehension of content and subsequent academic success (Lyster, 2007). Snow and Brinton (1988) revealed that students expressed their ability to learn vocabulary through CBI. Rodgers (2006) found that students showed their improvement in learning vocabulary through constant exposure, and by being required to use new words in meaningful and authentic contexts (p. 385). However, it should be noted that

teachers do not necessarily draw "explicit attention to the formal and generative properties of words" (Lyster, 2007, p. 54). For this reason, in Canadian immersion contexts, students underused productive prefixes (Lyster, 2007). Therefore, while some aspects of lexical development may be promoted by CBI, other aspects may not be.

5.2 *Language-related Instructional Strategies: Repetition*

Among language-related instructional strategies, repetition (n = 585) was the most frequently used. It may be practical, because repetition has been acknowledged as facilitating language learning (Butler, 2005; Wong-Fillmore 1985). Smidt and Hegelheimer (2004) demonstrated that "redundancy achieved through multiple representations of lexical items in academic listening situations may benefit language learners" (p. 538). Yet, students in the present study selected "repeating words or sentences" as an effective strategy for content learning much less than "providing examples." How effective repetition is compared to providing examples may be an area which further experimental studies can expand upon.

5.3 *Non-linguistic Instructional Strategies: Visual Representations*

In the current study, gestures were the most frequently used non-linguistic instructional strategy (n = 228). However, to some extent, all non-linguistic instructional strategies (gestures, drawing, writing, showing, and video) played the role of visual representations. Using visual representations for L2 learning in CBI and Canadian immersion classes has been supported as an effective teaching strategy (Cloud et al., 2000; Echevarria & Graves, 1998; Echevarria et al., 2008; Short, 1994; Snow, 1987), and non-linguistic instructional strategies such as gestures and visual representations were reported by students to effectively facilitate content comprehension. Similarly, when Flowerdew and Miller (1992) investigated second language lecture comprehension with Chinese students in a B.A. TESL methods course, the participants expressed that visual supports helped them understand the lecture. As well, Olsen and Huckin (1990) demonstrated that using visual representations may scaffold students' comprehension of certain

terminology or concepts that are difficult to explain verbally. Taken together, the results from these studies and the current study may indicate that non-verbal clues assist listening comprehension (Driskell, 2003). In addition, non-linguistic clues may lower the cognitive load, thus helping students construct abstract concepts. Roth (2001) demonstrated that some gestures assist students in learning the concept of static electricity. Similarly, Echevarria and Graves (1998) found that non-linguistic strategies, or "context clues" (p.75) combined with verbal scaffolding advanced student comprehension in a sheltered instruction class.

Using non-linguistic clues may lead to positive outcomes not only for comprehension of content, but also for other factors in learning situations. Non-linguistic clues work as mediators to connect social and psychological concepts, and thus "provide learners with ways to become more efficient in their adaptive and problem-solving efforts" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 127). Gestures may be beneficial not only for learning languages, but also to build rapport between teachers and students as non-linguistic clues may generate "shared social, symbolic, physical, and mental space" (McCafferty, 2002, p. 196-197). Moreover, gestures promote the speech-encoding process (Kendon, 1972), and thus even teachers may benefit from using gestures when they convey messages to students.

5.4 *Combining language-related and Non-linguistic Instructional Strategies*

The current study revealed that the most frequently used language-related instructional strategy was repetition and the most frequently used non-linguistic instructional strategy was gesturing. However, these two instructional strategies did not occur frequently in combination. Instead, repetition and writing co-occurred most frequently. Thus, we may be able to assume that there was a tendency for some language-related instructional to co-occur with certain non-linguistic instructional strategies. For example, gestures co-occurred with language-related instructional strategies, and they were frequently used with explanation of vocabulary (n = 79) or abstract concepts. However, gestures were not often used with repetition of vocabulary (n = 3). One possible reason for this tendency is that generally, words repeated by teachers were non-spatial content words. According to Driskell (2003), gestures may be effectively used to explain

words related to spatial location (e.g., *under*, *over*), or manipulation (e.g., *meet*) or movement (e.g., *go down*). When meanings are complex, teachers do not seem to provide visual explanations simultaneously. In the current study, for example, the word "evaporation" was repeated by the teacher several times; however, the teacher did not gesture when it was repeated. Possibly, the word was too complex, or it was not possible to describe it by gesturing because it cannot be placed into categories such as spatial location, manipulation, or movement. Accordingly, in this study, I also observed certain words and gestures that co-occurred, particularly to depict size, quantity, gradient, speed, and shape.

5.5 *Non-linguistic Supports*

Despite ample use of non-linguistic instructional strategies by teachers and students' positive attitudes toward them, there are four counter-arguments to note concerning the use of non-linguistic clues. First, as stated earlier, overuse of non-linguistic clues may hinder student output opportunities and ultimately may affect L2 communicative abilities (Lyster, 2007). The relationship between non-linguistic instructional strategies and student comprehension needs to be further explored. Second, using non-linguistic strategies such as gestures too much may make lessons unauthentic (Lazaraton, 2004). Third, using non-linguistic supports may cause misunderstanding or ambiguity because they can vary across cultures (Fiksdal, 1990; Hall, 1976) or be context specific (Hall, 1976). Fourth, visual representations may not provide discourse-rich input. As seen in the current study, when teachers pointed out items in textbooks or on a projector screen or drew pictures on the board, at least one of them tended to use demonstrative pronouns such as *this* and *that* or adverbs such as *here*. In such cases, students may not be exposed to a sufficiently discourse-rich environment if teachers depend on non-linguistic instructional strategies accompanied by such simple vocabulary.

Ultimately, language-rich input matters. "Students gain the language proficiencies needed to meet the demands of the content" (Met, 1998, p. 43). Students need to have a strong base in their L2 to learn advanced subject matter within the framework of such a program (Schleppegrell et al., 2004; Tan, 2010).

6. Consideration of Lack of Student Output

There are numerous reasons that students showed little production in the current study. Most noticeably, the lecture format of classes may have discouraged interaction between students and teachers. There was much teacher talk, leaving little opportunity for student output.

A close analysis of the questionnaire data showed that while one of the teachers believed that T-S interaction was not very important in their class, the other teacher expressed that it was important. However, in interviews, the teacher who perceived T-S interaction as positive in CBI classes stated that the students had few opportunities to speak due to large class sizes. In this case, class size may have affected teaching practice by causing the teacher to not push students sufficiently. As a result, class size also partially accounted for the small amount of student output.

The effect of large class sizes has been previously studied in EFL contexts (Amy, 1985; Nishino, 2008; Oda & Takada, 2005), and Japan is recognized as having relatively large classes when compared with other developed countries (OECD, 2008). Yoneyama and Murphey (2007) stated that the "tipping point" (p. 1) regarding class size is between 20 and 25 students. If class sizes do not exceed these numbers, then students and teachers may be able to communicate more efficiently. In classes of less than 20 to 25, students tend to be more "well-adjusted, communicative, and collaborative" (Yoneyama & Murphey, 2007, p. 4). The two classes observed in this study far exceeded this "tipping point." One class had 32 students and the other 44.

Teachers' perceptions and contextual factors may also have affected both teaching practices and student output. Teachers believed that Japanese students would not raise their hands and ask questions. Thus, teachers may have not asked the students many questions, because they thought that they would not receive a response. As seen in previous studies (Farrell & Lim, 2005), such beliefs have an impact on instructional practices.

Although teachers did ask the students some questions, they were infrequent and were often questions that did not encourage students to respond.

Most of the questions that teachers asked seemed to resemble "drill-like questioning," which may reduce learner opportunity for creative production" (Chaudron, 1988, p. 52). For example, "Which one would be the source?" or "What is L?" are such questions that teachers asked in the current study. Even for fact based subject matter such as geography, it may have been appropriate for teachers to ask questions that they knew the answer to, so that the question and answer exchange was under their control. Questions included "question reduction" (Mackay, 1993, p. 37), which only requires students to reply using minimal utterances instead of full sentences.

> Instead of asking a question which requires the students organize a large number of facts or integrate the complex information, the teacher will ask a large number of very simple factual questions requiring simple 'yes' or 'no' answer, or an answer which contains only one piece of recalled information. (p. 37)

Mackay (1993) stated that teachers resort to question reduction in order to lower students' cognitive load (p. 37). While this may be true, it also reduces student participation (p. 33):

Other questions that teachers asked in the current study sought agreement, acted as a simple comprehension checks, or were pseudo questions. When students must merely reply 'yes' or 'no' instead of organizing and integrating information into thoughtful formulations, the opportunity for them to practice the language diminishes greatly. Therefore, I agree that questions may either limit or enhance student production depending on the types of question asked (Chaudron, 1988).

In the current study, even though students seldom responded to questions, they were never individually called upon by the teacher, unlike in Musumeci's study (1996) where teachers did. All responses were voluntary. However, Hayashi and Cherry (2004) reported that Japanese "students are not accustomed to volunteering to speak" (p. 89). As Hofstede (2001) said, "if the teacher wants students to speak up, he or she should address particular students personally" (p.

235). Instead of volunteering information, it seems that the Japanese speak when they must (Dwyer & Heller-Murphy, 1996, p. 49).

Another issue concerning lack of student output is that questions might have been incomprehensible to students, similar to what was found in Mackay's (1993) study. The amount of learners' production in class has been found to positively correlate with comprehension (Naiman, Fröhlich, & Todesco,1978). Similarly, Chaudron (1988) stated that "students' failure to respond to teachers' questions may result from their lack of knowledge or insufficient L2 proficiency" (p. 126). This assumption was made according to students' self-reports regarding comprehension in CBI classrooms. More than half the students expressed that they sometimes did not understand English or content in CBI classrooms. If students' lack of output was a result of their difficulty understanding in class, teachers may need to consider whether there is a gap between what teachers think students comprehend and what students actually comprehend. If the lack of output resulted from students' L2 proficiency, students may need additional linguistic assistance in order to comprehend teachers' questions correctly. If students' insufficient response was a consequence of the level of difficulty of the question, repeating questions may not be an effective way to elicit students' responses (White & Lightbown, 1984).

Decision making by students affects the amount of production. Students in this study were different from students in Swain's (1988) study in that they did not raise their hands to respond to teachers' questions. Instead, as seen in Musumeci's (1996) study, if students needed to ask a question they asked teachers individually while working on tasks by themselves. When students in the current study responded to the question of how they would cope with unknown items, over half stated that they would "research it by myself" (54.1%). Even when some students did not understand the content or the English of a lesson, they did not ask the questions to the teacher in class. In 79 words that were produced by students, [Mondai wakannai] and [Nanka yoku wakannai] were included. These students' utterances indicated that they did not understand the class material, yet still did not ask the teacher any questions. Drawing on well known cultural norms in Japan,

one may wonder whether this was related to shyness. However, the current study revealed that the fact that students chose not to ask questions or express their thoughts was not necessarily due to embarrassment, as has been reported in studies by Dwyer and Heller-Murphy (1996) and Hayashi and Cherry (2004). This discovery challenges the notion that "shyness is prevalent in Japan" (p. 212) which was yielded by Zimbardo's (1977) study. Results of Zimbardo's (1977) study showed that over 90% of Japanese participants expressed that they had been or were currently shy in all social situations. In the current study, however, the lack of students' production may not have resulted from shyness, because more than 60% of the students reported that they did not feel embarrassed to make mistakes in class. Students instead expressed that they researched unknown material on their own, because some thought this would improve their English (*n* = 4), some thought they would do better solving problems by themselves (*n* = 4), and some thought they were able to solve the problems by themselves (*n* = 8). The next most desirable option to research unknown material was to ask a friend, as friends are thought to be more approachable than teachers. The tendencies to research alone or ask friends for help might have emerged because of the influence of traditional teaching styles experienced by students in previous English instruction classes in Japan. As Li (2001) also found, "to play it safe, students usually chose to behave traditionally in English class" (p. 157).

Based on a few students' comments, not asking questions may also be attributed to collectivist cultural factors. Students seem reluctant to talk because "speaking may spoil everything" (Torikai, 2005, p.254), disrupting harmony. It is "illogical to speak up without being sanctioned by the group to do so" (Hofstede, 2001 p. 235). There is a Japanese saying: "A nail that sticks up gets pounded down." However, these views may be changing. Hayashi and Cherry (2004) reported that Japanese students felt that actively participating in class was important. However, some students were not familiar with how to participate more fully in class. One student expressed he/she did not know "the way to *be* active" (p. 7). Students need assistance regarding "how to go about being active in class" (p. 89). It is the role of the instructor to teach rules of interaction in order to

encourage Japanese students' to be vocal in class (Dwyer & Heller-Murphy, 1996).

The amount of teacher talk may have also discouraged students from asking questions. In Musumeci's study (1996), one of the three teachers did not provide as clear explanations as the other two teachers, which prompted the students to engage in negotiation with the teacher in order to clarify what had been said. If this teacher had provided sufficient instructional directives or explanations, students would not have been driven to speak in front of class. In the same vein, students in the current study may not have often needed to ask the teachers questions, because teachers always provided a thorough explanation or repeated important messages. When students did not respond to teachers' questions about the subject matter right away, teachers often provided hints by defining vocabulary or relating the material to students' prior knowledge. This worked as pushing to elicit students' responses and it was surely helpful for scaffolding students. However, these teaching techniques should be used with caution as they limit the opportunities for students to ask questions. As a result, teachers may have decreased opportunities for negotiation of meaning in class. Here I am not suggesting that teachers should avoid pushing. From a second language acquisition point of view, pushing is effective and should be encouraged, because pushing enables students to increase their awareness of the rule or item that teachers ask them about (Lyster, 2004a). Rather, I argue that the ways in which students are pushed need to be carefully considered in the context of what they will learn from such pushing. In addition, as Musumeci (1996) stated, "filling in the spaces" (p. 315) may be effective to create "coherent conversational texts" (p. 315) but it may deny students' opportunities to identify gaps between their problems in their comprehension.

7. Significance of Student Output

For reasons identified earlier, students were not given opportunities to practice English, which indicates that they did not have opportunities to shift their declarative knowledge to procedural knowledge. Based on previous studies, participants in the current study also might have needed opportunities to practice.

Yang and Lyster (2010) stated that the Chinese student participants in their study had had exposure to formal language teaching during their secondary education, but not necessarily any opportunities for production practice or feedback from teachers (p. 255). I would argue that participants in the current study had received similar formal language instruction to those in Yang and Lyster (2010), because approximately 75% reported that the English instruction they had previously received was grammar or translation oriented teaching. For this reason, students who have some grammatical knowledge but lack procedural knowledge may need more opportunities to practice (Anderson, 1990; DeKeyser, 2007; Towell & Hawkins, 1994) or more opportunities to test their hypotheses through production (Swain, 1995, 2005).

As the current study did not measure students' L2 improvement, I can only speculate what the effects of minimal student production might be on language learning. However, given the similarities between CBI in Japan and Canadian immersion classes, it is reasonable to assume that students in these programs may have similar problems resulting from infrequent participation in class. For Canadian immersion students, it was found that, without practice speaking in class, students may not have many opportunities to pay attention to language in ways that may ultimately help them to improve their accuracy. That is, when students are given output opportunities, it is important for them to take advantage of them even if they are not sure whether their answers are correct or incorrect. When students do not attempt to speak, they miss the learning that occurs when thoughts are articulated. Even when students are pushed, they may still miss opportunities to practice because they choose not to speak. By not speaking, students do not make mistakes, and thus, never receive feedback from teachers. Then, they may miss opportunities of 'noticing' (Schmidt, 1990).

8. Perceptions of CBI

Students and teachers alike had positive attitudes towards CBI's effectiveness for both content learning and language learning, because students needed to understand English in order to understand the subject matter. In particular, one teacher advocated CBI for learning English, because teaching

English by itself has limits. However, both seemed to think that, after learning content, developing expressive skills was a secondary role of CBI classes. In terms of how effective participants thought CBI was for improving L2, some slight differences were observed between the two classes, because classroom activities and assignments were slightly different.[12] But, overall, the findings from my study were consistent with previous studies that noted greater improvements in receptive skills (Ready & Wesche, 1992) and content knowledge than expressive skills (Rodgers, 2006)

In the current study, both teachers and students alike acknowledged that students would not improve their speaking skills in CBI classes, even though 77.6% of the students expressed that they wanted to improve their speaking skills. Participants seemed to believe that different English classes would improve their L2 development in different ways. They seemed to think CBI was effective for improving listening and content knowledge, but not for advancing other L2 skills. However, what is more important to consider is whether perceptions and L2 development are correlated with each other. In Ready and Wesche's (1992) study, students' self-evaluations in CBI courses corresponded to their L2 improvement. If this is the case in the current study, students may show significant listening improvement, but not in speaking and writing as students' positive perceptions toward listening learning may correlate with their listening improvement. Yet, as Ready and Wesche (1992) commented, it is also important to consider that there may be some differences in linguistic gains depending on the subject being taught. This is because linguistic register and language discourse can vary. In addition, teachers' instructional strategies (e.g., how frequently they use redundant language) vary between different subjects. In order to conclude that both students' and teachers' perceptions are correlated with students' L2 development, experimental studies are needed.

Teachers and students had different opinions about how effective CBI is at improving critical analysis abilities. This may be due to differences between the

[12] For example, one class had an essay-writing assignment, whereas the other class had a reading assignment. These differences yielded slightly different perceptions from participants.

North American teachers and Japanese students. As Okazaki (1999) pointed out, Japanese students lack critical thinking abilities because they are evaluated in school using standardized tests that focus primarily on their ability to memorize information. From a cultural perspective, Japanese students may not be familiar with being critical. "In the collectivist society, education stresses adaptation to the skills and virtues necessary to be an acceptable group member" (Hofstede, 2001, p. 235). Therefore, the purpose of learning is to know "how to do" in lieu of "how to learn" (p. 235). Moreover, Japanese culture stresses that confrontation should be avoided (Hofstede, 2001). This can limit opportunities for students to negotiate with teachers in class. If teachers are privy to such knowledge, they may begin to recognize that learning strategies employed by students differ depending on their cultural background.

9. Summary

In the preceding analysis, an overview was provided of types of CBI that were employed in the observed classrooms, with possible justifications for the teaching practices employed in relation to specific classroom situations. This analysis revealed many similarities in the behavior of teachers and students in English CBI classrooms in Japan and French immersion classrooms in Canada. However, in order to comprehend participants' behaviors, further research is needed on their perceptions, their decision-making, and their cultural and educational backgrounds. In the following final chapter, I will first present a summary of the results and then the limitations of my study as well as implications for effective CBI classes.

Chapter 6
CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I present a summary of the findings of my study. I will then discuss the pedagogical implications of these findings, along with the limitations of my study. Finally I suggest avenues for further research in this field.

1. Summary of Findings

The goal of this exploratory study was to better understand features of CBI classes offered at the postsecondary level in Japan. To achieve this goal, this study investigated characteristics of CBI classes by analyzing both teachers' instructional strategies and students' behavior in classes. Teachers' and students' perceptions of CBI classes were also examined in order to better understand the classroom observational data.

My first research question asked to what extent Japanese college students produce English orally in CBI classes. The findings of the study revealed that students' output was considerably limited even though in some cases the teachers 'pushed' students to speak. Context, cultural factors, teachers' perceptions of various factors, students' degree of comprehension and students' decision making are all possible reasons for this limited student output. That is, students' minimal amount of output may be caused by multiple factors.

My second research question asked what types of language-related and non-linguistic instructional strategies are employed by CBI teachers to make input more comprehensible. In response to this question, the findings showed that most teacher talk explaining subject matter was focused on vocabulary, and teachers used language-related instructional strategies such as repetition, providing examples in combination with non-linguistic instructional strategies such as gestures or use of multimedia. Repetition was the most common language-related strategy while gesturing was the most common non-linguistic instructional strategy; however, the combination of these two strategies was not the most common combination that occurred. This seemed to be because some language-

related instructional strategies were more appropriate to use with certain non-linguistic strategies (e.g., repeating an explanation while using gestures).

My third research question asked about the perceptions of both teachers and students regarding the effectiveness of CBI. The current study showed that both students and teachers perceived CBI classes as effective for improving listening abilities and learning subject matter. Even though students expressed a desire to improve their speaking abilities, both teachers and students acknowledged that improving speaking abilities was not the goal of CBI classes. In addition, the findings revealed that teachers believed that CBI classes were more effective at improving critical abilities than did the students. This may reflect cultural and educational background of students who are not used to contradicting their teachers and who, instead, are more accustomed to letting the teachers' knowledge be "poured into" them (Brown, 2000, p. 189).

2. Limitations

This study is limited by its lack of empirical data on students' L2 improvement. In order for CBI programs to evolve, experimental studies are essential, especially studies that examine students' L2 improvement in CBI. In addition, the sample size of my study was quite small. Classes targeting different content areas often include different language functions, forms, register and discourse features. Because of this, the choice of CBI classes may possibly influence the use of instructional strategies and subsequent students' behavior.

The data from questionnaires may also be limited because there is a possibility of social bias in students' responses to the questionnaire. As well, when the questionnaires were administered to students, time was limited. Therefore, the data obtained could have contained some undetectable mistakes or misunderstandings. In addition, 'vocabulary' should have been included as an option for measuring the effectiveness of CBI so as to have allowed teachers and students to respond that they think students were able to build their vocabulary. Moreover, the two Japanese words for "intentionally" (意図的に) and "incidentally" （付随的に）seemed to cause confusion in the students'

questionnaire; however, the questions with these words were excluded from the analysis.

Throughout the classroom observation, 7.5 hours of audio / video recordings were successfully recorded; however, 10 minutes of video recording in one of five classes was not recorded properly. This technical error may mean that the number of occurrences of non-linguistic instructional strategies may be slightly inaccurate.

Finally, regarding participants' behaviors in the study, there may be an impact of the researcher on the teachers and students. Thus, based on the small amount of data in the current study, no conclusive generalizations about CBI in Japan can be made. Further investigation of CBI in Japan is called for.

3. Implications

Contextual factors, such as class size or class time, which were raised as issues that may have an impact on teaching practices, may not be easily changed without the support of administrative reform. Instead, in order to increase the effectiveness of CBI classes, it may be necessary to reorient both teachers' and students' perceptions of CBI programs. Burns (1996) stated that "far-reaching curriculum innovation involves fundamental shifts in the values and beliefs of the individuals concerned" (p. 597).

3.1 *Classroom Implications: What Both Teachers and Students Should Know about CBI*

Teachers' perceptions regarding the roles of CBI classes as well as their expectations of students' behavior seem to lead to a situation where teachers did not encourage student output. They did not include any FFI in CBI. In addition, as I rarely detected mistakes in students' remarks, it is evident that they were not risk takers. Some students also did not speak up in class due to the atmosphere of the class. These three factors together created a situation where students did not practice the language and produced little output and, therefore, neither teachers nor students made the best use of the features of CBI. To benefit fully from CBI classes, teachers and students should be aware of the definition of CBI, which is

"two for one," indicating that students should take advantage of L2 learning while also learning subject matter. Murphey (1997) suggested that teachers should periodically inform students of the rationale and effectiveness of CBI, especially for students who previously focused on language in secondary schools. "How the idea of CBI itself is presented to students" (Hanna, 2002, p. 73) should be seriously taken into account. The rationale behind this was explained by Murphey (1997):

> …when students embrace the method, it enhances their own learning. As in any self-fulfilling prophecy, when students believe in the method, they invest more of themselves in the course and that produces even better results. (p. 28)

As Murphey (1997) discovered, explaining the goals of CBI helped motivate students, and may ultimately help students reorient their perceptions regarding CBI.

3.2 *Classroom Implications: What Teachers Should Know about Their Own Teaching*

One of the findings of this study with important implications for comprehensible input is that overusing visual clues may increase the use of demonstrative adjectives and deictic adverbs while diminishing the use of potentially more complex language to which students need to be exposed if they are to develop academically appropriate language. Therefore, to avoid this, teachers should be aware of their language use while using visual aids. If they are aware of the pitfalls of the relationship between using visual representations and language use, the quality of input in teacher talk may be improved.

To analyze the reasons behind the amount of student output, it may be important for teachers to confirm whether students comprehend both course content and English. In addition, it is important for teachers to be aware that some types of questions may only require students to use short answers with minimal use of the target language. Teachers should also be aware that explaining topics in too much detail may reduce students' opportunities for asking them questions. Finally, the voluntary class participation system may not be effective unless

students know how to become active in class. These factors combined can ultimately reduce students' output practice.

4. Further Research

As stated earlier in this thesis, there needs to be much more research on CBI in Japan. Primarily, experimental studies as well as descriptive studies of CBI are called for. Further research, particularly experimental studies, may help us confirm the effectiveness of integrating FFI and production opportunities for L2 improvement. Such studies are essential to improve and refine CBI. Some issues raised in the current study were similar to those reported in French immersion in Canada. These issues may become triggers for further experimental studies to ensure inclusion of FFI in CBI for EFL students who are form-oriented learners.

There are several topics that require attention from researchers for future CBI studies. More research is needed that compares the effectiveness of different instructional strategies, such as how well discourse-rich instructional strategies work, or how much student output occurs in situations where teachers explain thoroughly versus when they do not provide much explanation. The effectiveness of other teaching strategies such as providing examples, repeating vocabulary, providing definitions, explaining vocabulary or concepts to build vocabulary and grammar skills in general also needs further research. Analyzing speech rate, enunciation, and stressed words, all of which could also be considered comprehensible input, could be a possible future study. I believe that this type of investigation is important in order to understand the quality of the input that students receive in CBI. Finally, researchers could explore CBI from socio-cultural and also socio-political perspectives in order to better understand students' and teachers' behavior and perceptions.

Regarding the methodology of CBI studies, to my knowledge most previous CBI studies in Japan entailed self-reporting by teachers (Rohe, 2005; Hanna, 2002, Nagahashi & Duell, 2008; Sugita, 2006). I suggest that researchers conduct research that goes beyond teachers' self-reports. "Without the help of many hours of video tape and lots of transcribed data, it remains difficult for

teachers to first identify clear patterns of teacher-student interaction in their classrooms and then determine ways of making effective changes" (Lyster, 1998b, p. 74). That is, a third person observing the classroom may provide teachers with some new insights about their own teaching. Lyster (1998b) pointed out that sometimes teachers may not be aware of their own teaching styles or the language use in their classes. Similarly, in Raymond's (1997) study, Joanna, who was a fourth grade mathematics teacher, acknowledged that participating in a study provided with her the opportunity to reflect on her beliefs and teaching practices. Therefore, conducting objective research may raise teachers' self-awareness of their own teaching and thus contribute to optimal CBI.

On a final note, CBI programs do not have to fit into one specific CBI format because they must be context specific. However, regardless of context, as Lyster (2007) stated, incorporating relevant research findings about effective instructional practices may be important for the success of CBI classes. I hope that teachers have more opportunities to review their own teaching, and that more discussion occurs among researchers and teachers for improving CBI. If my study on CBI triggers others to investigate the potential of CBI in Japan, it will be my greatest satisfaction.

REFERENCES

Allen, P., Swain, M., Harley, B., & Cummins, J. (1990). Aspects of classroom treatment: toward a more comprehensive view of second language education. In P. A. B. Harley, J. Cummins, & M. Swain. (Ed.), *The Development of second language proficiency* (pp. 57-81). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Ammar, A., & Spada, N. (2006). One size fits all? Recasts, prompts, and L2 learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 28*, 543-574.

Amy, T. (1985). Analyzing input and interaction in second language classrooms. *RELC Journal, 16*, 8-30.

Anderson, J. R. (1990). *Cognitive psychology and its implications.* New York: W.H. Freeman.

Bae, C. (2007). The acquisition of vocabulary in content-based instruction: A case study of 13 EFL adult learners. Sophia linguistica: working papers in linguistics 55, 71-95. Retrieved December 11, 2010 from National Institute of Informatics Scholarly and Academic Information Navigator.

Balint, M. (2004). Content-based instruction in an EAP program: Developing knowledge of principles and policies of ecotourism. *Journal of policy studies 17*, 1-8.

Basturkmen, H., Loewen, S., & Ellis, R. (2004). Teachers' stated beliefs about incidental focus on form and their classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics, 25*, 243-272.

Benesse. (2004). Daigaku kaikaku no yukue: Daigaku kyousou jidai no makuake ~ good practice [A course of university reform: The beginning of competition among universities ~ Good Practice]. Retrieved April 10, 2010, from http://benesse.jp/berd/center/open/kou/view21/2004/10/02univ_01.html

Blaxton, T. A. (1989). Investigating dissociations among memory measures: Support for a transfer-appropriate processing framework. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 15*, 657-668.

Brinton, D., Snow, M. A., & Wesche, M. B. (2004). *Content-based second language instruction*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Brown, D. H. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (4th ed.). White Plains, NY: Longman.

Burger, S., & Chrétien, M. (2001). The development of oral production in content-based second language courses at the University of Ottawa. *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes, 58*, 84-102.

Burns, A. (1996). Collaborative research and curriculum change in the Australian Adult Migrant English Program. *TESOL Quarterly, 30*, 591-598.

Butler, Y. G. (2005). Content-based instruction in EFL contexts: Consideration for effective implication. *JALT, 27*, 227-245.

Chamot, A. U., & O'Malley, J. M. (1996). The cognitive academic language learning approach: A model for linguistically diverse classrooms. *The Elementary School Journal, 96*, 259-273.

Chaudron, C. (1988). *Second language classrooms: research on teaching and learning*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Chen, C., Lee, S., & Stevenson, H. (1995). Response style and cross-cultural comparisons of rating scales among East Asian and North American students. *Psychological Science, 6*, 170-175.

Chuokyoikushingikai. (2003). 1. Karikyuramu kaikaku no jisshi jokyou [1. Situation of curriculum reform implementation]. Retrieved from http://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/houdou/19/04/07041710/001.htm

Cloud, N., Genesee, F., & Hamayan, E. V. (2000). *Dual language instruction : a handbook for enriched education*. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.

Cook, V. J. (1993). *Linguistics and second language acquisition*. New York: St. Martin's Press.

Corin, A. (1997). A course to convert Czech proficiency to proficiency in Serbian and Croatian. In S.B. Stryker & B. L. Leaver (Eds.), *Content-based instruction in foreign language education : models and methods* (pp. 78-104). Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Cummins, J. (1985). *Bilingualism and special education: issues in assessment and pedagogy*. San Diego, CA: College-Hill Press.

Cunliffe, B. (1998). Content-based language instruction in second / foreign language programs. *Hokkai Gakuen University studies in culture, 11*, 221-238.

Currie, P. (1999). Transferable skills: Promoting student research. *English for Specific Purposes, 18*, 329-345.

Danesi, M. (2003). *Second language teaching : a view from the right side of the brain*. Boston: Kluwer Academic.

Davies, S. (2003). Content based instruction in EFL contexts. *The Internet TESL Journal, 9*. Retrieved May 1, 2010, from http://iteslj.org/Articles/Davies-CBI.html.

Day, E. M., & Shapson, S. (1996). *Studies in immersion education*. Clevedon, PA: Multilingual Matters.

Day, E. M., & Shapson, S. (1991). Integrating formal and functional approaches to language teaching in French immersion: An experimental study. *Language Learning, 41*, 25-58.

DeKeyser, R. (1997). Beyond explicit rule learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 19*, 195-221.

DeKeyser, R. (1998). Beyond focus on form: Cognitive perspectives on learning and practicing second language grammar. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 42-63). Cambridge. UK: Cambridge University Press.

DeKeyser, R. (2007). Introduction: Situating the concept of practice. In R. DeKeyser (Ed.), *Practice in a second language: perspectives from applied linguistics and cognitive psychology* (pp. 1-18). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Dixon-Krauss, L. (1996). *Vygotsky in the classroom: mediated literacy instruction and assessment*. White Plains, NY: Longman.

Doughty, C., & Varela, E. (1998). Communicative focus on form. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 114-138). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Doughty, C., & Williams, J. (1998). Pedagogical choices in focus on form. In C. Doughty & J. Williams. (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 197-261). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Driskell, J. E., & Radtke, P. H. (2003). The effect of gesture on speech production and comprehension. *Human Factors: The Journal of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society, 45*, 445-454.

Duff, P. (2001). Language, literacy, content, and (pop) culture: Challenges for ESL students in mainstream courses. *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes, 58*, 103-132.

Dwyer, E., & Heller-Murphy, A. (1996). Japanese learners in speaking classes. *Edinburgh Working Papers in Applied Linguistics, 7*, 46-55.

Early, M. (2001). Language and content in social practice: A case study. *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes, 58*, 156-179.

Early, M., & Tang, G. (1991). Helping ESL students cope with content-based tests. *TESL Canada Journal, 8*, 34-44.

Echevarria, J., & Graves, A. (1998). *Sheltered content instruction: Teaching English-language learners with diverse abilities*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon

Echevarria, J., Vogt, M., & Short, D. (2008). *Making content comprehensible for English learners : the SIOP model*. Boston, MA: Pearson/Allyn and Bacon.

Ehrlich, S., Avery, P., & Yorio, C. (1989). Discourse structure and the negotiation of comprehensible input. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 11*, 397-414.

Ellis, R. (1984). *Classroom second language development : a study of classroom interaction and language acquisition*. New York: Pergamon.

e-Stat (2009a) Seifu toukei no sougou madoguchi [General information desk for government statistics]. (2009). Retrieved June 3, 2010, from http://www.e-stat.go.jp/SG1/estat/List.do?bid=000001024271&cycode=0

e-Stat (2009b) Seifu toukei no sougou madoguchi [General information desk for government statistics]. (2009). Retrieved June 3, 2010, from http://www.e-stat.go.jp/SG1/estat/List.do?bid=000001024272&cycode=0

Fang, Z. (1996). A review of research on teacher beliefs and practices. *Educational Research, 38*, 47-65.

Farrell, T., & Lim, P. (2005). Conceptions of grammar teaching: A case study of teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. *TESL-EJ, 9*, 1-13. Retrieved June 15, 2010 from http://www.cc.kyoto-su.ac.jp/information/tesl-ej/ej34/a9.html

Fiksdal, S. (1990). *The right time and pace: A microanalysis of cross-cultural gatekeeping interviews*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Flowerdew, J., & Miller, L. (1992). Student perceptions, problems and strategies in second language lecture comprehension. *RELC Journal, 23*, 60-80.

Fotos, S. (2005). Traditional and grammar translation methods for second language teaching. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 653-670). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Fujii, T. (2000). Daigaku gakubu kyouiku ni okeru Content-Based Instruction no riron to jissen: Kansai gaikokugo daigaku ni okeru IES proguramu wo megutte [Content-Based language education for undergraduate students, with particular reference to the Kansai Gaidai IES program]. *Kansai Gaidai educational research and report, 1*, 7-18. Retrieved March 15, 2010, from National Institute of Informatics Scholarly and Academic Information Navigator.

Gaffield-Vile, N. (1996). Content-based second language instruction at the tertiary level. *ELT Journal, 50*, 108-114.

Genesee, F. (1987). *Learning through two languages: studies of immersion and bilingual education*. Cambridge, Mass: Newbury House.

Gibbons, P. (1998). Classroom talk and the learning of new registers in a second language. *Language and education, 12*, 99-118.

Godman, A. (1982). Competence in English use for academic subject examinations. In B. Heaton (Ed.), *Language Testing*: Modern English.

Graden, E. C. (1996). How language teachers' beliefs about reading instruction are mediated by their beliefs about students. *Foreign Language Annals, 29,* 387-395.

Hadley, G. (1999). Innovative curricula in tertiary ELT: A Japanese case study. *ELT Journal, 53,* 92-99.

Hall, E. T. (1976). *Beyond culture*. Garden City, New York: Anchor Press.

Hanna, C. (2002). Language and / or content? : Sustained content based education in English at a Japanese junior college. *Bulletin of Morioka Junior College Iwate Prefectural University 4*, 67-74. Retrieved March 20, 2010 from National Institute of Informatics Scholarly and Academic Information Navigator.

Harley, B. (1989). Functional grammar in French immersion: A classroom experiment. *Applied Linguistics, 10*, 331-359.

Harley, B. (1993). Instructional strategies and SLA in early French immersion. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 15,* 245-259.

Harley, B. & Swain, M. (1984). The interlanguage of immersion students and its implications for second langauge teaching. In S. P. Corder, A. Davies, C. Criper & A. P. R. Howatt (Eds.), *Interlanguage* (pp. 291-311). Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Hauptman, P. C., Wesche, M. B., & Ready, D. (1988). Second-language acquisition through subject-matter learning: A follow-up study at the university of Ottawa. *Language Learning, 38*, 433-475.

Hayashi, M., & Cherry, D. (2004). Japanese students' learning style preferences in the EFL classroom. *Bulletin of Hokuriku University, 28*, 83-93.

Herron, C., Morris, M., Secules, T., & Curtis, L. (1995). A comparison study of the effects of video-based versus text-based instruction in the foreign language classroom. *French Review, 68*, 775-795.

Hoare, P., Kong, S., & Bell, J. (2008). Using language objectives to integrate language and content instruction: A case history of planning and implementation challenges. *Language and education, 22*(3), 187-205. Retrieved December 11, 2010 from National Institute of Informatics Scholarly and Academic Information Navigator.

Hofstede, G. (2001). *Cultures consequences: comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations.* (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publications.

Holley, F. M., & King, J. K. (1971). Imitation and correction in foreign language learning. *Modern Language Journal, 55*, 494-498.

Hokusei Gakuen University Junior College Department (n.d.) カリキュラム紹介（2年） [Introduction of curriculum (2nd grade)] Retrieved March 20, 2010, from http://www.hokusei.ac.jp/eibun-jc/curricu/curricu2.html#

Hyland, K. (1993). Culture and learning: A study of the learning style preferences of Japanese students. *RELC Journal, 24*, 69-87.

James, M. A. (2003). *An investigation of transfer of learning from a university content-based ESL course to other university courses.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Toronto—Canada.

Johnson, K. E. (1992). The relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices during literacy instruction for non-native speakers of English. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 24*, 83-108.

Johnson, K. E. (1994). The emerging beliefs and instructional practices of preservice English as a second language teachers. *Teaching & Teacher Education, 10*, 439-452.

Kagan, D. M. (1992). Implication of research on teacher belief. *Educational Psychologist, 27*, 65-90.

Kane, R., Sandretto, S., & Heath, C. (2002). Telling Half the Story: A Critical Review of Research on the Teaching Beliefs and Practices of University Academics. *Review of Educational Research, 72*, 177-228.

Kasper, L. F. (1997). The impact of content-based instructional programs on the academic progress of ESL students. *English for Specific Purposes, 16,* 309-320.

Kendon, A. (1972). Some relationships between body motion and speech. An analysis of an example. In B. P. A.W. Siegman (Ed.), *Studies in dyadic communication.* (pp. 177-210). New York: Pergamon.

Kiyose, K. (2005-2006). Tokushoku GP no Eigokyouiku wo hattensase gendai GP ni tsunageru [Making a bridge to Contemporary GP by developing English education through Characteristic GP]. Retrieved April 8, 2010, from http://benesse.jp/berd/center/open/dai/between/2006/1201/02kikaku1_06.html

Klahn, N. (1997). Teaching for communicative and cultural competence: Spanish through contemporary Mexican topics. In S. B. Stryker & B. L. Leaver. (Eds.), *Content-based instruction in foreign language education : models and methods* (pp. 203-221). Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Klee, C. A., & Tedick, D. J. (1997). The undergraduate foreign language immersion program in Spanish at the university of Minnesota. In S. B. Stryker & B. L. Leaver. (Eds.), *Content-based instruction in foreign language education: models and methods* (pp. 141-173). Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Kong, S. (2009). Content-based instruction: What can we learn from content-trained teachers' and language-trained teachers' pedagogies? *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes, 66,* 233-267.

Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. New York: Pergamon.

Lazaraton, A. (2004). Gesture and speech in the vocabulary explanations of one ESL teacher: A microanalytic inquiry. *Language Learning, 54,* 79-117.

Leaver, B. L. (1997). Content-based instruction in a basic Russian program. In S.B. Stryker. & B. L. Leaver. (Eds.), *Content-based instruction in foreign language education : models and methods* (pp. 31-55). Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Li, D. (2001). Innovation in English language teaching: a reader. In D. R. Hall & A. Hewings (Eds.), *Teaching English language worldwide* (pp. 149-166). London: Routledge.

Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. M. (2006). *How languages are learned*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lightbown, P. M. (1998). The importance of timing in focus on form. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 177-196). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Lightbown, P. M. (2008). Transfer appropriate processing as a model for class second language acquisition. In Z. Han. (Ed.), *Understanding second language process* (pp. 27-44). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Long, M. (1991). Focus on form: A design feature in language teaching methodology. In K. De Bot, R.B. Ginsberg & C. J. Kramsch (Eds.), *Foreign language research in cross-cultural perspective.* (pp. 39-52). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Long, M. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition.* (pp. 413-468). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Lyster, R. (1994). The effect of functional-analytic teaching on aspects of French immersion students' sociolinguistic competence. *Applied Linguistics, 15*, 263-287.

Lyster, R. (1998a). Immersion pedagogy and implications for language teaching. In J. C. F. Genesee. (Ed.), *Beyond bilingualism: Multilingualism and multilingual education.* (pp. 64-95). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Lyster, R. (1998b). Form in immersion classroom discourse: In or out of focus? *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 1*, 53-82.

Lyster, R. (2002). Negotiation in immersion teacher-student interaction. *International Journal of Educational Research, 37*(3-4), 237-253.

Lyster, R. (2004a). Differential effects of prompts and recasts in form-focused instruction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 26*, 399-432.

Lyster, R. (2004b). Research on form-focused instruction in immersion classrooms: Implications for theory and practice. *Journal of French language studies, 14*, 321-341.

Lyster, R. (2007). *Learning and teaching languages through content : a counterbalanced approach*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Lyster, R., & Mori, H. (2006). Interactional feedback and instructional counterbalance. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 28*, 269-300.

Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 19*, 37-66.

Lyster, R., & Saito, K. (2010). Oral feedback in classroom. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 32*, 265-302.

Mackay, R. (1993). Embarrassment and hygiene in the classroom. *ELT Journal, 47*, 32-39.

Mackey, A., & Goo. J. (2007). Interaction research in SLA: A meta-analysis and research synthesis. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition : a series of empirical studies* (pp. 407-452). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Marzano, R. J., Pickering, D. J., & Pollock, J. E. (2001). *Classroom instruction that works: Research-based strategies for increasing student achievement*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

McCafferty, S. G. (2002). Gesture and creating zones of proximal development for second language learning. *The Modern Language Journal, 86*, 192-203.

Meehan, K. (2010). An Analysis of Content-based language Instruction at a Japanese University. *Jissen Women's University FLC journal 5*, 55-62.

Met, M. (1998). Curriculum decision-making in content-based language teaching. In J. Cenoz & F. Genesee (Eds.), *Beyond bilingualism : multilingualism and multilingual education.* (pp.35-63). Clevedon, PA: Multilingual Matters.

MEXT. (2002).「Eigoga tsukaeru nihonjin」no ikusei no tameno senryaku kousouno sakutei ni tsuite [Developing a strategic plan to cultivate 'Japanese with English abilites'] Retrieved April 10, 2010, from http://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/shingi/chousa/shotou/020/sesaku/020702.htm

MEXT. (n.d.a). 1. Karikyuramu kaikaku no jisshi jokyou [1. Situation of curriculum reform implementation]. Retrieved April 10, 2010, from http://202.232.86.81/b_menu/shingi/chukyo/chukyo4/gijiroku/03102101/006.htm

MEXT. (n.d.b). Kyu gakushu shidou youryou (Heisei gannen do kaitei) [Previous national curriculum standard (Revised in 1989)] Retrieved April 10, 2010, from http://www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/shotou/youryou/101/index.htm

MEXT. (n.d.c). Tokushoku aru daigaku kyouiku shien puroguramu (Tokushoku GP) [Support program for Distinctive University Education (the characteristic GP)] Retrieved April 10, 2010, from http://www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/koutou/kaikaku/gp/002.htm

MEXT. (n.d.d). Gendai teki kyouiku nizu torikumi shien puroguramu [Program initiatives supporting modern educational needs (Comtemporary GP)]. Retrieved April 10, 2010, from http://www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/koutou/kaikaku/gp/004.htm

MEXT. (n.d.e). Daigaku secchi kijun tou no taikouka to jikohyoka [Self-evaluation and establishment of standards outline of one university] Retrieved April 10, 2010, from http://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/hakusho/html/hpad199101/hpad199101_2_150.html

Muranoi, H. (2007). Output practice in the L2 classroom. In R. DeKeyser (Ed.), *Practice in a second language : perspectives from applied linguistics and cognitive psychology* (pp. 51-84). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Murphey, T. (1997). A CBI curriculum innovation: Nanzan's revolving six-week workshops. *The Language Teacher Online JALT 21,* Retrieved March 20, 2010, from http://jalt-publications.org/tlt/files/97/jun/

Musumeci, D. (1996). Teacher-learner negotiation in content-based instruction: Communication at cross-purposes? *Applied Linguistics, 17,* 286-325.

Nagahashi, T. L., & Duell, P. B. (2008). Integrating language and content instruction in a health awareness course for medical students. *Annual research report on general education, Akita University, 10,* 35-43. Retrieved March 19, 2010, from National Institute of Informatics Scholarly and Academic Information Navigator.

Naiman, N., Fröhlich, H. H., & Todesco, A. (1978). *The Good language learner* Toronto, ON: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Nakane, I. (2005). Negotiating silence and speech in the classroom. *Multilingua, 24*, 75-100.

Netten, J. E., & Spain, W. H. (1989). Student-teacher interaction patterns in the French immersion classroom: Implications for levels of achievement in French language proficiency. *The Canadian Modern Language Review, 45*, 485-501.

Neu, J. (1990). Assessing the role of nonverbal communication in the acquisition of communicative competence in L2. In R.C. Scarcella, E.S.Andersen & S. D. Krashen (Eds.), *Developing communicative competence in a second language* (pp. 121-138). New York: Newbury House.

Newton, J. (2009). *Teaching ESL / EFL listening and speaking.* New York: Routledge.

Nishino, T. (2008). Japanese secondary teachers' beliefs and practices regarding communicative language teaching: An exploratory survey. *JALT, 30*, 27-50.

Oda, M., & Takada, T. (2005). English language teaching in Japan. In G. Braine (Ed.), *Teaching English to the world: history, curriculum, and practice* (pp. 93-102). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Okazaki, M. (1999). Content-based language instruction: Investigating its effectiveness at three different English proficiency levels. *Kanagawa University international management review 16/17*, 395-409.

Oliver, R. (2000). Age differences in negotiation and feedback in classroom and pairwork. *Language Learning, 50*, 119-151.

Olsen, L. A., & Huckin, T. H. (1990). Point-driven understanding in engineering lecture comprehension. *English for Specific Purposes, 9*, 33-47.

Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research, 62*, 307-332.

Panova, I., & Lyster, R. (2002). Patterns of corrective feedback and uptake in an adult ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly, 36*, 573-595.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage publications.

Pessoa, S., Hendry, H., Donato, R., Tucker, G., & Lee, H. (2007). Content-based instruction in the foreign language classroom: A discourse perspective. *Foreign Language Annals, 40*, 102-121.

Pica, T. (2002). Subject-matter content: How does it assist the interactional and linguistic needs of classroom language learners? *The Modern Language Journal, 86*, 1-19.

Punch, K. (2009). *Introduction to research methods in education*. Los Angeles: Sage.

Raymond, A. M. (1997). Inconsistency between a Beginning Elementary School Teacher's Mathematics Beliefs and Teaching Practice. *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education, 28*, 550-576.

Ready, D., & Wesche, M. (1992). An evaluation of the university of Ottawa's sheltered program: Language teaching strategies that work. In J. I. G. R. J. Courchêne., J. St. John., & C.Thérien. (Ed.), *Comprehension-based second language teaching / L'enseignement des langues secondes axé sur la compréhension* (pp. 389-405). Ottawa: University of Ottawa Press.

Richard-Amato, P. A., & Snow, M.A. (1992). Strategies for content-area teachers. In P.A. Richard-Amato & M. A. Snow (Eds.), *The multicultural classroom : readings for content-area teachers* (pp. 145-163). White Plains, NY: Longman.

Richards, J. C., & Lockhart, C. (1994). *Reflective teaching in second language classrooms*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Rodgers, D. (2006). Developing content and form: Encouraging evidence from Italian content-based instruction. *The Modern Language Journal, 90,* 373-386.

Rohe, G. (2005). The story in the picture. *Bulletin of the Faculty of Humanities of Aichigakuin University, 35*, 93-105. Retrieved March 20, 2010, from National Institute of Informatics Scholarly and Academic Information Navigator.

Rosenthal, J. W. (1992). A successful transition: A bridge program between ESL and the mainstream classroom. *College Teaching, 40*, 63-66.

Roth, W. (2001). Gestures: Their role in teaching and learning. *Review of Educational Research, 71*, 365-392.

Rowe, M. B. (1972). Wait-time and rewards as instructional variables: Their influence on language, logic, and fate control. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, *11*, 81-94.

Rubin, J. (1994). A review of second language listening comprehension research. *The Modern Language Journal, 78,* 199-221.

Sakui, K. (2004). Wearing two pairs of shoes: language teaching in Japan. *ELT J, 58,* 155-163.

Savignon, S. J. (1991). Communicative language teaching: State of the art. *TESOL Quarterly*, *25*, 261-277.

Savignon, S. J. (2005). Communicative language teaching: Strategies and goals. In E. Hinkel. (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning.* (pp. 635-651). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Schaefer, R. T. (n.d.). *Sociology A Brief Introduction* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Schleppegrell, M., Achugar, M., & Oteíza, T. (2004). The grammar of history: Enhancing content-based instruction through a functional focus on language. *TESOL Quarterly, 38*, 67-93.

Schmidt, R. W. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics, 11*, 129-158.

Secules, T., Herron, C., & Tomasello, M. (1992). The effect of video context on foreign language learning. *Modern Language Journal, 76*, 480-490.

Segalowitz, N. (1997). Individual differences in second language acquisition. In A. M. B. d. Groot & J. F. Kroll (Eds.), *Tutorials in bilingualism : Psycholinguistic perspectives.* (pp.85-112). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Shang, H. (2006). Content-based instruction in the EFL literature curriculum. *The Internet TESL Journal, 12*. Retrieved April 20, 2010, from http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Shang-CBI.htm

Shavelson, R. (1973). What is the basic teaching skill? *Journal of Teacher Education, 24*, 144-151.

Sheen, Y. (2006). Exploring the relationship between characteristics of recasts and learner uptake. *Language Teaching Research, 10*, 361-392.

Short, D. (1994). Expanding middle school horizons: Integrating language, culture, and social studies. *TESOL Quarterly, 28*, 581-608.

Skehan, P. (1998). *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Smidt, E., & Hegelheimer, V. (2004). Effects of online academic lectures on ESL listening comprehension, incidental vocabulary acquisition, and strategy use. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 17*, 517-556.

Snider, V., & Roehl, R. (2007). Teachers' beliefs about pedagogy and related issues. *Psychology in the Schools, 44*, 873-886.

Snow, M. (1987). *Immersion teacher handbook.* Center for Language Education and Research. Los Angeles: University of California.

Snow, M. A., & Brinton, D. M. (1988). Content-based language instruction: Investigating the effectiveness of the adjunct model. *TESOL Quarterly, 22*, 553-574.

Song, B. (2006). Content-based ESL instruction: Long-term effects and outcomes. *English for Specific Purposes, 25*, 420-437.

Spack, R. (1997). The acquisition of academic literacy in a second language: A longitudinal case study. *Written Communication, 14*, 3-62.

Spada, N., & Fröhlich, M. (1995). *COLT. Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching observation scheme: Coding conventions and applications.* Sydney, Australia: National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research.

Spencer, B. H., & Guillaume, A. M. (2006). Integrating curriculum through the learning cycle: Content-based reading and vocabulary instruction. *The Reading Teacher, 60*, 206-219.

Spiri, J. (2004). *A content-based career design course for university students.* Paper presented at the Japan Association for Language Teaching, Nara.

Stoller, F. (2002). *Content based instruction: A shell for language teaching or a framework for strategic language and content learning*. Keynote presented at Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Salt Lake City, UT.

Stoller, F.L. & Grabe, W. (1997). A six-T's approach to content-based instruction. In M.Snow, D. Brinton. (Ed.), *The content-based classroom: Perspectives on integrating language and content* (pp. 78-94). New York: Longman.

Strevens, P. (1992). English as an international language: Directions in the 1990s. In B. B. Kachru. (Ed.), *The other tongue: English across cultures.* (2nd ed.). Urbana: University of Illinois Press.

Stryker, S. B. (1997). The Mexico experiment at the foreign service institute. In S.B. Stryker & B. L. Leaver. (Eds.), *Content-based instruction in foreign language education : models and methods*. (pp. 177-202). Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Stryker, S. B., & Leaver, B. L. (1997). *Content-based instruction in foreign language education : models and methods*. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Sugita, Y. (2006). Kontentsu wo jushi shita kyouzai ni yoru eigo ri-dhingu shidou no kouka. Jitsurei kenkyu wo daizai toshita tekisuto ni taisuru gakusei no hyouka kara [Effects of the content-based teaching materials on the improvement of reading skills in English of nursing college students]. *Bulletin of Faculty of Nursing, Yamanashi Prefectural University 8*, 27-43. Retrieved March 20, 2010, from National Institute of Informatics Scholarly and Academic Information Navigator.

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S.M. Gass & C. G. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 235-253). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Swain, M. (1988). Manipulating and complementing content teaching to maximize second language learning. *TESL Canada Journal, 6*, 68-83.

Swain, M. (1995). Three functions of output in second language learning. In G. Cook & B. Seidlhofer (Eds.), *Principle & practice in applied linguistics : studies in honour of H.G. Widdowson* (pp. 125-144). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Swain, M., & Johnson, R.K. (1997). Immersion education. In R. K. Johnson & M. Swain (Ed.), *Immersion education: International perspectives*. (pp. 1-16). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Swain, M. (2005). The output hypothesis: Theory and research. In E. Hinkel. (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 471-483). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Tan, M. (2010, June). *Teaching mathematics and science in English: Teacher beliefs about their role in content-based language-learning classrooms.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Canadian Association of Applied Linguistics, Montreal, QC.

Tischeler, H. L. (2004). *Introduction to sociology*. Belmont: Wadsworth.

Tomlin, R. L. (1994). Repetition in second language acquisition. In B. Johnstone (Ed.), *Repetition in discourse interdisciplinary perspectives* (pp. 172-194). Nerwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Torikai, K. (2005). The challenge of language and communication in twenty-first century Japan. *Japanese Studies, 25,* 249-256.

Towell, R., & Hawkins, R. (1994). *Approaches to second language acquisition*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

VanPatten, B. (2004). *Processing instruction : theory, research, and commentary*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Vines, L. (1997). Content-based instruction in French for journalism students at Ohio university. In S. B. Stryker & B. L. Leaver (Eds.), *Content-based instruction in foreign language education: models and methods* (pp. 119-140). Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: the development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Walsh, S. (2002). Construction or obstruction: teacher talk and learner involvement in the EFL classroom. *Language Teaching Research, 6*, 3-23.

Waugh, D. (2003). *The new wider world.* London: Nelson Thornes.

Weber, S., & Tardif, C. (1991). Assessing L2 competency in early immersion classrooms. *The Canadian Modern Language Review, 47*, 916-932.

Weinberg, A., Burger, S., & Hope, A. (2008). Evaluating the effectiveness of content-based language teaching. *Contact, Teachers of English as a Second Language of Ontario, 34,* 68-80.

Wesche, M., B., & Ready, D. (1985). Foreigner talk in the university classroom. In S.M. Gass & C. G. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 89-114). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Wesche, M. B., & Skehan, P. (2002). Communicative, task-based, and content-based language instruction. In R. B. Kaplan (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of applied linguistics* (pp. 207-228). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

White, J., & Lightbown, P.M. (1984). Asking and answering in ESL classes. *The Canadian Modern Language Review, 40,* 228-244.

Wong-Fillmore, L. (1985). Input in second language acquisition. In S.M. Gass & C.G. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 17-50). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Xiaoqiong, H., & Xianxing, J. (2008). Using Film to Teach EFL Students English Language Skills. *Changing English: Studies in Culture & Education, 15*(2), 235-240.

Yang, Y., & Lyster, R. (2010). Effects of form-focused practice and feedback on Chinese EFL learners' acquisition of regular and irregular past tense forms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 32*, 235-263.

Yoneyama, A. (2003). *英語教育指導法事典 / Kenkyusha dictionary of English language learning and teaching* [Dictionary of English teaching practice]. Tokyo: Kenkyusha.

Yoneyama, S., & Murphey, T. (2007). The tipping point of class size: When caring communications and relationships become possible. *JALT Hokkaido, 11*, 1-13.

Yoshida, R. (2008). Teachers' choice and learners' preference of corrective feedback types. *Language Awareness, 17,* 78-93.

Zimbardo, P. G. (1977). *Shyness: What it is. What to do about it.* Reading, MA: Da Capo Press.

APPENDIX A:

内容重視のクラスにおける認識と好みの指導法におけるアンケート

Ⅰ． このクラスにおける*認識と好みについて*

1.このクラスに登録した理由を教えて下さい。 複数に該当する際は、複数を選択してください。	A. トピックに対する興味 B. 英語力向上 C. 英語力とトピックにおける知識の向上 D. 卒業の為の必要条件 E. 可能なスケジュール F. 素晴らしい教授 G. 単位が取り易い H. 挑戦 I. その他_____

2.このクラスと英語の他のクラスと違いはありますか。	A.はい B.いいえ

3. Q.2で“はい”と答えられた方にお聞きします。どのような違いがありますか。 複数に該当する際は、複数を選択して下さい。	A．教科（地理や社会学）を英語のクラスとして学ぶ事 B. 文法を重視していない点 C. 誤りを直さない点 D. 講義中心である点 E. 一クラスの生徒の人数が多い点 F. 難しい内容を扱っている点 G.その他_____

4. あなたはこのクラスを受講することで、どのようなスキル、能力が伸びると思いますか？ 複数に該当する際は、複数を選択して下さい。	A. リスニング力 B. スピーキング力 C. リーディング力 D. ライティング力 E. トピックについての知識（i.e., 地理や社会学） F. 物事を解釈する能力 G. 物事を批判的に分析する能力

5. Q.4の回答について理由を教えて下さい。

例）先生が、自然な英語の速さで授業をすすめるので、リスニング力が向上する。

_____

6.あなたは、英語力を伸ばす為のクラスとして、新入生にこのクラスを勧めますか？	A.はい B.いいえ

7. Q.6の回答について理由を教えて下さい。

_____

8.　あなたはこのクラスの**内容**をどの程度理解していますか？	A.全く分からない B.時々分からないことがある。 C.だいたい理解している。 D.殆ど全て理解している。

9.あなたはこのクラスの**英語**をどの程度理解していますか。	A.全く分からない B.時々分からないことがある。 C.だいたい理解している。 D.殆ど全て理解している。

10.あなたは分からないことがある時どうしてい すか。	A.そのままにしておく。 B.クラス内で質問する C.先生に個人的に質問する D.友達に聞く E.自分で調べる F.先生に分からない表情で伝える G.その他 ____________________________

11.Q.10 の回答について理由を教えて下さい。
例）先生に分からないという表情をすると、先生がそれに気付き、説明してくれるから。

____

12.クラスで発言する事は難しい。	A.決してない B.時々 C.しばしば D.いつも

13.Q.12 の回答について理由を教えて下さい。
例）クラスで発言の機会が無いから／レッスンのスピードが速いから／恥かしいから等

____

14.私はこのクラスで間違うことを恥かしく思う。	A.決してない B.時々 C.しばしば D.いつも

15.　私はこのクラスで、文法を意図的に学びたい。	A.強くそう思わない B.そう思わない C.そう思う D.強くそう思う

16.　Q.15 の回答についての理由を教えて下さい。
例）　文法を意図的に学ぶ方がより、文法を学ぶことが出来るから。

____

17.私はこのクラスで文法を付随的に学びたい。	A.強くそう思わない B.そう思わない C.そう思う D.強くそう思う

18. Q.17 の回答について理由を教えて下さい。
例） このクラスでは、内容を中心に学びたいから。

_____

19. あなたにとってクラス**内容の理解力を上げる**効果的な指導法は何ですか。 複数に該当する際は、複数を選択して下さい。	A. 単語や文章を繰り返す B. 単語の定義を与える C. 例をあげる D. ジェスチャーを使う E. 絵を描く F. ビデオのようなマルチメディアを使う G. その他_____

20. あなたはこのクラスの先生に教え方について要望はありますか。
例）質問の時間を設けて欲しい／ 文法に力を入れて欲しい／生徒から答えを引き出して欲しい／トピックの内容と文法の両方を教えて欲しい

_____

21.あなたは先生に、あなたの教え方における好みを知ってもらいたいと思いますか？	A. はい B. いいえ

22.私は先生に、自分の好みの教えに合わて教えて欲しいと思う。	A.強くそう思わない B.そう思わない C.そう思う D.強くそう思う

23. Q.22 の回答について理由を教えて下さい。
例）もし先生が、私の好みの指導方法を取り入れて、誤りをなおしてくれると、より英語を学べると思うから。

_____

Ⅱ. *Demographic questions:*

24. 大学名 _____ 専攻 _____
Ackermann 先生の Geography のクラスを受講（火曜日 8：50 から）はい／いいえ
青木先生の Sociology のクラスを受講（水曜日 8：50 から）はい／いいえ
年齢 _____ 性別: 男性 / 女性
英語の学習期間 _____

25. TOEFL, TOEIC, 英検のスコアを教えて下さい。	TOEFL_____点 TOEIC_____点 英検 _____ 級

26.　中学、高校を通して、どの様な割合で英語の授業を受けてきましたか。パーセンテーで教えて下さい。 例）50 % 文法中心のクラス 20 % 翻訳中心のクラス 5 % コミュニケーション中心のクラス 25 % いくつかの英語のスキルが合わさったクラス（例：スピーキングとリスニング） 0%教科を通して英語を学ぶクラス(英語で学ぶ地理、英語で学ぶ社会学)	____ % 文法中心のクラス ____ % 翻訳中心のクラス ____% コミュニケーション中心のクラス ____% いくつかの英語のスキルが合わさったクラス（例：スピーキングとリスニング） ____%教科を通して英語を学ぶクラス（英語で学ぶ地理、英語で学ぶ社会学)

27. 得意分野を教えて下さい。	A. 文法 B. 単語 C. スピーキング D. リスニング E. リーディング F. ライティング G.その他_____

28. 伸ばしたい分野を教えて下さい。	A. 文法 B. 単語 C. スピーキング D. リスニング E. リーディング F. ライティング G.その他_____

29. 今まで英語圏に住んだ事はありますか？	A. はい B. いいえ

30. Q. 25 の回答で“はい”と答えられた方にお聞きします。それはどこの国にどのくらいの期間滞在しましたか？　国_____　期間_____

31. 日常、英語をクラス以外で使う事はありますか。	A.はい B.いいえ

32. Q.31 の回答で“はい”と答えた方にお聞きします。どこで使いますか？
A.家　B.仕事　C.その他_____

33.あなたはクラス以外でどのくらい頻繁に英語を使いますか？	A. 常に B. 週に 5 日以上 C. 週に 2，3 度 D. めったに使わない E. 殆ど使わない

御協力心より感謝致します。どうも有り難うございました 。

Student Questionnaire

Perception and preferred ways of teaching in Content-Based Instruction class

Ⅰ. *Perceptions and Preferences for this class*

1.For what reason (s) did you enroll in the class? You may choose more than one.	A. Interest in topic B. English improvement C. Improvement of both English and knowledge on a topic D. Pre-requisite for graduation E. Available schedule F. Great professor G. Easy to pass H. Challenging I. Other_____

2.Are there any differences between this class from other English classes?	A. Yes B. No

3. If you answered "Yes" in Q.2, please tell me the differences. You may choose more than one.	A. Learning academic subject matter such as Geography and Sociology as an English class. B. No focusing on form C. Not correcting errors D. Lecture oriented E. A large number of students in one class F. Handling complicated topics G.Other_____

4. What skills/ abilities do you think are improved through this class? You may choose more than one.	A. Listening skills B. Speaking skills C. Reading skills D. Writing skills E. Knowledge on a topic （i.e., Geography or Sociology） F. Abilities to interpret G. Abilities to analyze critically

5. Please briefly explain why regarding Q.4.

ex）Since the teacher delivers the class with natural speed, listening skills are improved.

_____

6.Do you recommend the course for L2 development to upcoming students?	A.Yes B. No

7. Please briefly explain why regarding Q.6.

_____

8. To what extent do you understand the ***content*** in this course?	A.I do not understand at all. B. Sometimes I do not understand. C. I understand most of it. D.I understand almost all of it.

9. To what extent do you understand ***English*** in this course ?	A.I do not understand at all. B. Sometimes I do not understand. C. I understand most of it. D.I understand almost all of it.

10.What do you do when you are faced with something you do not understand?	A. I leave it. B. I ask a question in class. C. I ask a question to the teacher. D. I ask a question to my friends. E. I research it by myself. F. I show puzzled facial expressions to the teacher. G.Other_____

11.Please explain why regarding Q.10.
ex) If I show a puzzled facial expression to the teacher, he notices it and he kindly adds explanation.
_____

12. It is difficult to speak up in class.	A.Never B.Somtimes C.Often D.Always

13.Please briefly explain why regarding Q.12.
ex.) Because of no opportunities to speak up in the class/Because of the rapid speed of the lesson / Because I get embarrassed.
_____

14. I get embarrassed when I make mistakes in class.	A.Never B.Sometimes C.Often D.Always

15. I want this class to include intentional grammar teaching.	A.Strongly disagree B.Disagree C.Agree D.Strongly Agree

16. Please briefly explain why regarding Q.15.
ex.) Because I learn grammar better if I learn it intentionally.
_____

17.I want to learn grammar incidentally.	A.Strongly disagree B.Disagree C.Agree D.Strongly disagree

18. Please briefly explain why regarding Q.17.
ex) Because I would like to learn the content mainly in this course.
_____

19. What are effective teaching strategies for content learning for you? You may choose more than one.	H. Repeat words or sentences I. Providing a definition of a word J. Providing examples K. Using gestures L. Drawing pictures M. Use of multimedia such as video N. other_____

20. Do you have any preferences regarding the ways of teaching in this course?
ex）I want my teacher to set up question-time for students. /I want my teacher to focus on form. /I want my teacher to elicit answers from students. / I want my teachers to teach both content and language in this course. etc.
_____

21. Do you want your teacher to know your favors toward the ways of teaching in class?	A. Yes B. No

22. I want my teacher to tailor the teaching practice toward my preferences.	A. Strongly disagree B. Disagree C. Agree D. Strongly agree

23. Please explain why regarding Q.22.
ex）I think I can learn English better if a teacher corrects my errors according to my preferred ways of teaching.
_____

Ⅱ. ***Demographic questions:***

24. University _____ Major _____ Age _____ Gender: Male / Female How long have you studied English? _____ years I am enrolled in Geography CBI class (Tuesday from 8:50) Yes / No I am enrolled in Sociology CBI class (Wednesday from 8:50) Yes / No

25. Please provide your TOEFL, TOEIC, *Eiken* test results.	TOEFL_____ TOEIC_____ *Eiken* grade _____

26. Please provide percentage regarding your received instructional practices in secondary schools. ex) 50 % Grammar focused class 20 % Translation focused class 5 % Communication focused class 25 % Classes which combine some of English skills (e.g., speaking and listening class) 0 % Classes which integrate English four skills (i.e., speaking, listening, reading and writing) and content learning (e.g., psychology, history, music, etc.)	__ % Grammar focused class __ % Translation focused class __ % Communication focused class __ % Classes which combine some of English skills (e.g., speaking and listening class) __ % Classes which integrate English skills (i.e., speaking, listening, reading and writing) and content learning (e.g., psychology, history, music and etc.)

27. Please select your strength.	A. Grammar B. Vocabulary C. Speaking D. Listening E. Reading F. Writing

28. Please select what you would like to improve.	A. Grammar B. Vocabulary C. Speaking D. Listening E. Reading F. Writing

29. Have you lived in English speaking countries?	A. Yes B. No

30. If you answered "Yes" in Q 29, please specify where you lived and
Where _____ the length of stay_____

31. Do you use English outside of the classroom?	A. Yes B. No

32. If you answered 'Yes' in Q 30, where do you use it?
A. Home B. Work C. Other_____

33. How often do you use English outside of the class?	A. All the time B. More than 5 days a week C.A couple times a week D. Rarely E. Almost never

Thank you very much for your cooperation. 

APPENDIX B:

Teacher Questionnaire: Beliefs and perceptions concerning CBI classrooms

I .Beliefs and perception regarding CBI classroom

1.I think students in my Content- Based Instruction(CBI) class will learn: (Please choose more than one if applicable)	A. Listening skills B. Speaking skills C. Reading skills D. Writing skills E. Grammar skills F. Knowledge of subject matter G. Interpretive ability H. Critical analysis ability

2. I think the content of my class is cognitively demanding for students.	A. Strongly disagree B. Disagree C. Agree D. Strongly agree

3. I think my students understand the content of subject matter well.	A. Strongly disagree B. Disagree C. Agree D. Strongly agree

4. Please briefly explain your answer regarding Q. 3._____
_____

5. I think my students understand English that is used in class well.	A. Strongly disagree B. Disagree C. Agree D. Strongly agree

6. Please briefly explain your answer regarding Q. 5._____
_____

7. As an instructor, focusing on both form and content in CBI class is challenging.	A. Strongly disagree B. Disagree C. Agree D. Strongly agree

8. I think providing comprehensible input is crucial.	A. Strongly disagree B. Disagree C. Agree D. Strongly agree

9. I know how to provide comprehensible input in CBI class.	A. Strongly disagree B. Disagree C. Agree D. Strongly agree

10. Please briefly explain how you provide comprehensible input
_____
__

11. I think content learning is more important than form focused learning in my CBI class.	A. Strongly disagree B. Disagree C. Agree D. Strongly agree

12. I think teacher- student interaction is important in my CBI class.	A. Strongly disagree B. Disagree C. Agree D. Strongly agree

13. Please briefly explain why regarding Q. 12_____
_____

14. I think error treatment on ***content*** errors in CBI class is effective.	A. Strongly disagree B. Disagree C. Agree D. Strongly agree

15. Please briefly explain why regarding Q.14._____
_____

16. I think error treatment on ***linguistic*** errors in CBI class is effective.	A. Strongly disagree B. Disagree C. Agree D. Strongly agree

17. Please briefly explain why regarding Q. 16._____
_____

18. I think students' production in class is important for one's language development.	A. Strongly disagree B. Disagree C. Agree D. Strongly agree

19. Please briefly explain why regarding Q. 18._____
_____

20. I think form-focused instruction (FFI) is effective in CBI class.	A. Strongly disagree B. Disagree C. Agree D. Strongly agree

21. Please briefly explain why regarding Q. 20._____
_____

22. Do you think knowing your students' preferences toward teaching practice in CBI class may help you understand students' learning process better?	Yes / No

23. If students indicate the manner in which they prefer to be taught, I would like to adjust my way of teaching in order to match students'preferences.	A. Strongly disagree B. Disagree C. Agree D. Strongly agree

24. Please briefly explain why regarding Q. 23._____
_____

Ⅱ. *Demographic questions*

23. Gender : Male / Female
24. Years of teaching in ESL: :_____ years
25. Years of teaching CBI classroom :_____ years
26. Level of students of the course that you teach :
    A. Beginner
    B. Lower intermediate
    C. Higher intermediate
    D. Advanced
27. Length of stay in Japan : _____ years

Thank you very much for your cooperation. 

APPENDIX C:

Teacher Interview Questions

1. What do you think of your students' English abilities in general?
2. Generally, what abilities do you think your students need to improve?
3. Do you think incorporating content-based instruction into Japanese EFL classroom is an effective teaching practice for Japanese English learners?
4. What are objectives of your content-based instruction class?
5. Do you think the integration of academic subject matter and second language skills in CBI classroom work for both academic subject matter learning and L2 development?
6. Are there any effective teaching strategies for focusing on **content** in order to foster your students' comprehension?
7. Are there any effective teaching strategies for focusing on **form** in order to draw your students' attention to language?
8. Are there any differences between the extent to which you focus on form in CBI classrooms versus in other English classes? If there are differences, how are they different?
9. Are there any difficulties concerning delivering lessons that are seen in your CBI class but are not seen in other English class?
10. If such difficulties are resolved, how do you think your teaching practice may differ?

Thank you very much ! 

Norie Moriyoshi
Graduate Student
McGill University
norie.moriyoshi@mail.mcgill.ca

Supervisor Dr. Roy Lyster
Integrated Studies in Education
McGill University
roy.lyster@mcgill.ca

APPENDIX D:

Content Included in Teacher Interviews

Contents	Number of teacher
Students in CBI classrooms	
1. Students' English proficiency level	2
2. Students' attitudes	1
3. Students' comprehension in CBI classes	2
4. The areas that students' need to improve more	2
5. Skills or abilities that students will learn in CBI classes	2
Situations of CBI classrooms	
6. Meaning oriented classrooms	2
7. Differences from other English classes	2
8. Difficulties concerning delivering lessons in CBI	2
Effectiveness of CBI	
9. Objectives of classes	2
10. Effectiveness of CBI for both subject matter and L2 development	2
Teaching in CBI classrooms	
11. Effective teaching strategies for content learning	2
12. Clear enunciation	1
13. Group work for scaffolding	1
Dynamic Teaching styles	
14. Changes of teaching styles over time	2
15. Level of students English proficiency level and teaching styles	1
16. Time constraints and focusing on form	1
17. The ideal number of students and focusing on form	1