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**COMBINING TBLT AND CLIL TO TEACH ENGLISH
AND CHINESE IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE CONTEXTS**

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Abstract

English and Chinese are the two most widely spoken languages in the world. The United States and China, as the two most powerful countries in the world, have experienced many changes in political and economic status in the few past decades, which leads to a new social phenomenon: that English and Chinese are two of the most demanded foreign languages in non-English-speaking and non-Chinese-speaking countries. As more people around the world are starting to study English and Chinese as a foreign language, there has been a growing interest in developing new methodologies which can facilitate the acquisition of these languages. The aim of this thesis is to try to find a compatible method of foreign language teaching and learning that will contribute to the body of knowledge being created around the teaching of these two great languages. Furthermore, it seeks innovative teaching methods that would provide for Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) and Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language (TCFL) in such a way as to increase the time available for the natural practice of language skills in class. Two prevalent foreign language teaching methods were selected to be combined for this goal: Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT), representing task-centered FL teaching methods, and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), one of the current new FL teaching methods. In addition, this thesis also examines whether the TBLT-CLIL combinations would provide some stimulation in TEFL and TCFL or in any other foreign language teaching field, by exposing their particular features to class experiments.

The main aim was to show empirical evidence for the extent to which the combination of TBLT and CLIL could improve FL learners' motivation to learn the target foreign language naturally. This evidence was sought through class experiments. The other concern was to provide a compatible methodology for FLT researchers and

teachers to explore, research and use in all foreign language classrooms, while at the same time stimulating researchers to seek improved foreign language teaching approaches based on this study.

Twelve groups, aged between 14 and 22, from five universities and schools in four countries participated in 20 classroom experiments for the two new proposed TBLT-CLIL combinations. After detailed introduction and comparisons of TBLT and CLIL, a questionnaire produced basic information on each participant such as age, gender and linguistic background, before class experiments began. During each experiment a class observation report was produced to record class performance, and post-experiment participant satisfaction evaluation forms were collected.

The analysis of all classroom experiments showed some improvements in the two TBLT-CLIL combinations in language skill competence and in FL learners' motivation regarding target foreign language and subject content compared with their previously used teaching methods. It was the intention of this study to analyze the data as produced, rather than to compare them to other data. Therefore, neither its findings nor conclusions are necessarily generalizable to other contexts and should only be viewed as tentative recommendations that can be taken into account when teaching EFL or CFL or any other foreign languages. The perspective intends to be an open field and topic, requiring further research from future pioneers in the foreign language teaching field.

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List of Abbreviations

ACTFL	American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages
ALM	Audio-Lingual Method
CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CBSE	Central Board of Secondary Education
CET	College English Test
CFL	Chinese as a Foreign Language
CEFR	The Common European Framework of Reference
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
FL	Foreign Language
HSK	Chinese Proficiency Test
MLAs	Mandarin Language Assistants
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SMC	Standard Modern Chinese
SVO	Subject-verb-object
TBLT	Task-based Language Teaching
TCFL	Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language
TCSL	Teaching Chinese as a Second Language
TEFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TEM	Test for English Majors
TESL	Teaching English as a Second Language
TFL	Teaching Foreign Language

TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TPR	Total Physical Response
TPRS	Teaching Proficiency through Reading and Storytelling
EC	The European Commission
ISCED	The International Standard Classification of Education
UNESCO	The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
ACA	Academic Cooperation Association
MLA	The Modern Language Association of America

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“If you talk to a man in a language he understands, that goes to his head; if you talk to him in his language, that goes to his heart.” —Nelson Mandela.

Chapter 1. Introduction

Language is a vital communicative tool that can be used for creating unity or division, communicating thoughts, opinions and ideas, expressing feelings, emotions, exchanging cultures, but it can also be used to indicate position, power and status. As Brown (1967) has observed, “language is the road map of a culture, it tells you where its people come from and where they are going, and it is the key to knowledge” (p. 39), which opens a door to the world outside, or to different cultures. Languages enable the establishment of friendships, cultural ties, and economic relationships, political positions and social identities. As Oliver Wendell Holmes (2007) points out, “language is the blood of the soul into which thoughts run and out of which they grow” (p. 41). Similarly, the linguist Edward Sapir (1985) remarks that “language is not only a vehicle for the expression of thoughts, perceptions, sentiments, and values characteristic of a community, it also represents a fundamental expression of social identity” (p. 245). Historian Lionel Groulx (1931) contends that everyone holds the supreme revelation of the national genius, however, the magic key that gives access to the highest cultural wealth, is language. James People and Garrick Bailey (2007) aptly remarks that “language shapes human thoughts and emotions, determining human perception of

reality” (p. 62). John Stuart Mill (1975) sees language as the light of the mind, while Samuel Johnson (1980) regards language as the dress of thought.

Matthews and Comrie (1996) point out that “language is perhaps the most important single characteristic that distinguishes human beings from other animal species” (p. 10). Kachru identifies two aspects of the interpersonal function of a language: it acts as a link between speakers of different languages, and also symbolizes modernity and prestige (Kachru, 1983; Velez-Rendon, 2003). Language is also a socio-cultural cohesive instrument since, as some scholars point out, “common speech serves as a particularly potent symbol for the social solidarity of those who speak the language” (Sapir, p. 155). Language, therefore, is “a potent weapon for building different ideological structures within a society; it helps maintain feelings of cultural kinship and makes the world more accessible” (Sapir, 2014, p. 134). A further function of language is the instrumental function, which refers to language as a medium for acquiring knowledge and exploring the world. Therefore, apart from their native language or mother tongue, people have to learn foreign languages in order to communicate with those language speakers who embody different cultures.

The Oxford English Dictionary (1993, 2002) defines a foreign language as a language indigenous to another country. Obviously, this definition varies from region to region and by the individuals within a particular region. Many countries have more than one official language or contain significant populations that speak their own languages (Simpson & Weiner, 1989). Richards and Schmidt (2010) define a foreign language as “a language which is not the native language of large numbers of people in a particular country or region, is not used as a medium of instruction in schools and is not widely used as a medium of communication in official domains” (p. 206), such as the government or the media. It is common to note that foreign languages are typically

taught as school subjects for the purpose of communicating with foreigners or for reading printed materials in that language (Richards & Schmidt, 2012).

As mentioned above, language acquisition is the most important capacity of human beings, as one of the essential and extractive human characteristics, since nobody can communicate without the use of language (Friederici, 1992), especially with other societies or cultures. It is to meet this need that Teaching Foreign Language (TFL) has emerged. Before elaborating on the comparisons of TEFL and TCFL, and their common traditional methodologies, a brief introduction to the English and Chinese languages will be provided in the following sections.

This thesis analyzes the different teaching methodologies that have been used up to now to teach English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) and Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language (TCFL) seeking and improved practice of these methodologies in FL classrooms. Therefore, this research combines the two most popular foreign language teaching methods: Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) to see whether this combination functions more effectively in TEFL or TCFL classrooms than either method taught in isolation. The object of this thesis is the teaching of English and Chinese as either a second or third language, with the aim of improving learner motivation and increasing exposure time to the target language, thereby improving foreign language skills naturally. The current applied methodologies of TEFL and TCFL in foreign language classrooms are compared with new TBLT-CLIL combinations.

The thesis is organized in two parts: theoretical and empirical. It consists of ten chapters. The first five chapters review the background and theories of each language, and compare the status of TEFL and TCFL in different countries. The other five chapters are devoted to an experimental study. After a detailed introduction of the

TBLT and CLIL teaching methods, the author proposes combining the two most used innovative foreign language teaching methods, TBLT and CLIL to test whether they would enliven TEFL and TCFL, and other foreign language contexts. The empirical part includes the theoretical background, the proposed possible combinations of TBLT and CLIL, redesigned teaching materials, a questionnaire, classroom observation reports, classroom experiments and feedback, as well as data collection and analysis.

More narrowly, a general introduction is made in chapter 1, where an overview of the background and importance of language is provided and the reasons for learning a foreign language are introduced. Following this introduction, chapter 2 discusses the status of English and Chinese education in different countries, and the current status of TEFL and TCFL, as well as their theories and definitions, especially the status of TEFL in non-English speaking countries and the status of TCFL in non-Chinese speaking countries. Chapter 3 compares different aspects of TEFL and TCFL, especially in regard to the main similarities and differences of the common methodologies applied in the FL classrooms. The differences between English and Chinese, and the characteristics of the Asian-Western education system are also discussed briefly.

Chapter 4 offers an overview of current research in the field to language educators and technology researchers. Some new and widely used teaching approaches such as Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) Approach, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), and Technology Integrating FL Teaching Method, both for TEFL and TCFL are discussed; the advantages and disadvantages of each are analyzed. Chapter 4 also directly addresses the use of technology in FL classrooms, which is an important resource in providing a broad picture of second or foreign language acquisition research.

Chapter 5 provides a detailed introduction to and comparison of TBLT and CLIL as a basis for exploring their potential combination in the empirical section. This is followed, in chapter 6, by a proposal for two different combinations of TBLT-CLIL, including a prediction of potential problems and limitations in the experiments, while offering some hypotheses and research questions. In this chapter the selection and design of TBLT-CLIL combined teaching materials and selection of participants in the experiments is detailed.

In chapter 7, the design and preparation of questionnaires for participant teachers and learners, lesson plans, classroom observation reports and evaluation forms for participants are addressed in detail. Chapter 8 details the class experiments, investigations, observations and classroom reports, and feedback evaluations performed and recorded. In addition, the Skype and face-to-face interviews and relative data such as the background and profile of the participants collected prior to the experiments. Chapter 8 also reports all the data collection and statistics, followed by Chapter 9, where a detailed data analysis and interpretation is made. In addition, a summary of the whole thesis and the key issues is provided, concluding with a discussion of the potential for combined teaching approaches in all foreign language teaching.

Finally, in Chapter 10, the pedagogical implications and the limitations of the study, as determined by the empirical findings, and recommendations for future research are included in the concluding remarks. This thesis intends to be an open field and topic, requiring further research by future foreign language educators.

Chapter 2. The Status of TEFL and TCFL

Every language is like a temple, in which its speakers' souls are enshrined. As Charlemagne (2007) stated, "to have another language is to possess a second soul" (p. 79). To learn another language is to have one more window from which to look at the world, to have one more arm to embrace a diverse culture, to have one more possibility to live another vision of life, and to have one more key to open doors to different communities. The beauty of language acquisition is the ability to step inside the mind and context of other peoples. Without the ability to communicate and understand a culture on its own terms, true access to that culture is barred (World Languages & Cultures, 2006).

English and Chinese are two of the world's most commonly spoken languages. According to The Ethnologue, 2016, "Chinese tops the list of the ten most widely spoken languages", with over 1.3 billion speakers, with English in third place, "with 335 million speakers" (Lewis & Fennig, 2016). English, however, is the official language of more countries than any other language. According to Lewis and Fennig (2016), "there were 67 sovereign states and 27 non-sovereign entities where English was an official language, and many country subdivisions have declared English an official language at the local or regional level" (p. 5).

2.1. The Importance of Foreign Language Learning

The definition of a foreign language largely depends on language environment and use in the area where the mother tongue is spoken. According to the Oxford Dictionary (1993, 2002, 2006), any language used in a country other than one's own or which is not often used in a country can be described as "foreign". It is other than the

mother tongue, in which most school subjects are taught during school years. Multilingual skills can greatly enhance a person's professional standing, especially in occupations involving international travel or communication. Many countries have more than one official language or contain significant populations that speak their own languages ("What is a FL," 2012, para. 3).

Many linguists recommend that it is necessary to have a daily course in a foreign language to stress the importance of grammar, speech and the customs of native speakers. One beneficial process is to study abroad or visit native-speaking countries, since "immersion learning helps foreign language learners use the target language naturally and aids the learning process in ways that other instruction approaches cannot create" ("What is a FL," 2012, para. 2). It is well known that learning a foreign language related to the learner's mother language is much easier than one with a different grammar or language format, such as French, for Spanish or Portuguese speakers, or Chinese for Japanese speakers. As a consequence, foreign language teaching methods become essential in order to meet diverse learners' requirements.

Klee (2012) has stated that foreign language instruction has undergone many changes for several reasons: first, there are more students majoring in a foreign language in colleges and universities; second, students who are not foreign language majors also choose to learn foreign languages to meet their post-graduation career aspirations; third, the language ranges are being broadened and extended in university curricula. Besides, the development of multimedia, such as CD players, computers, the Internet, the FL learning software, and on-line applications, affects both FL teaching methods and instructional materials.

Ludwig Wittgenstein (2010) sees the limits of one's language as the limits of one's world. The famous Italian film director, Fellini (2004), holds a similar viewpoint,

that a different language is a different vision of life, while in the view of Goethe (2007), those who know nothing of foreign languages, know nothing of their own. Deardorff and Jones (2009) have pointed out that learning a foreign language is crucial in a global interdependent world. They also note that lack of intercultural sensitivity could lead to mistrust and misunderstandings, to an inability to cooperate, negotiate, and compromise, and perhaps even to military confrontation.

In addition to this, research shows that remaining monolingual restricts educational development, communication competence and thinking abilities. Furthermore, it limits appreciation and understanding of the world, the expression of inner feelings, opinions, and ideas which might become an obstacle. As Dearden (2014) states, acquiring a foreign language means acquiring the culture, which enhances intercultural communication and reduces friction between countries. He also notes that it will promote more successful participation in worldwide commerce. Globalization is an inevitable trend which needs mobility and intensive communications, therefore “being proficient in other languages for global citizens becomes urgent nowadays” (Dearden, 2014, p. 16). Already 52.7% of Europeans are fluent in both their native tongue and at least one other language (Henderson State University 2014). Foreign language learners tend to have strong motivations and enthusiasm for learning, for various reasons such as to know a different culture, to travel, to improve their work prospects. This motivation will be an important force in their endeavors to pursue language perfection.

Language learning is seen as a combined process of structural and communicative activities (“Eclectic Approach,” 2011, para. 4). In practice, it is very common to require FL teachers to use a variety of methodologies and approaches, to vary techniques, and implement them based on the learning context and objectives.

Lessons should be prepared to facilitate learners' understanding of the target foreign language. For example, the FL teacher proposes a variety of exercises, both written and oral, to improve the learner's accuracy, fluency and communicative ability.

2.2. English as a Foreign Language in the World

English as a global language did not appear until 1997. According to Crystal, the 1990s were a revolutionary decade since it was with a proliferation of new linguistic varieties arising out of the worldwide implementation of the Internet (2014). Millions throughout the world learn English to some degree; some are forced by necessity, others consider English as a *lingua franca* for purposes of culture and science exchange. Today there are more non-native than native users of English, and English has become the linguistic key for opening borders: it is a global medium with local identities and messages (Kachru, 2014). This author describes the increase in the use of English in Asia as “overwhelming” (2014, p. 67). India is the third largest English-using population in the world, after the USA and the UK. Literatures in English are nowadays recognized as part of national literatures, and English is also recognized in national language policy. In addition, the growing economic and cultural influence of the United States as a global superpower since World War II has significantly accelerated the language's spread across the planet. Though there have been languages of international communication in the past, such as Latin or classical Arabic, the intensity of the use of English, both geographically and affecting different domains, is new (Houwer & Wilton, 2011).

Becker and Kolster (2012) point out that in universities and colleges in the United Kingdom, the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and Singapore,

which attract the most number of international students and exchange-programme students, the primary language of instruction is English. In addition, English is used as the instruction language in most of the top business schools, medical centers and advanced-study institutes in North America, Europe and Asia.

According to Ku & Zussman (2010), the primary language of the ubiquitous and all-influential World Wide Web is English due to the progress made in language-translation software and allied technologies. Most peer-to-peer journals and technical periodicals that give international acclaim to scientists, engineers, technologists, and technocrats are printed in English. English is typically the language of latest-version applications and programs and new freeware, shareware, peer-to-peer, social media networks and websites. Software manuals, hardware installation guides and product fact sheets of popular consumer electronics and entertainment devices usually are available in English before other languages (Ku & Zussman, 2010).

The United Kingdom's greatest international influence lies in the English language. The Industrial Revolution began in the United Kingdom, but the country's deepest, widest, and possibly most enduring influence lies in its language through the classic works of literary giants such as William Shakespeare, Charles Dickens, and the Bronte sisters (The Forum on China-Africa Cooperation [FOCAC]¹, 2012). As the most widely used language in the world, English highlights the soft power legacy of the United Kingdom, once an economic powerhouse. English books, trade and its legal system, have changed the world (FOCAC, 2012).

¹ The Forum on China-Africa Cooperation (FOCAC) is an official forum between the People's Republic of China and states in Africa. There have been six summits held to date, with the most recent meeting having occurred in December, 2015 in South Africa. Previous summits were held in October 2000 in Beijing, December 2003 in Addis Ababa, November 2006 in Beijing, November 2009 Sharm El-Sheikh, Egypt and July 2012 in Beijing, China.

Meanwhile, the influence of the United States on political affairs and international relations for the past 100 years has also ensured the proliferation and acceptance of English as the primary spoken language in many countries (Jenkins & Leung, 2014), further contributed to by the widespread acceptance of American pop culture. A working knowledge of English is important for diplomats and high-ranking officials in such major countries as Germany, Japan, France, South Korea, Brazil, Italy, and Russia so they can better understand the nuances and craft of global affairs and international diplomacy (“The Importance of English,” 2015, para. 8). The Commonwealth of Nations, made up of more than 50 former British colonies or dependencies, also offers numerous employment opportunities to those who understand and communicate in English (Sankar & Kumar, 2016). It is not surprising to find that there are “approximately two billion people in the world using and learning English” (Crystal, 2012, p.18). There is also general consensus that there are more speakers of English in the world who use English as an additional language in a bilingual or multilingual context than in a monolingual context (Hung, 2015).

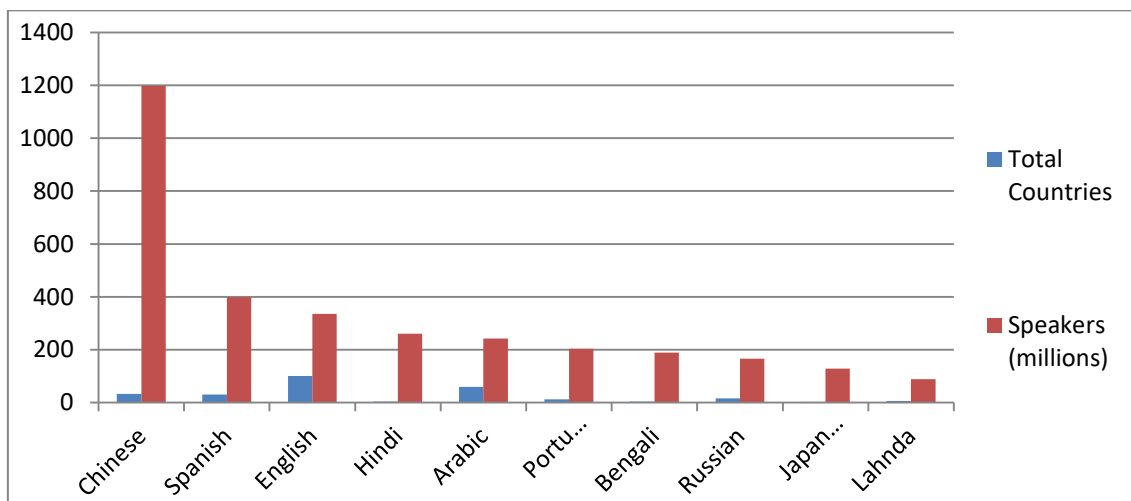


Chart 1. Ranking of the Most Spoken Languages in the World. (Source: James Lane, “The 10 Most Spoken Languages in the World”, www.babbel.com)

The importance of learning English cannot be overstated in an increasingly interconnected and globalized world. Learning to communicate in English is obviously important to everyone nowadays. A functional knowledge of the English language can create many opportunities in international markets and regions.

2.2.1. English as a Foreign Language in Europe

The phenomenon of English as a global language and the spread of English is seen as a reflection of globalization, especially in Europe to the extent that Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) considers English to be a killer of other languages. Certainly it is undeniable that in today's Europe English is the most commonly used means of communication. The Eurobarometer 243 survey on language skills conducted with a sample of 28,694 subjects in the 27 EU countries, plus Croatia and Turkey (European Commission, 2006), indicates that English is the most commonly used second or foreign language, and that 77% of EU citizens consider that children should learn English as their first foreign language at school. Its presence is so pervasive in every realm of daily life that we need to consider whether its conventional role as a mere foreign language is now shifting.

As in many other areas of the EU, in Germany the use of English is gaining ground in higher education. The spread of English into German universities has affected practically all subjects and all levels of university education. In 2009, 26% of German students reported a study-related stay abroad, 50% of them had studied at a foreign

university (DAAD², 2009). In addition, more than 233,000 students from abroad studied at German universities. International student mobility has pushed Germany and other European countries into establishing English-taught programs.

Research in the Netherlands reveals that between 90% and 93% of the Dutch population speaks excellent English, partly because it is well taught in state schools (“Europeans and Their Languages Report,” 2013, p. 27). Due to the small size and population of the Netherlands, and hundreds of years of trade and commerce, particularly between mainland Europe and the United Kingdom, the Dutch put strong emphasis on learning English (Hornikx, Van Meurs, & Boer, 2010). According to “Europeans and Their Languages Report” (2013), another main reason for the high level of English speakers in the Netherlands is the use of subtitles for foreign languages on television rather than audio dubbing. Occupations which require a complex knowledge of English, such as aviation and the sciences, are also abundant in the Netherlands. Nowadays, most important scholarly and scientific publications in the Netherlands are in English with the exception of government related and legal publications. Moreover, English is compulsory at all levels of the Dutch secondary education system and around 100 schools offer bilingual education in Dutch and English. The aim of bilingual education is for the students to obtain the same level of English as the native speakers of Great Britain. Most university master's degrees in the Netherlands are in English, and an increasing number of bachelor's degrees are as well, and there are even first degrees offered in English at community colleges. Students are often taught to perform Internet searches in English, as the results of these obtain a far higher variety and extent of

² DAAD, the German Academic Exchange Service, is a private, federally funded and state-funded, self-governing national agency of the institutions of higher education in Germany, representing 365 German higher education institutions.

information compared to the Dutch equivalent. Furthermore, it is also an official language of the municipality of Amsterdam and the Caribbean municipalities of Sabah and Saint Eustatius (Hornikx, Van Meurs, & Boer, 2010).

Similarly, Spain is a multilingual country, and in certain communities Castilian is taught along with such minority languages as Catalan, Basque or Galician, which have recognized official status in their specific autonomous communities (Lujan-Garcia, 2011). However, English as a foreign language has undoubtedly gained first position in Spain today, though French was the most widely taught foreign language in the past. In addition, English is an obligatory subject from the third grade in primary school all the way through secondary school. The curriculum for both primary and secondary school is established through general guidelines by the Ministry of Education, which also authorizes book publication. Students are required to have a secondary school diploma and to have passed a battery of university examinations including a foreign language test in order to enter a Spanish public university. Most students choose to take the English examination instead of French or German for these entry exams. Moreover, one of the principles supported by the Law on Education in Spain, is the process of learning foreign languages, especially English, throughout the students' lives. Luján-García (2011) regards English not as an option but as an obligation for the youngest generation in Spain.

2.2.2. English as a Foreign Language in Asia

In Asian countries, English as a foreign language is overwhelmingly superior to any other language. Koreans are very enthusiastic about learning English, although in the context of globalization, Koreans tend to see the growing influence of English as an

erosion of Korean identity and independence (Shin, 2007). In the South Korean education system, English is an obligatory major foreign language subject for every student. English is also a subject in the national college entrance exam, as it is in China. It is used as one of the main employee performance evaluation criteria for promotion and overseas training, and it is also the most popular foreign language used in advertising and the most common foreign language utilized in song lyrics, which have become a regular fixture in the entertainment media.

It is obvious that English is profoundly intertwined in an average middle-class Korean citizen's daily routine as part of their discourse, not so much as a means of communication but as a means of achieving academic or professional success. English is a very strong presence in several domains in South Korea, and it is viewed as a necessity for educational and financial success. Therefore, English gains ever more influence through revisions to the national curricula and greater investment in the field of English language learning.

The status of English in Singapore will be different from other Asian countries since Singapore is a multiethnic country and because, due to its history, it is part of the British Commonwealth of Nations. According to the Department of Statistics of Singapore (2015), it has a relatively stable ethnic configuration composed mainly of Chinese (75%), Malays (13.7%) and Indians (8.7%). Though it is a Chinese-dominant society, it is also an English-speaking country. English in Singapore is the language of inter-ethnic communication, of education, government and commerce. In addition, English is one of the official languages of Singapore because of its language policy.

In Japan, there has been much discussion about the status of English and English language teaching in recent decades, yet even in the midst of this discussion and repeated government initiatives, by all accounts average English ability among Japanese

people has not improved, according to Seargeant (2009), who on investigating the use of English in Japanese higher education found that “in Japan English is not interpreted as language, but is used throughout contemporary Japanese society” (p. 34). English is used often in official pronouncements, academic discussions and curriculum design, along with promotional texts and organizational practices of public and private educational organizations, such as universities and language schools; the use of English in artistic and popular culture is also very common (Seargeant, 2009). As Robertson (1995) has described, English in Japan is a kind of “glocalization” because of its profusion after World War II, and Seargeant (2009) describes English as “absorbed into a pattern of Japanese social expression” (p. 73). The ubiquitous use of English loanwords has become very indigenous in Japan, while the role of English in Japanese culture and society is both important and profound. Many Japanese people are encouraged to study abroad to immerse themselves in an English-speaking environment.

In China, it is generally claimed that there are now approximately 300 million English speakers, even though they use English with varying degrees of proficiency (Yong & Campbell, 2015). This is the largest number among countries where English is learnt as their first foreign language. Furthermore, in China, English is used in both international and intranational domains. The former covers international trade and commerce, cultural exchanges and diplomacy among others, and the latter includes newspaper, television programs, broadcasts, and college education. According to Bolton (2011), with China’s admission into the World Trade Organization in November 2001, and the selection of Beijing as the host city for the 2008 Olympic Games, “the craze for English seems to have reached a new peak in China” (p. 55). Undoubtedly, learning English in native speaking countries like the United States, Canada, Great Britain, and

Australia, would be the best choice, but for those who cannot go abroad, universities and academic language schools are the most popular.

2.3. The Current Status of TEFL

Since English is a language of worldwide importance, English teaching is also in high demand by all non-English native speakers whether or not they live in English native speaking countries. The term Teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) refers to teaching English to people whose first language is not English and who are normally resident in a non-English speaking country (Perez, 2010). TEFL can occur in the student's own country, or in an English-speaking immigrant country. For example, students from non-native English-speaking countries such as Spain, or China, who go to the U.S. and the U.K. for an extended period of time, learn English as a foreign language as a means to communicate in the dominant language spoken in the community where they reside. TEFL teachers may be native or non-native English speakers. Similarly EFL learners also study in their own countries with TEFL teachers who may be native or non-native English speakers.

2.3.1 TEFL Status in Europe

Europe is traditionally very English-oriented in comparison with the rest of the world. English is the most commonly spoken foreign language in 19 out of 28 European Union countries excluding the UK and Ireland. In the EU28, working knowledge of English as a foreign language is clearly leading at 38%, followed by German and

French at 14% each, Russian and Spanish at 6% each, and Italian 3% (European Commission, 2015)³. However, as the European Union has expanded and reciprocal links between European nations have strengthened, almost all EU citizens have had at least some contact with English.

The following map shows the percentages of people who are able to hold a conversation in English, by country. It is based on the data contained in the “Special Eurobarometer 386” and the data for Croatia from “Eurobarometer 243”. The data are self-reported, which means that interviewees forming a representative sample of the population reported their ability to speak various languages under the guidance of an interviewer, but their abilities were not actually tested.

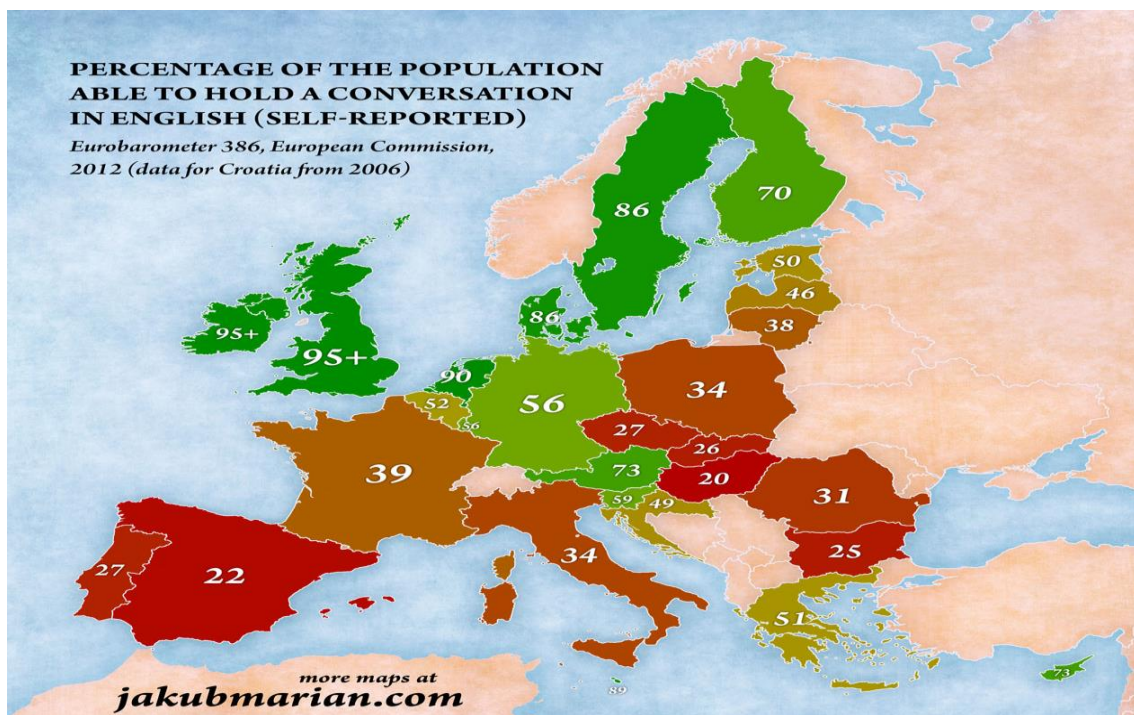
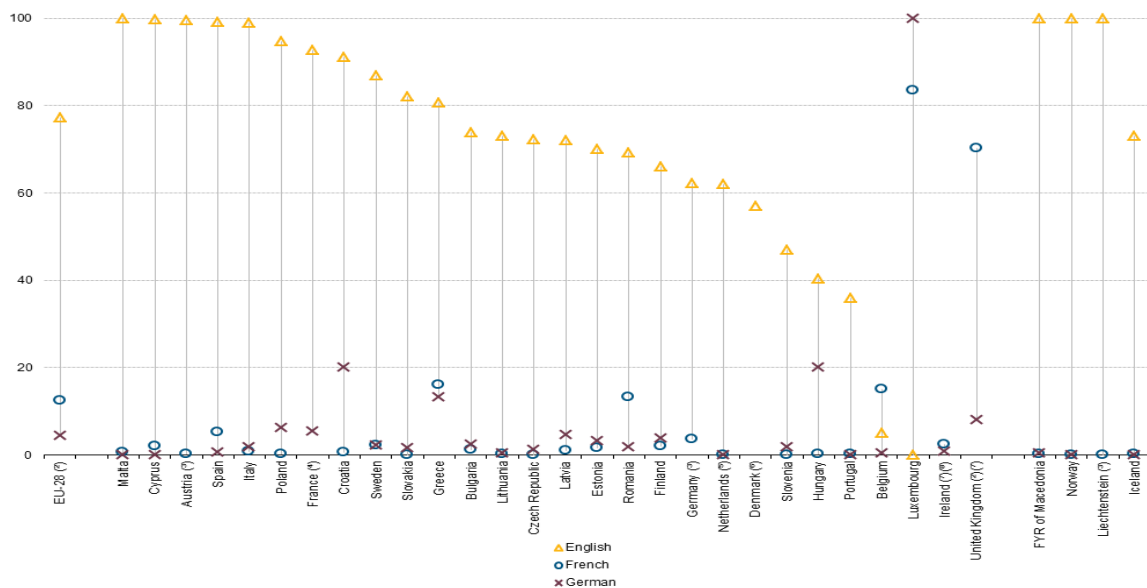


Figure 1. Percentage of the Population Able to Hold a Conversation in English. (Source: European Commission 2012)⁴

³ The European Commission (EC) is the executive body of the European Union responsible for proposing legislation, implementing decisions, upholding the EU treaties and managing the day-to-day business of the EU. It operates as a cabinet government, with 28 members of the Commission.

⁴ Please note that the values “95+” for the UK and Ireland represent the fact that English is not the mother tongue of a relatively large percentage of the British and Irish population (due to immigration), and

According to the Foreign Language Learning Statistics of Eurostat⁵, the proportion of English learners and English teaching programmes in primary education is steadily increasing. A similar situation was found in European secondary education. English teaching programs and English learning are mandatory in most European countries within primary and secondary education institutions, and a number of EU Member States have close to 100% of pupils learning this language already in primary education, as shown in Figure 2 below, such as Malta, Cyprus, Austria, Spain and Italy.



(*) Ranked on English. Refer to the internet metadata file (http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/cache/metadata/en/educ_uoe_enr_es.ms.htm).
 (*) 2012.
 (*) German: not applicable.
 (*) French: not applicable.
 (*) French and German: 2013.
 (*) French and German: not available.
 (*) English: not applicable.
 (*) 2011.
 Source: Eurostat (online data codes: educ_lang and educ_uoe_lang01), UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), OECD

Figure 2. Proportion of pupils in primary education learning foreign languages, by language, 2014 (%)
 (Source: Eurostat and UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), OECD)

estimating the exact number of immigrants who do not speak English is hard (it is unlikely that Eurobarometers provide a representative sample in this case).

⁵ Eurostat is the statistical office of the European Union situated in Luxembourg. Its mission is to provide high quality statistics for Europe. While fulfilling its mission, Eurostat promotes the following values: respect and trust, fostering excellence, promoting innovation, service orientation, professional independence. Website: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat>

Within primary education, a clear majority of pupils in Figure 12 choose to learn English in the majority of EU member states. Based on Figure 12, it can be seen that almost 100% of primary school pupils in Malta, Cyprus, Austria, Spain and Italy learnt English in 2014, as was also the case in Liechtenstein, Norway and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. More than 90% of primary school children learnt English in Poland, France and Croatia. The relative importance of English as a foreign language may be further magnified because pupils tend to receive more instruction in their first foreign language than they do for any subsequent languages they choose to study.

Table 1. FL learnt per pupil in Upper Secondary Education (general), 2009 and 2014 (%)

	Pupils learning English in general programmes		Pupils learning French in general programmes		Pupils learning German in general programmes	
	2009	2014	2009	2014	2009	2014
EU-28	94.2	94.1	26.0	23.0	23.1	18.9
Belgium	95.0	95.6	49.3	48.4	29.3	27.6
Bulgaria	87.5	90.7	14.5	12.4	35.9	34.3
Czech Republic	100.0	95.0	24.8	16.2	60.6	55.8
Denmark	91.6	82.1	10.7	14.6	35.1	28.0
Germany	91.8	86.8	28.1	23.8	–	–
Estonia (*)	96.2	97.6	6.9	7.0	39.2	28.5
Ireland	–	–	58.2	59.5	16.4	16.5
Greece	93.8	94.4	7.8	4.4	3.4	2.5
Spain	94.4	97.5	27.0	24.2	1.1	1.7
France	99.5	99.8	–	–	21.3	21.5
Croatia	99.0	99.5	3.7	4.2	62.5	61.5
Italy	96.5	97.8	20.1	16.1	6.9	8.2
Cyprus	91.4	90.2	40.6	37.1	2.2	6.2
Latvia	97.2	97.8	3.9	5.7	28.8	27.6
Lithuania	90.8	95.3	3.8	2.9	18.8	8.6
Luxembourg	97.7	92.1	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Hungary	79.4	83.1	6.6	5.7	48.7	46.3
Malta (*)	100.0	100.0	6.9	22.2	1.5	4.7
Netherlands	100.0	95.5	64.2	31.1	69.8	40.3
Austria	98.5	99.4	42.5	37.7	–	–
Poland	92.2	94.6	8.7	8.0	54.4	46.7
Portugal	83.2	65.2	13.3	2.8	1.7	1.5
Romania	98.1	99.3	85.3	85.2	12.1	12.8
Slovenia	92.8	98.2	9.8	10.8	66.4	63.4
Slovakia	98.3	99.0	16.4	13.2	67.9	57.7
Finland	99.7	99.9	17.9	11.3	27.8	16.9
Sweden	99.9	100.0	20.0	16.8	27.0	21.4
United Kingdom (*)	–	–	32.3	28.3	11.8	9.7
Iceland	73.2	72.2	13.7	10.7	25.4	22.5
Liechtenstein (*)	100.0	100.0	100.0	96.8	–	–
Norway	44.8	43.9	12.8	9.9	20.3	21.3
Turkey	81.8	99.2	1.4	25.2	14.8	24.1

(*) Refer to the internet metadata file (http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/cache/metadata/EN/educ_uoe_en_esms.htm).

(*) Data for 2008 instead of 2009.

(*) Data for 2010 instead of 2009.

(*) Data for 2013 instead of 2014.

(*) Data for 2011 instead of 2009.

Source: Eurostat (online data codes: educ_ilang and educ_uoe_lang01), Unesco Institute for Statistics (UIS), OECD

(Source: Eurostat and UNESCO Institute for Statistics, OECD)

Turning to English language teaching and learning in upper secondary general education as shown in Table 1, some 94.1 % of all EU-28 students at this level were studying English as a foreign language in 2014, compared with less than one quarter (23.0 %) studying French, while less than one fifth were studying Spanish (19.1 %) or German (18.9 %). Between 2009 and 2014, the proportion of students at ISCED level 3⁶ in the EU-28 studying English was stable .

As for English teaching in higher Education, a recently published study “*English-Taught Programmes in European Higher Education*”⁷ by ACA reveals that the offer of English-taught Bachelor and Master programs in non-English speaking European countries has grown tremendously over the last ten years. The study was funded by the European Commission and its conclusions are based on data from, amongst others, Study Portals⁸ and Eurostat. A similar trend was observed in two earlier studies by Study Portals in cooperation with Brenn-White Group and IIE on English-Taught Master’s programs in 2011 and 2013 (ACA, 2014).

According to “English-Taught Programmes in European Higher Education in 2014” by Bernd Wächter and Friedhelm Maiworm, a significant increase in English-

⁶ The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) is a statistical framework for organizing information on education maintained by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). It is a member of the international family of economic and social classifications of the United Nations.

⁷ This is the third study on English-medium instruction of the Academic Cooperation Association (ACA). This report maps the provision of English-taught Bachelor and Master programs in non-English-speaking European countries. The present study is able to trace the quantitative and qualitative development of English-medium instruction over a 12-year period.

⁸ StudyPortals started as a spin-off from a couple of large international study associations, frustrated by the lack of information to find international Masters in Europe: MastersPortal.com was born and proved to be an overwhelming success. Website: <http://www.studyportals.com/>

taught degree programs is evident all across Europe. The number of English-taught Bachelor and Master programs has risen by almost 1,000% in the period since 2002 (ETPEHE, 2014). Growth in student enrollment in these programs has been far more moderate, however. Furthermore, there remain huge differences between individual countries, especially in the form of a North-South divide. The bulk of the provision of English-medium instruction is concentrated at the Masters level. The proportion of institutions offering English-taught courses has grown significantly in Nordic and Baltic countries. On the contrary, in South and Eastern Europe the number of institutions is little changed, which implies that the same institutions have just widened their offer. Institutions reported that the most important reasons to introduce English-taught programs are an improved international profile and awareness of the institutions as well as the strengthening of cooperation with foreign partner universities and institutions. See Figure 3 for the details.

Indicators for the quantitative importance of ETP-by region and country (%)			
	Proportion of higher education institutions offering ETPs	Proportion of study programmes provided in English	Proportion of students enrolled in ETPs in the academic year 2013/14
Nordic Countries	60.6	19.9	5.3
DK	48.0	38.0	12.4
FI	83.3	23.2	2.9
IS	50.0	3.3	1.6
NO	41.1	8.1	2.4
SE	81.0	24.2	4.4
Baltic Countries	38.7	10.3	1.7
EE	30.4	9.1	1.5
LT	48.8	11.0	1.5
LV	33.3	9.9	2.2
Central West Europe	44.5	9.9	2.2
AT	46.6	9.4	1.8
BE	29.2	7.5	1.1
CH	48.7	13.9	2.1
DE	43.3	5.9	1.0
NL	65.0	29.9	7.2
Central East Europe	19.9	5.0	1.0
CZ	27.8	6.3	1.5
HU	35.2	5.5	2.0
PL	17.8	4.9	0.7
SI	8.6	9.9	2.7
SK	21.2	2.3	0.8
South West Europe	17.2	2.8	0.5
ES	20.3	2.3	0.3
FR	16.1	3.4	0.7
IT	19.8	2.9	0.5
PT	14.3	3.0	0.5

Figure 3. Indicators for the Quantitative Importance of ETPs. (Source: *English-Taught Programmes in European Higher Education*)

2.3.2 TEFL Status in China

As the most populous country in the world, China also has one of the largest populations of English students and a history of more than seven decades of English language teaching and learning (Haberland, Lønsmann, & Preisler, 2013). The emphasis on English education started to flourish at all levels including the school and university systems, commerce and the wider population from 1979, when the Cultural Revolution ended, and strong diplomatic ties were established between the United States and China, as well as between China and the West. English has long been considered as one of the most vital subjects in the Chinese school curriculum. During the past decade, the government has been addressing the necessity of being able to communicate effectively in English as students' English mastery is directly associated with future educational opportunities, career and income, especially in the commercial sector (Hu, 2013). More people are now learning English in China than in any other country which is having a deeper and more extensive impact on the daily lives and working habits of Chinese people. Grasping English has become crucial for access to higher education inside and outside China, especially after Beijing won the bid to hold the 2008 Olympic Games. The new basic education curriculum system for the 21st century by the Ministry of Education of China, issued in autumn 2001, stipulates that the English language is to be a compulsory subject taught from at least Grade Three when students are aged eight or nine in primary schools throughout mainland China⁹.

It is very difficult to determine how many people use English in China, but Yong and Campbell (2015) suggest a figure of 250-350 million, based on the number of school and college graduates, because all students study English at some point in their

⁹ Source from the website of Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, <http://www.moe.edu.cn/>

education resulting in a total that equates to the entire population of the USA. The number of people in China who desire to learn English outnumbers the total populations of the United States and Britain combined (Wang, 2013). A recent Asia Society's report finds that there are more than 300 million and rising Chinese students learning English in China; and according to another study, China now produces more than 20 million new users of English every year (Sung, 2010). English is the most widely learned and used foreign language in China.

The English language is having an increasingly significant effect on the region's language policies, education systems and patterns of language use. As Ortega et al. (2014) point out, English is perceived by language policymakers in Asian countries, especially in China, as an essential multinational tool for achieving national goals, and by individuals as an indispensable resource for personal advancement. Therefore, China has promoted the acquisition of English by their citizens by increasing the resources for English language teaching and learning, as well as the amount of curriculum time allocated to English. Accordingly, the demand for English teachers is increasing annually.

According to a recent survey, English occupies about 90% of the compulsory foreign language courses in China. In addition, considerable tensions and concerns over the preservation of cultural identities and languages have resulted from these attempts to respond to the role and status of English as a global language (Gil & Adamson, 2011). This conflict reflects mainland China's historical experience. As Gil and Adamson (2011) have noted:

Vast national appetite has elevated English to something more than a language: it is not simply a tool but a defining measure of life's potential. China today is divided by class, opportunity, and power, but one of its

few unifying beliefs-something shared by waiters, politicians, intellectuals, tycoons-is the power of English [.....] English has become an ideology, a force strong enough to remake your resume, attract a spouse or catapult you out of a village (p. 44).

The historical overview suggests that the role and status of English in mainland China has reached unprecedented heights, although fundamental cultural and political tensions remain (Bolton& Graddol, 2012). At the same time, students' performance in learning English and in taking English tests is of vital significance for their total achievements at school, for their opportunities for further learning, and consequently for their future development.

Furthermore, many major initiatives promote English language proficiency in the education system. The Ministry of Education of China (2001) announced that English classes would begin in grade three of primary school with a view to starting classes from grade one in the future. In some major cities of China, English teaching starts as early as kindergarten, where children learn English through songs, games, and playing with toys. English learning continues in secondary school and in universities.

According to the latest statistics, over 66 million junior secondary and over 16 million senior secondary students study English as a foreign language. At the university level, every student has to study English as a foreign language for at least two years till they get a certificate of CET 4 (College English Test 4)¹⁰ to complete their university

¹⁰ The College English Test, better known as CET, is a kind of national English as a foreign language test in the People's Republic of China. It's for non-English-Major students, and its purpose is to examine the English proficiency of undergraduate students and postgraduate students in China and ensure that Chinese undergraduates and postgraduates reach the required English levels specified in the National College

studies and get their degree. Apart from this, the English as a foreign language program is divided into two sections: one for foreign language majors, which is handled by language faculties or foreign language departments, and the other for non-foreign language majors, which is handled by all faculties of universities in China. The courses for non-English major students are officially known as College English (Wang, 1999; Jin, 2011), the courses for English-major students are required to pass the Test for English Majors 4 (TEM-4)¹¹ in order to graduate.

From these we can tell the great influence English has exercised on the life of the Chinese people, by the students, parents of students, or working people. The time, energy, effort, and money a person spends on his or her English learning far surpass those he or she puts into the learning of Chinese as a school course. Most Chinese students, due to the EFL teaching methods and their school environment, have tended to be strong at reading and writing English, and weak at listening and speaking, which are more important for EL learners' communication and practice with English speakers. This reflects the significance of the language in Chinese society and the size of the potential contribution that English could make to the economic development of mainland China, rather than that this population can skillfully use the English Language.

Therefore, today an emergent trend known as bilingual education is becoming popular to teach secondary school courses such as mathematics and science through the medium of English. The Ministry of Education of China issued a circular in September

English Teaching Syllabuses (NCETS). This test has existed in China for 26 years and now has a huge test population of 18 million people annually. It includes two levels - CET4 and CET6.

¹¹ The Test for English Majors (TEM) in China, is generally only for English major students. For these students, passing the TEM-4 is a graduation requirement. The test should be taken by the end of the second academic or sophomore year. TEM-8 is the highest level for English major students; it should be taken during the end of the last academic or senior year.

2001, instructing all universities and colleges to use English as the medium of instruction for certain subjects, including information technology, biotechnology, finance, foreign trade, economics and law.

2.4. Chinese as a Foreign Language in the World

Insightful people in the West know that China had long been the world's largest economy before the West's Industrial Revolution, and is the only ancient civilization in human history that has lasted thousands of years without any interruption due to its stable written language system (Lin, 2013). It is significant for China to show the charm of its culture spanning thousands of years through its language. As mentioned in chapter 1, language always reflects and expresses the heartfelt wishes of mankind, and records the development of a country's national spirit. Only when it regains confidence in its culture, will the Chinese nation, which has a beautiful language, get enough say in international affairs, be able to compete with other countries in various fields such as economy and culture, carry forward its civilization, and contribute greatly to global cultural exchanges.

China, the country of a rich culture, which has a 5000-year history, is attracting more and more foreigners to learn Chinese in China. Moreover, as the world's fastest growing major economy with thirty years of continuous GDP growth averaging around 10% a year, China surpassed Japan in 2011 to become the second largest economy in the world after the USA (The World Bank, 2015). Since China continues its rise on the world stage, demand for Chinese as a foreign language (CFL) is growing in every corner of the world. Economists predict that by 2020, China will without doubt surpass the United States as the biggest international superpower (The Economist, 2015).

With over 1.3 billion people in China and various other parts of the world speaking it, the Chinese language obviously stands out as the most spoken language and one of the most important languages in the world. It is not surprising, therefore, that China is growing as a world superpower and shows no sign of slowing down. Bianco (2011) described China as “the gigantic up-and-comer” (p. 8), and Tsung (2010) pointed out that Chinese would be the “new English” in global contexts (p. 16). According to Hanban’s Statistics as at 30th September, 2014, there are more than more than 100 million foreign speakers and learners of Mandarin worldwide with 350,000 foreigners studying Chinese language in 746 Chinese universities (Hanban, 2014).

As China’s fast growing economy and geopolitical influence continue to expand around the globe, the Chinese language has been rising in both visibility and importance as a powerful, global language. There is no doubt that the booming phenomenon of learning Chinese will last for a very long time even though it is difficult to learn, because knowledge of the written language opens up the culture of one of the world’s oldest civilizations. Kevin Rudd echoed the thoughts of many proponents when he honored delegates for their role in promoting greater cooperation and understanding between China and the rest of the world (“Comparative Connections,” 2016, para. 5).

The study of the Chinese language opens the way to such important fields as Chinese politics, economy, business, history or archaeology. As Foley (2016) affirms, Chinese has become a popular choice for a foreign or second language among college students, surpassing previous favorites that include Spanish, French, and German.

2.4.1. Chinese as a Foreign Language in North America

Although Chinese is not yet as widely taught in the United States or Canada as French or Spanish, it is the fastest growing in the U.S. and Canada. Learning foreign languages is a Canadian tradition, but the growing interest in learning Chinese has been especially important since the late 1990s, reflecting a broader turn towards Asian and away from European languages (Ling & Zhang, 2007). According to Statistics Canada 2011, there are 1,112,610 Chinese immigrants with 16.3% of population speaking Chinese languages.

Table 2. Population of Immigrant Mother Tongue Families, Main Language Comprising Each Family, Canada, 2011¹²

Description			
Language Family	Main Languages	Number	Percentage
Niger-Congo Languages	Akan, Swahili, Rundi	81,135	1.2
Cushitic Languages	Somali, Oromo	45,880	0.7
Semitic Languages	Arabic, Hebrew, Amharic	449,58	6.6
Turkic Languages	Turkish, Azerbaijani	36,750	0.5
Armenian	Armenian	31,680	0.5
Indo-Iranian Languages	Punjabi, Urdu, Persian, Hindi	1,179,990	17.3
Dravidian Languages	Tamil, Malayalam, Telugu	175,280	2.6
Chinese Languages	Chinese(n.o.s),Cantonese, Mandarin	1,112,610	16.3
Tibeto-Burman Languages	Tibetan, Burmese	8,210	0.1
Korean	Korean	142,880	2.1
Japanese	Japanese	43,040	0.6
Malayo-Polynesian Languages	Tagalog, Ilocano, Malay	443,750	6.5
Tai-Kadai Languages	Lao, Thai	22,615	0.3
Austro-Asiatic Languages	Vietnamese, Khmer	174,455	2.6

Language Distribution

- Niger-Congo
- Cushitic
- Semitic
- Turkic
- Armenian
- Indo-Iranian
- Dravidian
- Chinese
- Tibeto-Burman
- Korean

(Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Population, 2011)

¹²Notes:

Language families are listed according to major region of origin: African and Middle Eastern languages are shown first, followed by Asian languages, European languages and, finally, Creole languages, which come mainly from the Americas but are also found in other regions such as the Indian Ocean.

With the rise of China and the corresponding rapid growth of Chinese language education in global contexts, Daniel Fried (2013), professor of Chinese and Comparative Literature at the University of Alberta, advocates that Chinese language education should be considered as one of the most global languages. As part of an annual survey of Albertans' attitudes toward China, released in 2013, the China Institute of the University of Alberta found that 62% of New Democratic Party supporters, 48% of Liberals, and 35% of Tories agreed with the statement that the ability to speak Chinese would become more important to Canadians. Several school systems have already begun Chinese programs such as Edmonton's system which runs the largest public-school Chinese-language program in the Western world. However, as of now, Chinese language education is subject to the vagaries of provincial and local education politics, with no national coordination and no dedicated financial support in Canada.

In the United States, many schools are offering courses to promote Chinese language and culture. In addition to this, Chinese language study has traditionally been available in university and other programs. Liu Jun from Georgia State University, a delegate at the International Conference on Language held in Suzhou City in 2014, described welcomed the rise in popularity of Mandarin courses that other countries needed the Chinese language to avoid misunderstanding and to do business with China. Robert Kapp (2014), a key architect of China-US relations and former president of the US-China Business Council, advocated that China has a gigantic, marvelous cultural repertoire, and the expansion of Chinese language instruction and courses in America would afford more opportunities to US students to be exposed to the language, history and culture of China. (BBC Interview, 2014)

Robert Davis (2007), director of the Chinese-language program in Chicago's public school system, which has 8,000 students studying Mandarin, also says "Chinese

isn't the new French, it's the new English" ("As China Booms," 2007, para. 4). According to the statistics of Modern Language Association, in 2013 there were 61055 students studying the Chinese language in US colleges and universities, twice as many as in 2002. Apart from this, there are Chinese programs in more than 550 elementary, junior high and senior high schools, a 100% increase in the last two years. The percentage of schools in the U.S. offering Chinese has increased at both the elementary and secondary levels. In 2008, Chinese was taught at 3% of elementary schools and 4% of secondary schools with language programs (Pufahl & Rhodes, 2011). Marty Abbott, spokeswoman for the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, said that the number of students studying Chinese had reached around 50,000 ("Mandarin's Moment," 2014, para. 7).

Data from the Asia Society Report of 2014 show that enrollment in Chinese language courses in American schools is six times higher than a decade ago. According to figures from the U.S. Census Bureau 2015, Chinese is the third most widely spoken language at home after English and Spanish, around 2.0 million speakers in the United States, followed by French, around 1.6 million speakers, and German, around 1.4 million speakers. See Chart 2 for more information.

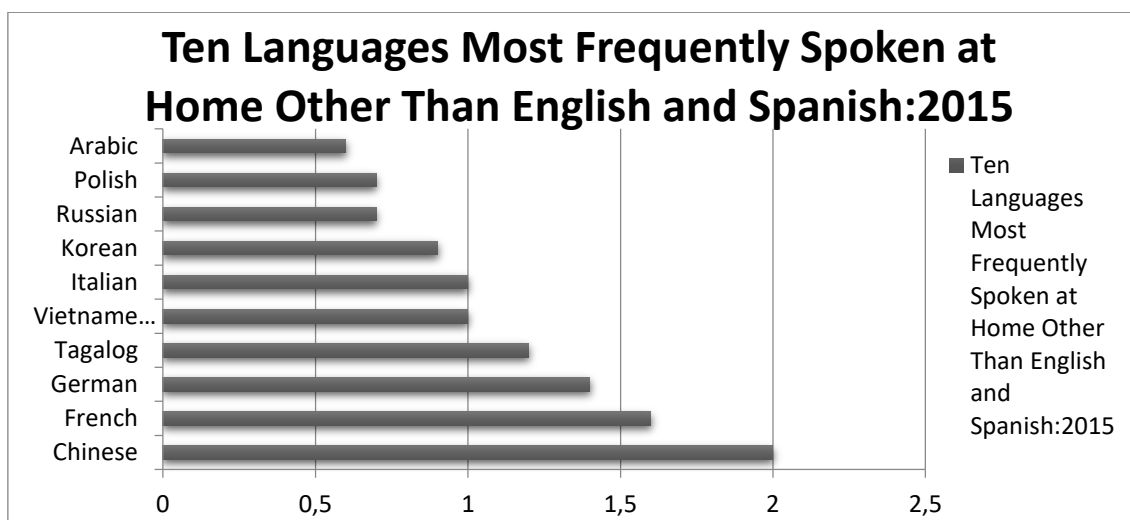


Chart 2. Ten languages Most Frequently Spoken at Home Other Than English and Spanish. (Source: U.S. Census Bureau Official Website)

The survey carried out in 1990 among Chinese immigrants and international students in the U.S. conducted by Wiley indicates about 99% of respondents from mainland China, 96.1% of respondents from Taiwan, and 65.3% of respondents from Hong Kong in the United States reported that they could speak Mandarin well or very well (Wiley et al., 2008). By the mid-1990s, about 80% of pupils in community-based heritage Chinese schools in the U.S. were being taught in Mandarin (Liu, 2014).

With the launching of the first Advanced Placement Chinese course in Fall 2006, and the first Advanced Placement Chinese exam in May 2007 by the College Board, Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language reached a new milestone in North America. Various surveys revealed that 2696 American high schools were offering Chinese language and culture classes, and the number of secondary school students taking Chinese is between 20,000 and 24,000. According to the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, roughly 89,000 young people were studying Chinese as of the 2013-14 academic year was dwarfed by the millions learning Spanish (ACTFL, 2014). As for heritage students, surveys have put the number of students studying Chinese in Chinese Heritage Schools and other private schools across the United States at about 150,000. As a Modern Language Association survey of foreign language enrollments in institutions of higher education in the United States carried out in 2015, indicates that there has been a 20% enrollment growth, from 28,456 in 1998 to 34,153 in 2002, and a 51% increase in 2015 over 2002. In 2014, 750,000 people took the Chinese Proficiency Test. By comparison, in 2015, 117,660 non-native speakers took the test, an increase of 26.52% from 2014. From 2010 to 2014, the number of students in England, Wales and Northern Ireland taking Advanced Level exams in Chinese increased by 57% (Kariyawasam, 2015).

The Modern Language Association of America (MLA) conducts regular surveys of language enrollment at universities in the US. The most recent survey, taken in 2009, shows Mandarin catching up to Japanese and positively dwarfing its regional counterparts. See Chart 3 for the status of Asian languages being studied in American universities.

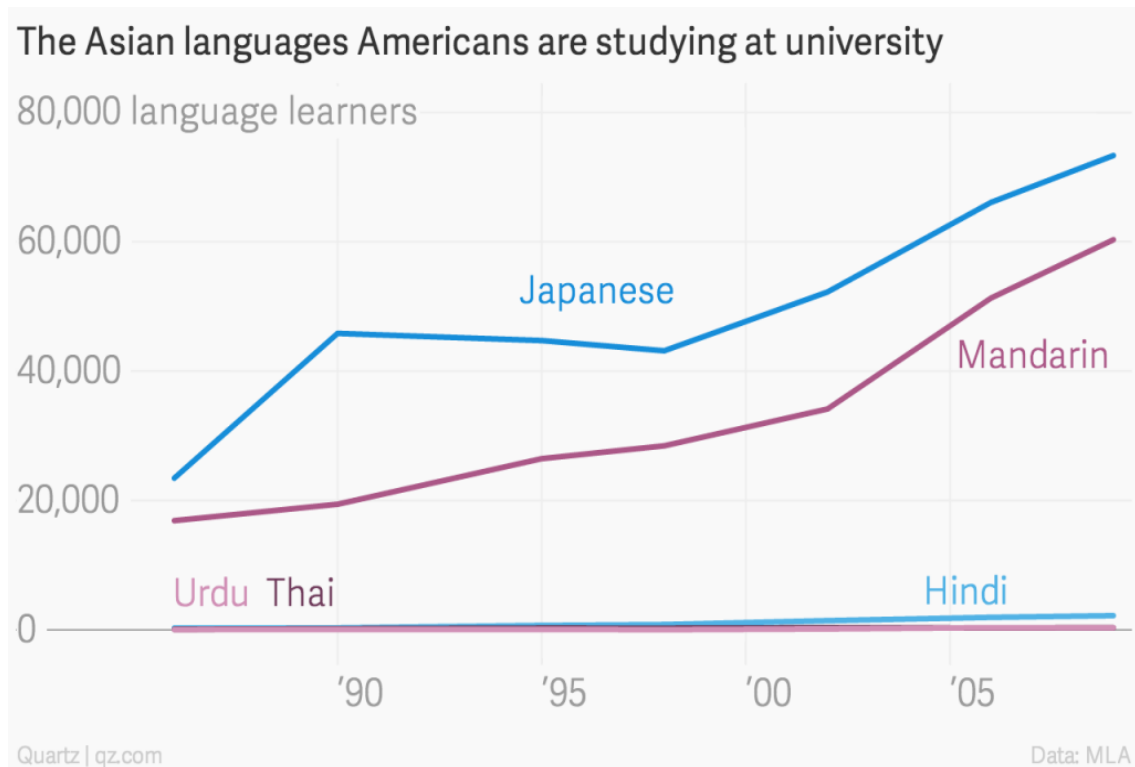


Chart 3. Asian languages Americans are Studying at University. (Source: *People in the West Can Stop Obsessing about Learning Chinese*)

2.4.2. Chinese as a Foreign Language in Europe

There has been a huge growth recently in the number of non-Chinese heritage people learning Mandarin, due to the rapid economic development of China as well as the international trading link between China and Europe, but Westerners actually started learning Chinese as early as the 16th century. The first Westerners to master Chinese, were the Italian Jesuits, Michele Ruggieri and Matteo Ricci. They are also considered

the first foreigners to teach Chinese (Laven, 2011). Chinese civilization began to influence the world in the 15th century due to China's supremacy in philosophy, art, silk making, printing and other fields when Europe was well into the Renaissance.

In the United Kingdom, a new Confucius Institute was set up in 2015 with the express goal of "increasing the UK's supply of qualified Mandarin teachers to 1,200 by 2019" ("Confucius Institutes Expanding," 2014). The British Education Minister, at the time of writing, Elizabeth Truss pointed out that "China's growing economy brings huge business opportunities for Britain, and it is vital that more of our young people can speak Mandarin to be able to trade in a global market and to develop successful companies"(BBC Report, 2014). However, John Worne, director of strategy at the British Council has noted sluggish growth in the number of students learning Chinese, a language he regards as "one of the most important languages for the UK's future on the world's stage, according to our own British Council research." (CCTV English Channel Interview, 2014).

As at October 2015, the UK now has 29 Confucius Institutes and 126 Confucius Classrooms at universities in Manchester, Cardiff, Lampeter, Nottingham, Sheffield, Edinburgh and London, more than any other country in Europe, and stands second only to the United States as a host country (China Daily, 2015). Brighton College, an independent school in East Sussex, is the first school to make Chinese compulsory, alongside French, Spanish and Latin in 2006. The rapid expansion of the Confucius Institutes in the UK is playing a significant role in language learning and in promoting cultural understanding between China and the West. Professor Lutz Marten (2015), director of the London Confucius Institute, used Chinese President Xi's UK visit to emphasize that the more people learn Chinese language and culture, the better understanding they would have to improve relations between UK and China (CCTV

English Channel Interview, 2015). Even Prince Andrew used the Confucius Institute Conference to express his support for the development of Confucius Institutes and Classrooms to encourage more UK children to learn Chinese. (Andrew, 2014).

Data from the Higher Education Statistics Agency shows that more than 1,500 students took Chinese or Mandarin at undergraduate or postgraduate level in 2011, making it the least popular major language apart from Japanese. Since then, the British government has laid out plans to support Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language (TCFL) in schools. A British Council survey (2016) of secondary schools in the UK shows an increasing interest in Chinese instruction. The numbers are still small for classes taken as part of the UK’s national curriculum, but Mandarin is second after Italian on the list of extra languages schools offer (“Languages for the Future,” 2016) as confirmed by a British Council report released in 2014. See Chart 4 for the details.

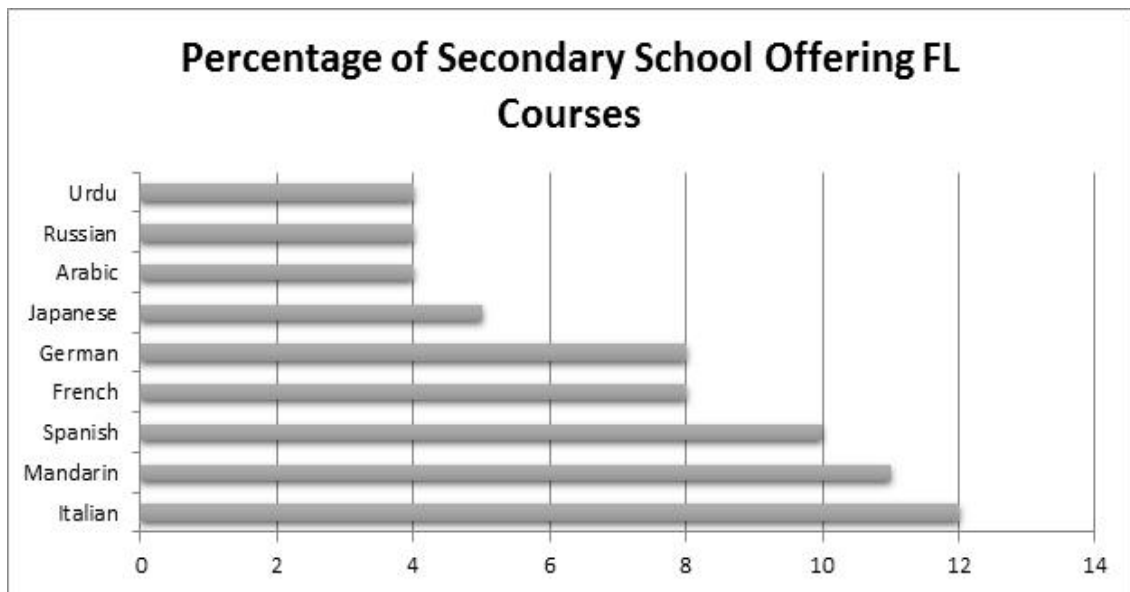


Chart 4. Languages Offered Outside Normal Curriculum in the UK. (Source: Board K, Tinsley T. Language Trends 2013/14)

The high trend of Mandarin study in the UK shown in Chart 5 coincides with an initiative from the British government to give the language more importance in the British education system. Following a visit to China, the UK Prime Minister David

Cameron (2013) encouraged students to start studying Chinese, a language he saw as key to future success, stressing that it was time for British schools to shift the focus away from traditional European languages to Chinese (Financial Times, 2013). To facilitate growth in Chinese language teaching in UK, 60 head teachers were sent on study trips China in 2013, and the UK government will continue providing subsidies for schools to train language teachers.

Now around 600 primary and middle schools in the UK offer Mandarin classes, and it was hoped to boost the number of young British Chinese-speakers to 400,000 by the end of 2016 (Wu & Liu, 2015). The target echoes a proposal put forward by members of the Scottish Parliament in June 2014 to double the number of school students in Scotland gaining qualifications in Chinese by 2017 (Tinsley & Board, 2014). According to a recent poll, there are 4,200 UK students studying Chinese in China, and 9% of secondary schools offer Chinese lessons, with 2,541 students taking a GCSE in Mandarin in 2012.

In Germany most of the current experts began learning Mandarin at universities in their late teens or early twenties. In the 2010/2011 academic year, more than 232 schools in Germany were offering Chinese courses (Laimböck, 2012). Data from the German professional association for Chinese, shows approximately 10,000 students learning Mandarin in Germany in 2014 (Niu, 2016). Apart from this, there are 15 established Confucius Institutes across Germany. The German government has also founded scholarship programs, which support students for one or two semesters or an internship abroad in China (Hanban, 2015).

Guder (2015), President of the Chinese Teaching Association of Germany, considers that now is the best time to introduce a Chinese Major to high schools in Germany. In a report for the teachers and students from the School of Chinese as a

Second Language, he explains that the interest in Chinese is not only because China is increasingly important in international economics and politics, but also because German high school students are curious about cultures outside Europe. Alongside language courses, Chinese food, art, fengshui, acupuncture, traditional medicine, music and martial arts are also enjoying increasing popularity in Germany (Niu, 2016).

Similarly, Chinese language education has developed rapidly in France in recent years. According to officials from the French Ministry of Education, learning Chinese as a foreign language has become a national phenomenon in France. The ministry has designated sinologist Joel Bellassen as the General Inspector of National Education for Chinese Language in order to further promote the development of Chinese language education in France (Lin, 2012). According to Bellassen (2012), nearly 30,000 middle school students in France were studying Chinese by 2012. Furthermore, 16,000 college students and 2,000 pupils across France were also learning Chinese, and the number of HSK takers in 2011 were 22 times higher than in the 1990s. Bellassen (2012) sees the desire to learn Chinese as representing the economic strength of the Chinese-speaking world, the rise of China's international status, and the charm of the language and culture. In addition, the French daily newspaper *Libération* (2012) claimed that China's economic vitality was encouraging the French people to learn Chinese ("Learning Chinese Becomes Popular," 2012, para. 10). Greater proficiency in Chinese obviously become a socially recognized skill for young jobseekers in France. Most business schools in France now offer Chinese language courses, some are compulsory. In a survey of high schools in France, Sarikas (2015) suggested that Chinese should be taken as one of the most important foreign languages in colleges in addition to English and Spanish (cited in "Which FL Should Be Taken," 2015, para. 15).

According to a survey made by the University of Comillas in Spain, Chinese language courses will extend throughout Spain as the second language of choice over the next ten years (Humanities and Social Sciences, 2016). As at 2016, there are six Confucius Institutes in Spain, a network of non-profit public institutions affiliated with the Chinese Ministry of Education (Hanban-Madrid, 2016). In addition, universities such as Salamanca, Zaragoza, Santiago de Compostela are applying for the Confucius Institute to promote Chinese language and culture studies and to meet the demand for Mandarin language courses and qualified teachers. An official Spanish report "Europe and China", showed that in 2013 more than 7100 Spanish learners of Chinese had taken the HSK¹³ exams, maintaining the highest level of exam takers in Europe for three consecutive years from 2011. In 2015, in Madrid alone, more than 8600 Spanish learners of Chinese attempted the HSK exams, a 14% increase on 2014 (Hanban-Madrid, 2016). In the universities, the scope of teaching Chinese culture is extended from a simple description of the language to offering professional translation and grant degrees. For example, the Autonomous University of Barcelona is offering official masters courses in "East Asian Studies" and "Chinese and Western professional translation"; the University of Alcalá also offers a masters degree in cross-cultural communication, Chinese-Spanish interpretation and translation. Up to now, there are more than 40 universities, 150 secondary schools, and 100 Chinese language schools offering Chinese language courses in Spain. In 2011 the Spanish Education Culture and Sports Division and regional schools, jointly formed the "Spanish Foreign Language Teacher Assistants" project, including Chinese. TCFL teachers were appointed directly

¹³ The language families are listed according to (汉语水平考试), translated as the Chinese Proficiency Test or the Chinese Standard Exam, China's only standardized test of Standard Chinese language proficiency for non-native speakers such as foreign students and overseas Chinese.

from the headquarters of Hanban's¹⁴ office to the primary and secondary schools for each region of Spain. Experts estimate that the total number of learners of Chinese will have exceeded 40,000 in Spain in 2016 (Qu, 2016).

2.4.3. Chinese as a Foreign Language in Other Countries

Growth of Chinese language programs and deeper bilateral educational exchange has in no way been limited to these major destination markets. In 2015 alone, over 372,000 people from around the world took the Official Chinese Proficiency Test (HSK). The 875 Global Chinese examination sites are located in 114 different countries, or regions. Hu Zhiping (2015), the Deputy Director of Hanban and Confucius Institute Headquarters predicts that the number of Chinese learners taking the HSK test will break one million within five years.

In Hungary, the Central and Eastern Europe Chinese Language Teachers Training Centre began its first training course at the Confucius Institute of Eotvos Lorand University (ELTE) in Budapest in 2014. Dozens of local Chinese language teachers from eleven Central and Eastern European countries came to attend the training (Hanban, 2014). Chinese learning is becoming increasingly common in Hungary.

¹⁴ Hanban is governed by the Office of Chinese Language Council International. Hanban describes itself as a "non-government and non-profit organization". According to the mission statement: "Hanban is committed to developing Chinese language and culture teaching resources and making its services available worldwide, meeting the demands of overseas Chinese learners to the utmost degree, and to contributing to global cultural diversity and harmony." Generally, the Council is charged with cultivating knowledge and interest in the Chinese language and culture in nations around the world that are not native speakers of Chinese.

According to the Xinhua News Report (2016), 50% of primary schools in Budapest offer Chinese courses. Since the first full-time Chinese-Hungarian bilingual school launched in 2004 based on the Hungary's "Opening to the East" policy, Chinese teaching is flourishing in Hungary, with the number of enrolled students in 2016 23 times larger than in 2004 (Xinhua, 2016).

In Africa, as cultural and trade ties between China and Africa grow, the interest in learning Chinese has grown in African countries. Hanban (2016) operates 38 Confucius Institutes at many of Africa's top universities, stretching from Cape Town to Cairo by 2016. According to the Minister of Basic Education of South Africa, Angie Motshekga (2016), "Chinese language lessons would be introduced in the schools for grades 4 to 10 in 2016, to be followed by grade 11 in 2017 and grade 12 in 2018" (Xinhuanet, 2016). In addition, the "African Talents Program", announced in 2012, trained 30,000 African professionals in China between 2013 and 2015, and 18,000 African trainees have benefited from full scholarships to study at Chinese universities under the scheme (ICEF Monitor¹⁵, 2015).

Apart from the above countries, many other countries have already started to introduce Chinese courses into their curriculums, Australia being one of the leaders. For example, the fluent Chinese of Kevin Rudd, the former Australian Prime Minister, has had some influence on the education system in Australia, while former Prime Minister Gillard (2012) announced that every children in kindergarten should graduate from high school with a sound working knowledge of Asia (cited in HindiLearner News, 2012, p. 14). This major foreign policy entails both historical and cultural knowledge, and significant changes to the foreign language curriculum to promote Mandarin, Japanese, Hindi and Indonesian in Australia. According to Sturak (2010), 92,931 students were

¹⁵ ICEF Monitor is a dedicated market intelligence resource for the international education industry.

enrolled in Chinese programs with around 5,256 enrolled at Year 12 level in 2008 resulting a higher increase compared with other Asian languages. See Chart 5 for the details.

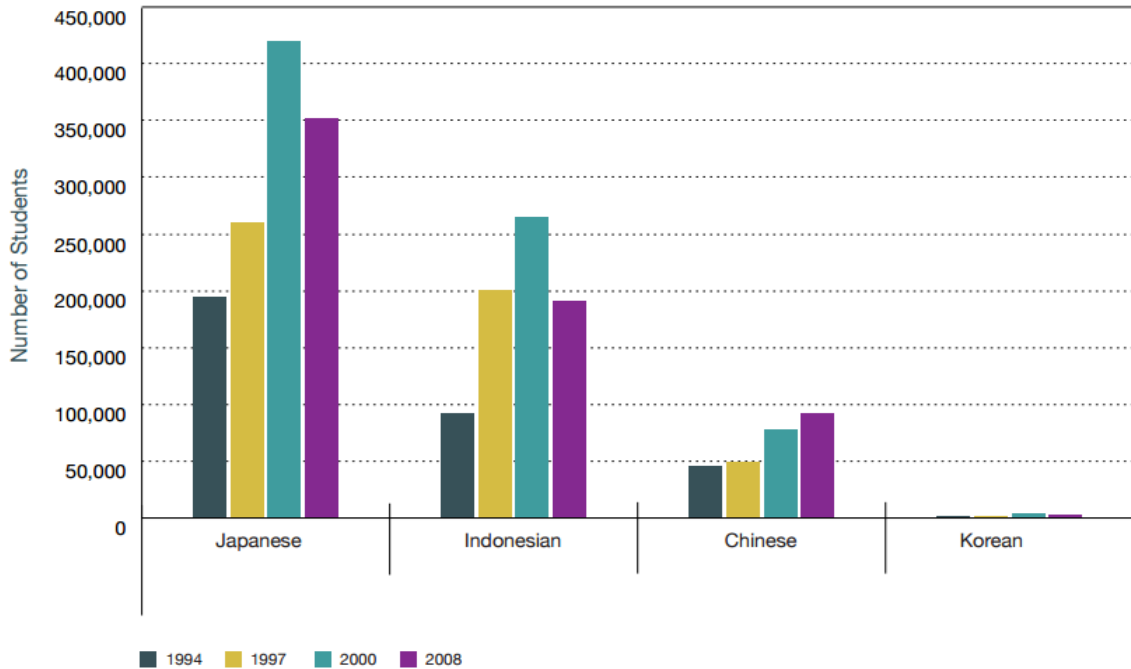


Chart 5. Number of Students in K-12 Studying Asian Languages 1994, 1997, 2000 and 2008. (Source: The Current State of Chinese, Indonesian, Japanese and Korean Language Education in Australian Schools)

Chart 5 shows that the number of K-12 students studying Asian languages in Australia were decreasing in 2008 compared with 2000, with the exception of Chinese, where courses across Australia were estimated to be taught in more than 380 schools (Sturak, 2010). Furthermore, in order to help students achieve advanced proficiency in Chinese through study abroad and other programs, starting in 2014, the Asia Bound Grants Program provides financial assistance to 3600 young Australians each year in the form of \$2000 or \$7500 grants for study in China (“Studying in China,” 2013). These types of financial and educational programs demonstrate the importance of China and Chinese language to Australia, as well as to many other countries in Asia.

In addition, Chinese language learning programs also demonstrate the importance of China and its culture to New Zealand. According to the 2013 Census

information, there were 171,411 Chinese people living in New Zealand (Statistics New Zealand, 2014), and Chinese is the third most common language spoken in New Zealand (Tan, 2015). Research from the Asia New Zealand Foundation shows a clear preference for school children to learn Chinese compared with other non-English languages. The foundation's survey found that 83 per cent of New Zealanders were in favor of learning a second language in school, and a majority 49 per cent of respondents said children in schools should learn Chinese (“China Business,” 2015). Pat English (2015), the NZ China Council executive director, said that “New Zealand must increase the number of students learning Chinese at the post-primary level.” (Nzherald News, 2015). Moreover, the New Zealand government has set up a program called “Asian Language Learning in Schools (ALLiS)” whose aim is to increase the number of students learning Asian languages to support growing trade and international relationships, especially to encourage greater collaboration among schools in partnership with external Chinese language and cultural organizations (Education, 2016).

According to the Chinese Ministry of Education, there are over 900 official institutions teaching Chinese as a foreign language all over the world, with 40,000 foreign students enrolled. As of 2014, there were over 480 Confucius Institutes established on six continents (Hanban, 2014). In 2015, Mandarin House received over 30,000 students from over 100 nationalities (Mandarin House, 2015). With growing ties between China and the West, the demand for Chinese teaching services is increasing day by day; not only are there government-funded institutions such as the Confucius Institutes but also Mandarin Chinese courses held through universities, colleges, private companies as well as individual tutoring. If these cultural and economic reasons above are not persuasive enough, an intellectual point will be interesting: an exotic language totally different from Romance languages will enrich a person’s knowledge of history

and help to develop their intelligence. Furthermore, since the linguistic revolution in China, the appearance of the Hanyu Pinyin tonal system has made learning Chinese pronunciation much easier than previously. The importance of Hanyu Pinyin which spells the sound, and includes tone marks to help provide the proper pronunciation, is crucial when it comes to writing Chinese using a romanised alphabet.

2.5. The Current Status of TCFL

The rapid rise of China's economy has led to a corresponding interest for non-Chinese speakers in the study of Modern Standard Chinese as a foreign language. In China, after the language reform in 1970s, Standard Modern Chinese, called “普通话 (pǔ tōng huà)” which literally means “common language” became the official language in the late 20th century. Standard Modern Chinese, called “国语 (guó yǔ)” which literally means “national language” also became the official language of Taiwan after the Nationalist party took over control from Japan after World War II. If not specified, Chinese in the following sections refers to Standard Modern Chinese. It cannot be denied that Chinese is one of the most difficult languages to learn (“Top Hardest Languages,” 2013, para. 3). Based on the information provided by the Foreign Service Institute of the U.S. Department of State, Chinese requires, on average, 1.69 years (88 weeks), or 2,200 class hours, to reach speaking and reading proficiency (2014).

TCFL refers to the teaching of the Chinese language to non-native Chinese speakers. There was a controversy associated with the term--Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language (TCFL) or Teaching Chinese as a Second Language (TCSL) to non-Chinese-speaking learners. As mentioned in chapter 1, China is a multi-ethnic country with hundreds of dialects. To more than 30% of Chinese people, their first language or

mother tongue is not Mandarin Chinese though they use the same writing system. Therefore, Chinese language teaching can occur both within and outside China.

According to the definition of the Encyclopedia of China (2nd Edition), foreign language teaching refers to the teaching of Chinese to non-Chinese speakers (2009). Some Chinese linguists questioned its accuracy since it could be understood as “Teaching Mandarin Chinese to Foreigners as a Foreign Language” or “Teaching Mandarin Chinese as Foreign Language Teaching” before accepting it as an official term once the Institute of Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language was set up in April 1984 (Liu, 1999)¹⁶.

As Chinese continues to be one of the most difficult languages to learn, there are a number of countries where Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language (TCFL), has not been mainstreamed into the official foreign language education setting. In addition, the marginal presence, critical elements such as supporting infrastructure, a rich variety of materials and textbooks, abundant opportunities and settings for teacher preparation and certification, and longstanding experience in curriculum development have not been hallmarks of less commonly taught languages, while with the rise of China’s economy, CFL teaching has prospered in the past decades all over the world. The large influx of international students into Beijing has also brought with it different cultures and languages. In short, Chinese teaching has grown in spite of a lack of all those elements. Chinese language teaching was first introduced into the university curriculum at Yale University in 1871, and experienced rapid growth in North America (Jiang, 2014). According to the widely cited Modern Language Association survey, for example, Chinese enrollments at American colleges and universities rose from 34,153 in 2002 to

¹⁶ If not specified, in this thesis, CL teaching means Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language to those non-Chinese native speakers both in China and in non-Chinese-speaking countries.

61,055 in 2013 (see Chart 6 and Table 3 for more information). This growth indicates that the emergence of empirical study of the acquisition and processing of Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) rises in response to its appropriate time and conditions.

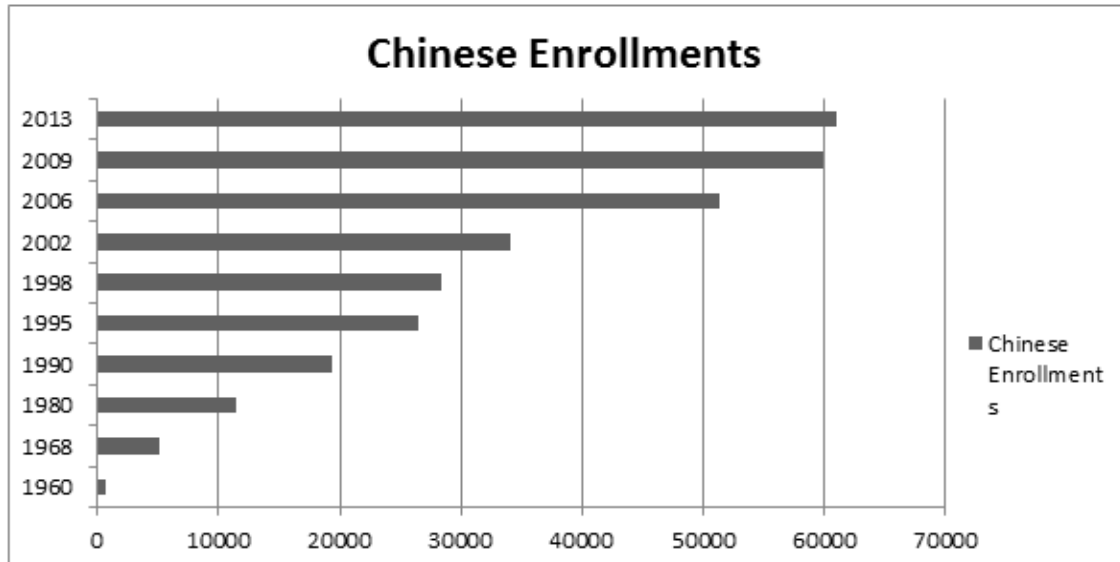


Chart 6. Chinese Enrollments at American Universities. (Source: Bethany Allen, Chinese Students in America: 300,000 and Counting)

Table 3. Language Enrollments and Percentage Change (Language in Descending Order of 2013 Totals)

Language	2002	2006	%Change 2002-06	2009	%Change 2006-09	2013	%Change 2009-13
Spanish	745,215	822,094	10.3	816,8	4.7	790,756	-8.2
French	201,985	206,014	2.0	215,244	4.5	197,757	-8.1
American Sign Language	60,781	79,708	31.1	92,072	15.5	109,577	19.0
German	91,100	94,147	3.3	95,628	1.6	86,700	-9.3
Italian	63,899	78,176	22.3	80,322	2.7	71,285	-11.3
Japanese	52,238	65,403	25.2	72,359	10.6	66,740	-7.8
Chinese	34,153	51,381	50.4	59,876	16.5	61,055	2.0
Arabic	10,584	23,987	126.6	34,908	45.5	32,286	-7.5
Latin	29,841	32,164	7.8	32,444	0.9	27,192	-16.2
Russian	23,921	24,770	3.5	26,753	8.0	21,962	-17.9
Greek, Ancient	20,376	22,831	12.0	20,040	-12.2	12,917	-35.5
Hebrew, Biblical	14,155	14,109	-0.3	13,749	-2.6	12,551	-8.7
Portuguese	8,385	10,310	23.0	11,273	9.3	12,415	10.1
Korean	5,211	7,146	37.1	8,449	18.2	12,299	44.7

(Source: Enrollments in Languages Other Than English in United States Institutions of Higher Education, Fall 2013)

While good empirical studies of CFL acquisition can be found prior to the 2000s, a considerable increase in theory-motivated empirical studies appeared in top-tier second language acquisition (SLA) journals after 2000 (Jiang, 2014). With support from Hanban, National Foreign Language Center, and the School of Languages, Literatures, and Cultures at the University of Maryland, a conference took place on November 2012, at the campus of the University of Maryland (UMD News, 2012). It attracted more than 100 participants and showcased eighty-three presentations on topics ranging from CFL classroom instruction and textbook analysis to CFL acquisition and processing. These studies represent current thinking and cutting-edge research on the acquisition and processing of Chinese by non-native speakers.

According to Duff et al. (2013), considerable resources have also been invested in Chinese language education through recent initiatives in the United States, funded by the U.S. government as well as by various other non-governmental agencies and organizations. Despite the fact that CFL study has enjoyed increasing popularity in the United States, existing programs seem inadequately prepared to meet this high demand although Bohr (2012) claims that Chinese language instruction will be expanded in the next ten years in America and Europe, while the Asian Studies Program would continue to provide growing opportunities for non-Chinese speakers to study in China and other Asian countries (p. 71).

Zhang and Li (2010) have found that the development in CFL teaching in America has slowed down because of the lack of appropriate textbooks, qualified and experienced Chinese teachers, and TCF teacher training programs. Two important reasons are worth mentioning; first, the lack of a commonly recognized syllabus or standard means among CFL programs concerns overall curriculum requirements (Zhang & Li, 2010). In Ye's study (2011), the lack of consensus concerning the proper time to

introduce characters to CFL beginners has resulted in diverse beliefs regarding pedagogical methods and teaching philosophy in CFL instruction. Second, little research has been conducted to address various issues of CFL teaching and learning (Zhang & Li, 2010). Most existing CFL programs adopt the “Common European Framework” without paying due attention to the particular linguistic characteristics of Chinese and how English speakers in particular may engage with the process of CFL learning. Ye (2011) notes that the lack of conformity in the TCFL field would hinder the development of “a commonly recognized syllabus or standard means” in CFL. Yang and Wu (2012) suggest that English-speaking learners should study abroad in China, attending summer immersion with Chinese speakers, or have regular in-class learning every day in order to master a proficiency of Chinese instead of taking Chinese courses in colleges.

The growing number of enrolled CFL students has increased demand for more qualified CFL teachers to be able to teach the language around the world. The global gap between CFL teachers and learners was estimated to be 1: 1000 (Chinese Ministry of Education, 2006). To meet the demand of qualified CFL teachers, the Master of Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Languages has been established in around 200 universities in China since 2007 (Haberland, Lønsmann, & Preisler, 2013). Moreover, the number of education programs being established from Australia to Zambia for teaching Chinese to children, adolescents, and adults, and for the professional development of Chinese language teachers has grown considerably in recent years, at least in part due to a massive infusion of human and material resources, soft power diplomacy, and advocacy by the Chinese Government through The Chinese National Office for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language to disparate regions of the world. In CFL classes, Chinese teachers use ELF to assist the teaching of Chinese language, to

introduce Chinese culture and to communicate with students who come from many different countries.

As another indication of the status of TCFL, as at 2013, over five million people took either the HSK Chinese Proficiency Test or YCT version for younger learners which is very similar to the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), and according to Hanban (2014), over one million Chinese learners took this kind of Chinese Test in 2014 alone. Due to promotion and influence by Confucius Institutes all over the world, the number of people learning Chinese as a foreign language has risen from 30 million in 2004 to more than 100 million in 2015. In the United States, the number of Chinese learners increased by 15 times more than 10 years ago, while in Germany, the number has increased tenfold. At present, Chinese teaching is included in the national education system in more than 48 countries such as in the United States, the United Kingdom, France, Japan, South Korea.

Michael Everson (2010) has observed, in his essay "*The Importance of Standards*", that when Chinese teachers enter a new teaching assignment, they are not only Chinese teachers, but usually the only Chinese teachers. That is to say, they have no help or mentoring from a senior Chinese teacher and are often responsible not only for teaching Chinese, but also for designing the entire Chinese curriculum in their school. Because they are often starting from scratch, they must put together a curriculum which can be adapted to different levels within the school. In addition, there have been few available standards or guidelines to help teachers achieve this articulation across different levels of the curriculum.

A survey conducted among high schools: Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language, by Moore and Walton (2013) has revealed that there is a lack of consensus among Chinese teachers on what the ideal curriculum should be, on which skills should

be emphasized, on the type and number of characters that students should learn, on the selections and timing of specific linguistic patterns to be taught, and on the proper emphasis on and way of teaching Chinese culture.

Lack of standardization of TCFL is not atypical. China has helped 60,000 teachers promote its language internationally, but the situation of Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language has not changed much. For example, there is a famous Chinese teacher training course with an international qualification certificate at the National Center for Applied Linguistics, but it only offers the course in a traditional teaching method which cannot meet the needs of students learning Chinese.

It is very common for these Chinese teachers to encounter numerous challenges in CFL classrooms, such as the teaching medium languages used in class to foreign learners, culture shock, different perceptions and expectations of the roles of the teacher and students, different teaching pedagogies and styles, classroom management, and special student needs. Many Chinese teaching dilemmas suggest that Chinese teachers need to be prepared to face the hurdles of problems in classroom management, and FL methodologies need to be improved to resolve all the barriers mentioned above.

It is well known that teaching a language is not only about teaching the language itself and it could be stated that foreign language teaching is comprised of several components, including helping learners to establish grammatical competence, communicative competence, language proficiency, as well as a change in attitudes towards one's own or another culture (Thanasoulas, 2001). In a multicultural classroom, in which teachers and students come from varied backgrounds, both may approach the situation with different cultural values and expectations about their roles (McKay, 1993). Many researchers also assert that in order for Chinese teachers to interact effectively with their students they must confront their own biases (Rolon, 2015), learn about their

students' cultures, different learning styles and perceive the world through diverse cultural lenses (Banks, 2013).

Chapter 3. The Differences between TEFL and TCFL

Belonging to two different language families, English and Chinese have many significant differences. Chinese language is based on an ideographic writing system which is radically different from the alphabetic system used in Western languages, such as English. Schmitt, Pan and Tavassoli (1994) pointed out that “the structural differences between Chinese and English will affect mental representations which, in turn, influence consumer memory of verbal information” (p. 419).

According to the definition of language families, Chinese belongs to hieroglyph writing and English belongs to alphabetic writing (Voegelin, 1961; Guan, 2000). Compared with alphabetic writing, the biggest characteristic of Chinese is that it shows the meaning. It is well known that the words of languages are always a unity of phonetic forms and meaning and Chinese characters are the written forms of Chinese terms. Both the sound and the sense prescribe the written form, while the written symbols are produced from either speech sounds or meaning. Those based on speech sounds are called alphabetic writing, and those based on meaning are called ideograph. In English, as in all the other alphabetic languages, the words are combinations of letters (Daniels & Bright, 1996; Coulmas, 2003).

There follows a brief explanation of the differences between Modern Chinese and the Modern English, together with the different requirements for teaching them in FL classrooms. For the purpose of this thesis, only the linguistic factors and their impact on TEFL and TCFL will be analyzed.

3.1 The Differences between English and Chinese

Understanding some of the major differences between Chinese and English may help an understanding of the differences between TEFL and TCFL. In this section, linguistic differences in phonology, grammar, vocabulary, syntax, morphology, cultures and education systems between English and Chinese, which have a considerable effect on the implemented teaching methods in FL classrooms, will be briefly presented.

3.1.1. Phonology

Chinese often conveys a false impression that its phonetics is difficult. On the contrary, Modern Chinese has a sound system called Pinyin which is simple in comparison with English phonetics. Unlike English, learners do not have to remember the phonetic symbol in order to pronounce a word, nor the irregular spellings seen in English or Spanish, which cause numerous problems for beginners. This feature facilitates TCFL in beginner FL classrooms compared with English.

Chinese pronunciation varies by region more widely than other aspects of the language. However, there are a number of cross-regional constants, even in pronunciation, some of which lead to predictable difficulties in English pronunciation (Pavlik, 2012). For instance, Chinese syllable structure is such that the only consonant sounds that can end a syllable are /n/, /ŋ/, and /ɿ/. The result is that any word in English that ends with a consonant other than these is difficult for native Chinese speakers to pronounce (See Figure 4).

English Monophthongs	Chinese Monophthongs	English Diphthongs	Chinese Diphthongs
[a:] [æ] [ʌ]	a	[ei]	ai ei ui
[o] [o:] [ɒ] [ɔ:]]	o	[əʊ]	ao ou iu
[e] [ə] [ɜ:]]	e	[ai]	ie ue er
[i] [i:]	i	[aʊ]	an en in un ün
[u] [u:]	u	[ɔɪ]	ang eng ing ong
	ü	[ɪə] [ɛə] [ɔə] [ʊə]	

Figure 4. Phonetic Differences of English and Chinese. (Source: Guirong Chen)

Unlike Chinese phonetics, most aspects of the English phonological system present difficulties for learners of English. For example, some English phonemes do not exist in other languages, and many stress and intonation patterns are different. In addition, English has more vowel sounds than Chinese, resulting in the faulty pronunciation of words like “slip/sleep”, “spot/sport”, “book/boot”, diphthongs such as in “soap”, “toe” or “boy” are often shortened to a single sound.

Another major problem for students of English is with the common final consonant. This feature is much less frequent in Chinese or any other Asian languages, which results in learners either failing to produce the consonant or adding an extra vowel at the end of the word, especially for Japanese EFL learners. Further difficulty lies in pronouncing individual English words and compound words and that is intonation, resulting in the heavily accented English of many EFL learners. In some cases, even learners with perfect grammar are hard to understand due to intonation difficulties.

It is, therefore, a challenge for many English language students to extend an intonation melody over a whole thought group, or to use intonation to express other types of meaning; they are accustomed to using other devices such as syntax to accomplish these types of meaning (Nolan, 2014). In addition, each Chinese single

character has its original meaning, but most of them are compound words, composed of two, three or four single characters. Ermolaeva (2015) states that one of the most striking features of Chinese language is its strong tendency to match the meaning of different characters (syllables) together in a way that makes sense. In addition, different combinations with the same characters change the meaning of the Chinese words. Fu (2003) also pointed out that “learning to read words in groups instead of reading word by word is a likely difficulty” (p. 144). See Chart 7 for the examples.

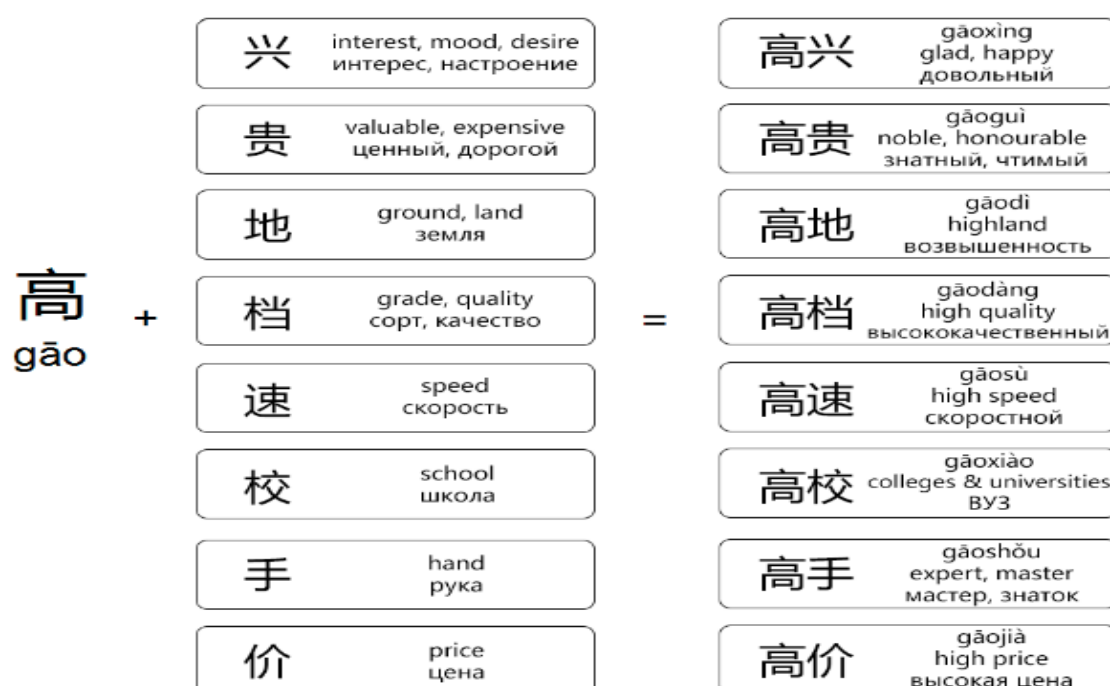


Figure 5. Examples of Different Chinese Compounds with the Same Character “高 gāo” (Source: “Chinese: A Language of Compound Words”, 2015)

In Figure 5, the same character “高-gāo” means “tall”, but when it combines with “兴-xìng”, it changes its meaning to “glad, happy or delighted” ; when it is together with “手-shǒu”, it means “expert, superior, master”. Apart from the character changing meaning with different word order, it also changes the pronunciation because of multi-sound Chinese characters.

Unlike English, Chinese is a tonal language which creates some threats to the ears of non-tonal language speakers. This means that a phoneme’s high or low pitch is a

means of distinguishing meaning and identifying the word, while in English, tones belong to thought groups. Each thought group that holds together to express a meaning has its own tonal pattern (Rasmussen, 2010). Which words are grouped into intonation phrases and which intonation pattern each carries does not change word meaning but does change sentence implications, while in Chinese each word has its own tonal pattern, and even the same word may have different pronunciations and different meanings (Pavlik, 2012). Tones are phonemic in Chinese, whereas they are suprasegmental in English.

Chinese has another particular feature, in that it does not have an alphabet but uses a logographic system for its written language. The ideograms represent the words themselves and are not made up of various letters as in alphabetic systems (Rasmussen, 2010). Though Pinyin is now widely taught in China alongside characters, the sound-to-letter correspondence is not wholly consistent between pinyin and English spelling. This would be quite impossible for two reasons: one is that pinyin is purely phonetic, while English spelling is influenced by a host of historical factors; the other is that the phoneme inventory of Chinese does not align with that of English, so the same letters must carry different burdens for the different languages (Pavlik, 2012).

Chinese writing is another obstacle for CFL learners and CFL teaching. While this study will not focus on Chinese writing, nevertheless, many effective methodologies for learning the tonal system of modern Chinese have been developed that use pitch to distinguish word meaning, which creates difficulties for non-tonal language speakers. In English, changes in pitch are used to emphasize or express emotion, not to give a different word meaning to the sound. There are, of course, other differences between Chinese and English pronunciation, but those mentioned above are among the most likely to cause major pronunciation errors for EFL and CFL learners.

3.1.2. Grammar

Modern Chinese grammar is simpler than modern English, in which learners have to memorize all types of conjugations for tense, voice, number, gender, etc. Chinese language, on the other hand, is like a ‘well-tamed monster’ because there are hardly any rules in Chinese; CL beginners do not need to remember how to conjugate verbs or change tense, which also facilitates initial learning.

While in English much information is carried by the use of auxiliaries and by verb inflections, such as is/are/were/been/being, eat/eats/ate/eaten/eating. Chinese is an uninflected language and conveys meaning through word order, adverbials or shared understanding of the context. The concept of time and tense in Chinese is not handled through the use of different tenses and verb forms as it is in the English verb system (“Travel with English,” 2015, para. 13). Where English commonly expresses shades of meaning with modal verbs, Chinese modals do not convey such a wide range of meaning. In addition, Chinese does not have the articles essential to English; however, Chinese has numerous classifiers for different nouns while English does not. Think, for example, of the increasing degree of politeness of the following instructions (See Figure 6):

Expressions	Degree of politeness
Open the door!	Rude
Open the door, please.	Normal +
Could you open the door, please?	Polite ++
Would you mind opening the door, please?	Very polite +++

Figure 6. Examples of the Increasing Degree of Politeness of English Sentences. (Source: Guirong Chen)

Further, in Chinese, questions are conveyed by intonation and the subject and verb are not inverted as in English. Nouns cannot be post-modified as in English, and adverbials usually precede verbs, whereas English has complex rules governing the

position of such sentence elements (Mair, 2012). Moreover, the majority of linguists support the view that “both topic and subject exist in both Chinese and English as separate grammatical notions and that both can exist in the same sentence” (Jiang, 2009, p.14). However, Chinese differs from English in that the syntactic category of subject is basic and central to the English grammatical system, while it is peripheral and secondary to that of Chinese. In this case, the central role in Chinese is the category of topic.

In the aspect of constraint, Chinese “is governed to a large extent by considerations of semantic or pragmatic factors, while English is governed mainly by grammatical functions” (Li &Thompson, 1996, p. 81). Thompson (1996) also differentiates languages into pragmatic word order languages, such as Chinese and grammatical word order languages, such as English. Due to their different constraints, it is often said that Chinese is discourse-oriented while English is sentence-oriented (McGinnis,1999; Tsao, 1979; Zhang, 2009). This indicates that the basic functional unit in Chinese is discourse while in English it is sentence.

Apart from major constituents, namely Subject, Verb and Object, a sentence may also include modifiers such as adjectives, adverbs, and relative clauses. The ordering of these modifiers is also very important. According to Lust and Chien’s view of the notion of “Principal Branching Direction” (1987, p. 54), Chinese is a principally left-branching language in that relative clauses and subordinate clauses position to the left of their head, while English is principally right-branching in that relative clauses and subordinate clauses position to the right of their head.

3.1.3. Vocabulary and Morphology

English has a number of short verbs that very commonly combine with particles such as adverbs or prepositions to form phrasal verbs, for example: stand up, sit down, grow up into, look up to etc., a lexical feature which does not exist in Chinese. Therefore, Chinese learners of English language may experience serious difficulty in comprehending texts containing such verbs and in using them appropriately.

However, the Chinese language has hundreds of Chinese four-part idioms called “四字成语 (sì zì chéng yǔ)”, a type of traditional Chinese idiomatic expression, most of which consist of four Chinese characters. The Chinese four-part idioms are mostly derived from ancient Chinese literature. The meaning of a Chinese idiom usually surpasses the sum of the meanings carried by the four characters, as Chinese idioms are often intimately linked with the myth, story or historical fact from which they were derived. As such, Chinese idioms do not follow the usual grammatical structure and syntax of the modern Chinese spoken language, and are instead highly compact and synthetic, which makes them very difficult to learn for Chinese language learners (Chen, 2011; Hu, 2012). See Table 5 for examples.

Another well described difference between Chinese and English is the obligatory use of classifier with number in Chinese (Cheng & Sybesma, 1998; Norman, 1988; Chang, 2008). Classifier are modifiers that indicate units of measure such as “a bottle of water” or “a piece of cake” in English. The use of classifier is obligatory with all nouns in indication of numerical quantity in Chinese to indicate how many objects are being referenced (Chien, Lust, & Chiang, 2003; Chang, 2008). While in English, only mass nouns, nouns that cannot be pluralized and describe unbounded entities such as water, sand, or soil etc., receive a classifier when enumerated (Chang, 2008). See Figure 7 for more examples of the use of Chinese classifier.

English	Literal Translation (English to Chinese)	Chinese	Literal Translation (Chinese to English)
One person	一-yī 人-rén	一-yī 个-gè 人-rén	one +c+person
	one person	one+ C+ person	
Two tigers	二-èr 老虎-lǎo hǔ	两-liǎng 只-zhī 老虎-lǎo hǔ	two+c+ tigers
	two tiger	one+ C+ person	
Three desks	三-sān 桌 zhuō	三-sān 张-zhāng 桌 zhuō	three +c+desks
	three desk	one+ C+ person	
Four months	四-sì 月-yuè	四-sì 个-gè 月-yuè	four+c+months
	four month	one+ C+ person	

Figure 7. Differences between English and Chinese Classifiers. (Source: Guirong Chen)

In Figure 7, the example “two tigers” is in Chinese is “两 li Cg 只-zhCg老虎-lǎo hǔ”. “两-liǎng” is the number term “two” instead of “二-èr” when it combines with other nouns, “只-zhī” is the classifier for animals or fruits whose original meaning is “only”, and “老虎-lǎo hǔ” means “tiger”. The phrase literally translates into English as “two only tiger” which makes no sense. In the example “four months”, if the classifier “个-gè” has not been added between the number “四-sì” and the noun “月-yuè” which means month, the Chinese meaning of the translation will be changed into “April”. “The classifier in Chinese does not have a direct English translation but is used to designate nouns” (Chang, 2012, p. 12).

Despite the fact that English and Chinese are both considered analytic languages, there are many differences between their systems of morphology. According to the definition provided by Carstairs-McCarthy (2002), morphology is the subdivision of grammar that deals with the internal structure of words which can be subdivided into smaller meaningful units called morphemes (p. 20). While English has lost much of its inflection compared with its early days, it is still not as uninflected as Chinese. The singular-plural distinction seems to be a particularly different aspect between English and Chinese.

Gender is another morphological difference between English and Chinese. It might not be much of a problem when EFL learners are writing in English but it is difficult to choose a pronoun with the appropriate gender in speaking. Similarly, “written Chinese also makes a distinction between masculine, feminine, and neuter third-person pronouns, both in the singular and in the plural” (Padrosa, Bartra, & Mateu, 2011). In some cases, these different Chinese characters are all pronounced the same way in Chinese. For example, in spoken Chinese there is no distinction between masculine, feminine, and neuter third person pronouns-“tā”, while there is such a distinction in singular third person pronouns in spoken English such as he/him, she/her, it/it. However, Chinese pronouns do make a distinction between singular and plural by the presence or absence of the morpheme “们 men”. Another difference pertains to the subjective and objective case of personal pronouns, a distinction that English makes for first-person and masculine and feminine third-person pronouns, but Chinese never makes (See Figure 8 for the differences).

English	Subjective	Objective	Chinese	Subjective	Objective
1 st singular	I	me	1 st singular	我 wǒ	我 wǒ
3 rd singular	he	him	3 rd singular	他 tā	他 tā
3 rd singular	she	her	3 rd singular	她 tā	她 tā
1 st plural	we	us	1 st plural	我们 wǒmen	我们 wǒmen
3 rd plural	they	them	3 rd plural	他们 tāmen	他们 tāmen
3 rd plural	they	them	3 rd plural	她们 tāmen	她们 tāmen

Figure 8. Differences in Subjective and Objective of Personal Pronouns. (Source: Guirong Chen)

As shown in Figure 8, in Chinese, a pronoun has the same form whether it functions as a subject or object, which makes it easier for CFL teachers to explain this to learners.

There are also morphological differences between Chinese and English verbs. As Fu points out, Chinese has no inflectional verb endings (2009, p. 145). As Chinese language does not have verb tenses, rather than changing the verb tense, it uses adverbial words or phrases such as yesterday, tomorrow, and at this moment to indicate past, future, or present tense (“Written Chinese”, 2015, para. 22). See Figure 9 for instance.

Tense	English	Chinese
Present	I eat an apple every day.	我每天吃一个苹果。
		I every day eat an apple.
Past	I ate an apple yesterday.	我昨天吃了一个苹果。
		I yesterday eat an apple.
Future	I will/am going to eat an apple tomorrow	我明天要吃一个苹果。
		I tomorrow want eat an apple.

Figure 9. Difference in Verb Tense. (Source: Guirong Chen)

“I yesterday eat an apple”: in Chinese the appearance of the word meaning “yesterday” is sufficient to express past tense. Further, in Chinese, as Fu has noted, verbs do not change with the subject either. For example, “we eat,” “you eat,” and “he eats” would all be said the same way, since Chinese does not possess overt third-person inflection as English does, but has one basic form for every person and tense.

In addition, there is another enormous difference called “philological difference” between English and Chinese since written Chinese is in the form of ideograms or logographic system while English is in a phonetic system with Roman letters (Rasmussen, 2010). In written Chinese, graphic symbols represent not words themselves but the implications of the word combinations which differs the meaning according to the order of the each single words. While in English, only linear order is significant.

Apart from the main differences between English and Chinese, a further important difference lies in body language. It is in some sense more a matter of cultural difference than of language, and the scope of this thesis does not permit its study here.

3.1.4. Syntax

Perhaps the most interesting similarity between English and Chinese for learners of these languages is their basic word order. Both languages use SVO word order as their basic sentence structure. This makes it easier for beginning learners as they are able to form simple sentences (Huang & Li, 1996). The following is an example of a simple SVO sentence in both languages (See Figure 10):

Written Chinese	陈老师教英语。
Chinese pinyin	chén lǎoshī jiāo yīng yǔ.
Literal translation	ChenProfessor teaches English.
Correct English	Professor Chen teaches English.

Figure 10. Examples of a Simple SVO Sentences. (Source: Guirong Chen)

The word order features of Chinese and English are summarized in Figure 11; each of the four features listed will be discussed below:

Features	English	Chinese
Canonical word order	SVO	SVO or SOV
Prominence	Subject-prominent	Topic-prominent
Constraint	Grammatical word order	Pragmatic word order
Principal Branching Direction	Principally right-branching	Principally left-branching

Figure 11. Summary of the Word Order Features of English and Chinese. (Source: Guirong Chen)

However, as soon as the sentences become a little more complex, syntactic differences arise. One important difference is the position of modifiers. As Danling Fu (2009) explained, “the rule in English is that the core structure of a sentence (S + V + O) should stand closely together, and the other parts should go before or after the core sentence” (p. 44). While in Chinese, a modifier mostly goes before the word it modifies.

Tomlin stated in 1986 that according to the relative frequencies of “the six basic canonical word orders of human languages, which are SOV=SVO, VSO, VOS=OVS, OSV” (p. 41), the most used order of most human languages is either SOV or SVO. Typologically speaking, English is a rigid SVO language (Thompson, 1996). Thompson also remarked that “English is a language in which basic grammatical relations are signaled by word order” and that “...there must be a noun phrase immediately preceding the verb in main clauses and that noun phrase, if unmarked, is the subject” (1996, 25). That is to say, structures with a “dummy’ or ‘empty’ subject, ‘it’, demonstrate the rigid SVO word order in English.

Unlike English, a very heated debate developed over whether the word order of Chinese is SVO or SOV. According to Tai, “the Chinese word order is SOV on the basis of the features associated with SOV language”, therefore, “Chinese is a SOV language” (2009, p. 17). On the contrary, Thompson proposed a view in 1981 that Chinese has undergone a process of evolution from an SVO language to an SOV language because of the frequent use of the “把 bǎ -construction” (p. 95). See Figure 12 for example,

Word Order	Sentences
SVO in English	I (S) + have eaten(V) + an apple(O).
SVO in Chinese	我 wǒ(S) + 吃了 chī le(V) + 一个苹果 yí gè píng guǒ(O)
SOV in Chinese	我 wǒ(S) + 把 bǎ 一个苹果 yí gè píng guǒ(O) 吃了 chī le(V)

Figure 12. Examples of Word Order in Chinese and English. (Source: Guirong Chen)

In addition to these views, there is a third position held by Wenying Jiang (2008) that “Chinese is predominantly an SVO language which is supported by a number of statistical studies undertaken calculating the frequency of use of the SVO sentences” (p. 8). The word order between English and Chinese also differs in some aspects. Firbas (1992) emphasized that the word-order system of a language can be understood “in a more comprehensive way” if it is compared with that of another language, preferably “one of different structure” (p. 44). This Chinese-English sentence order breaks the basic rule in English syntax, so it sounds awkward to native English speakers (Firbas, 1992, p. 134). If a sentence grows sufficiently complex, it can sound awkward even to the point of unintelligibility. Learning to use English word order consistently represents a significant hurdle for Chinese beginning EFLs to overcome though most Chinese sentences share a similar SVO order to English. See Figure 13 for example,

Language	Sentences
English Order	Yesterday my friend, whom you met before, read a book recommended by her teacher for two hours in the library before she went home for dinner.
Chinese Order	Before you meet that my friend / yesterday before she go home for dinner in the library for two hours read / recommended by her teacher that book.

Figure 13. Examples of Sentence Order of English and Chinese. (Source: Guirong Chen)

Looking at these head words, it is easy to observe that the overall sentence structure is still subject “SVO” as in English: (朋友 friend) - verb (读 read) - object (书 book). The more modifiers are added, the more difficult it is to understand English words in Chinese order. Many syntactic errors in Chinese EFL learners’ writing and speaking represent instances of using English words in Chinese word order.

Another important difference is found in how pronouns are used. In Chinese, “pronouns are normally omitted if their referents are contextually clear” (Chan, 2009, p.

34), which is usually called Chinglish. Thus, if one were to translate perfectly grammatical Chinese sentences into English without providing additional pronouns in the translation, one would often get something like this (See Figure 14 for examples):

Pinyin	wǒ yǒu yī zhī tùzi, hěn kě ài, wǒ hěn xǐ huān.
Character	我有一只兔子，很可爱，我很喜欢。
Literal Translation	I have one classifier rabbit, very cute, I very much like.
Chinglish	I have a rabbit. Is very cute. I love very much.
English	I have a rabbit. It is very cute. I love it very much.
Pinyin	wǒ yǒu yī zhī hěn kě ài de tùzi, wǒ hěn xǐ huān.
Character	我有一只很可爱的兔子，我很喜欢。
Literal Translation	I have one classifier very cute rabbit, I very much like.
English	I have a very cute rabbit. I love it very much.

Figure 14. Examples of Chinglish. (Source: Guirong Chen)

Obviously, the Chinglish sentence is not grammatical in English. However, Chinese EF learners frequently make this type of error because of the influence of their first language acquisition.

Understanding the major differences between the Chinese and English languages may help EFL and CFL learners to focus on the elements that give them trouble. After a brief introduction of the differences between Chinese and English, it is not surprising that differences exist in TEFL and TCFL.

3.2. Differences of TFL Methodologies in FL Classrooms

This section will explain the differences between the teachers' roles in TEFL and TCFL classrooms, as well as the different methodologies used in FL classrooms according to language differences. The section will further consider relationships between teacher and students.

3.2.1. The Teacher's Role in FL Classrooms

As Chinese is a very difficult language with a very complicated language system, most CFL teachers are native speakers of Chinese, which style being employed in most CFL classrooms. However, EFL teachers may be native or non-native speakers of English, since English is the most widely spoken language internationally. In China, in this case, most EFL teachers are non-native speakers of English but native speakers of Chinese due to the lack of intermediate teaching medium language. Therefore, the differences between the TEFL and TCFL methodologies used in classrooms, to a certain extent, mirror the differences between the Chinese and Western education systems and teaching styles.

As is well known, China's education is still greatly influenced by Confucius just as Western education is influenced by Socrates. Huang (2005) and Pavlik (2012) summarized the ideas of these two thinkers and their influence on the Western and Eastern systems of education,

Socrates (469-399BC), a Western exemplar, valued the questioning of both one's own and others' beliefs, the evaluation of others' knowledge, self-generated knowledge, and teaching by implanting doubt. Confucius (551-479BC), an Eastern exemplar, valued effortful learning, respectful learning, and pragmatic acquisition of essential knowledge (p. 202).

Of course, this simple dichotomy paints with a broad brush and should not be taken into account for all the details of either system. In China, the teacher is viewed as an authority, the transmitter of knowledge (Huang, 2006, p. 25). The teacher is not viewed as a mere facilitator of the students' education, as educators are considered in the Western system. As Eckstein et al. (2003) point out, "Chinese classroom teachers are expected to be strict, well-prepared, knowledgeable, stimulating, and accountable

for students' success" (p. 104). These qualities are also expected in the West, but not to the same degree as in China. Flaitz (2003) stated that the teacher's image as the knowledge authority is produced by the widely shared belief that young people are far too inexperienced to generate responses that would be sound, interesting, or worthy of attention. As Chu & Walters (2013) observe, "in most cases Chinese students follow and respect their teacher unconditionally in FL classrooms" (p. 12). This goes along with the Confucian idea of respectful learning, which contrasts with the Socratic idea of questioning one's own and others' beliefs and apparent knowledge. In China, or Asia, teachers represent the authority of knowledge whether in class or out of class. This great respect for teachers is shown in many ways such as their title in China: the highly respectful -"老师 (lǎo shī)". "老师 (lǎo shī)" literally means "old master", where "old" is a respectful term indicating experience and "master" is in the sense of having mastered an art or skill.

Further, Chinese students prefer showing respect and affection for their teachers by erasing the blackboard after class, helping the teacher move, sort, or distribute materials, or staying after school to assist with a variety of tasks, whereas in the West, classroom teachers are facilitators and allow students to acquire knowledge autonomously. Western teachers try to develop their students' critical thinking skills by teaching them affective, cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies (Eckstein et al.,2003). Apart from this, in China, it is very typical for some Chinese teachers to develop close relationships with students and become very involved in the more personal and private aspects of the students' lives such as having dinner together, hanging out with family, or visiting during Chinese festivals which is totally different from these teacher-student relationships in the West. Eckstein et al noted that the formality of thisteacher-student

relationship is unlikely to diminish as a result of this closeness during the learning and teaching (2003).

In most Chinese education systems, written comments on papers and tests are not considered private. Thus, students may share the teacher's remarks with other students, comments and communications meant to be considered private are delivered verbally. Therefore, phone calls and emails to students or parents are regarded as the more private way to address students about their progress and regress (Eckstein et al., 2003; Liu, 2008; Pavlik, 2012). This reflects the closeness of the relationship compared with the teacher-student relationship in the West which is more independent after classes. The idea of getting a phone call from one's teacher for Western students is not considered normal though it depends on the exact context.

3.2.2. Teacher-centered Learning

While many foreign language teaching methods are used in the FL class, the way in which they are used and the results of these teaching methods may make a big difference. The method of learning primarily used in China is teacher-fronted and formal. This could be attributed in part to the large-size classes common in Chinese schools, which can be up to 40 or more students. China's vast population makes it impossible to provide small size classes. However, most authors insist that the primary reason for teacher-centered education is found in the values of Confucianism which have for so long influenced Chinese education (Eckstein et. al, 2003). The teacher holds essential knowledge and the student is to practice respectful learning. Normally, it is demonstrated through careful listening, attention, and note-taking in class. As Liu (2008) remarks, generally most Chinese teachers do not expect a great deal of student

participation and discussion in China. To be more specific, “Chinese teachers are usually explainers, and Chinese students act as listeners and note takers” (Huang, 2010, p. 25). Thus, Chinese teachers depend heavily on lectures as a teaching method.

In contrast, Western teachers usually regard themselves as “students’ facilitators of learning but not their authorities of knowledge” (Huang, 2010, p. 29). They can admit their ignorance on a topic. They are not generally enraged by students’ challenging questions in class, as Chinese teachers are. In most cases, they require students to discuss or resolve problems in groups by themselves, where students are free to express their different ideas. In addition, teachers do not directly give answers to a particular question, what they stress is students’ thinking and discussion (Huang, 2010).

Comparing teaching styles in FL classrooms, there are some obvious different features between TEFL and TCFL summarized below:

- (i) TEFL teachers are less likely to organize methodical lectures than TCFL since Chinese teaching style focuses more on the teachers’ role in class;
- (ii) TEFL teachers adhere less to the textbook during lectures, while TCFL teachers act as the source of authoritative knowledge in class;
- (iii) TEFL teachers do not make as much use as TCFL teachers do of writing outlines and key points on the blackboard;
- (iv) TEFL teachers do not usually summarize main ideas at the end of the lecture, as Chinese teachers usually do;
- (v) TEFL teachers usually require more student participation and group work than TCFL teachers do.

3.2.3. The Student's Role

From what has already been discussed about the role of the teachers in the FL class, it is clear that a large part of the students' role in China is to pay attention to what has been taught in class and to take thorough notes, but a very small part of participation in class together with their teachers. Confucius' principle of effortful learning means that although in some sense teachers take responsibility for students' learning, students consider that it is their own responsibility (Eckstein et al., 2003). As University of Michigan psychology professors Stevenson and Stigler (1994) pointed out, the willingness of Asian children to work hard stems from Confucian beliefs about the role of effort and ability in achievement (p. 73). According to the Confucian principle, individual differences in potential are de-emphasized, and great importance is placed on the role of effort and diligence in modifying the course of human development. Although there is less class participation in the Chinese teaching system, this does not mean students never ask questions or discuss what they are learning. Liu (2008) stated that Chinese students would often discuss questions after class or ask the teacher questions during a break, rather than asking teachers directly during class. Besides, Chinese students do not like consulting or discuss doubts with their teachers through emails but prefer to go to teacher's office directly during self-study night courses. On the contrary, Western FL learners prefer to discuss or resolve problems during class.

It is well-known that the Chinese teaching style requires a good deal of memorization regardless of grammar patterns or vocabulary, which is not the only aspect of learning a foreign language in China, but a part of the whole teaching and learning system. This is because Chinese has a logographic writing system-there is no way around it, the learners simply must memorize the characters. Perhaps this is part of what has given Chinese education its reputation for being all memorization. On the

other hand, in the Western EL teaching, memorization is required in some degree, but more practice in speaking and reading are required both in classes and in daily life. FL language learners are exposed more to the use of the target foreign language itself but not in grammar or memorizing vocabulary.

Apart from the differences between the Chinese and English languages, the different roles of the teachers and students in classrooms, and the differences between TEFL and TCFL teaching styles, there are still pervasive differences between EFL and CFL teaching and learning due to differences in cultural background, home language, and education which are not the focus of this particular study.

3.3 Difficulties Faced by EFL and CFL Learners

Many researchers in the fields of psycholinguistics and cognitive psychology believe that there is a "critical period" within which FL learners must be exposed to a language in order to become a native speaker of that language (Nagai, 1997). For those who subscribe to this theory, children should be exposed to the target language during the first six years of life (Pinker, 1995; Henderson et al., 2008). Jacques (1988) and Bailey et al. (2001) have noted that the age effects on second-language acquisition and its neural organization is very powerful. Many studies show a close relationship between the age of exposure to a language and the ultimate proficiency achieved in that language (Newport, 1990; Mayberry & Fischer, 1989; Johnson & Newport, 1991; Pallier, Bosch, & Sebastian-Galles, 1997). Therefore, the students who are exposed to a foreign language between the ages of six and puberty will experience increasing difficulties with that language, especially in regard to grammar and pronunciation (Newport, 2001). If exposure to the foreign language does not occur until after puberty,

it would be extremely difficult for individuals to use the foreign language natively, for example, you would always hear something of an accent or there would be odd errors in grammar directly related to that learner's mother language.

Not only Chinese EFL students, but also most of Asian EFL learners, particularly those who have never received lengthy exposure to English before six years of age, face a unique set of difficulties because of their Chinese first language characteristics. Similarly, the CFL learners face many problems because of the influence of such factors as alphabetic language, or first exposure to ideographic languages. In this thesis, the Chinese EFL learners will be taken as examples on behalf of all EFL learners, and American CFL learners will be taken as examples on behalf of all CFL learners to be discussed in general in this section. These difficulties will be explained briefly, focusing on the aspects of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary.

3.3.1. Pronunciation

As Modern Chinese is logographic, the Chinese picture or single character represents an entire word, including its pronunciation and meaning, causing particular difficulties for Chinese EFL students in reading and spelling as the English vocabulary does not include a phonetic symbol. Spoken English consists of a significant stress-timed quality, which means that the amount of time taken to say a sentence depends on the number of syllables that receive stress in the sentence as opposed to the total number of syllables it contains ("The Pronunciation System", 2010, para. 12). Non-native English speakers focus on pronouncing each and every word fully and correctly, which

results in mechanical, intermittent or choppy speech that can be so unnatural that it becomes incomprehensible to a native speaker (“Speech, English Pronunciation”, n.d.).

Unlike English, Chinese uses changes in tones not for stress nor emphasis on the words but to distinguish the meaning of different words. Thus the same syllable "ma," for example, can either mean mother-妈(mā), bother-麻(má), horse-马(mǎ), or scold-骂(mà), depending on whether the first, second, third, or fourth tone is used respectively. Besides, the same tone of each pronunciation may have many characters respectively. For example, “shì” may correspond to “是 (shì)” which means “yes or be”, or “室 (shì)” which means “room, space or chamber”, or “事 (shì)” which means “things, matter, affair, or cases, etc.”, or “试 (shì)” which means “try, test, experiment or examine” etc. Even the same pronunciation or characters may have different meanings in different contexts or with different combinations of word order, which make it difficult for CFL learners to distinguish meaning at their primary level; for example, “horse-马 (mǎ)” plus “up-上 (shàng)” means “right away, immediately”, “horse-马 (mǎ)” plus “tiger-虎 (hǔ)” means “careless, perfunctory”, “horse-马 (mǎ)” plus “fart-屁 (pì)” means “flattery” etc.

Most Asian EFL students have distinctive difficulties with certain consonant and vowel phonemes. Many Asian learners of English have difficulty hearing the difference between the consonants "r" and "l" and will typically pronounce "right" and "rice," for example, as "light" and "lice" (“The Pronunciation System,” 2010, para. 18), especially among Chinese EFL learners in South Central China, or there may be difficulty distinguishing “f” and “p” for Korean EFL learners because of the influence of the mother language. Moreover, some Chinese EFL learners in the central provinces of China may not distinguish “n” and “l” because of their dialects. Related to this is that

General Standard English consists of thirteen monophthongs and three diphthongs, while Standard Chinese contains considerably fewer vowel phonemes. Consequently, most Chinese speakers of English will not be able to distinctively pronounce words such as [i:] and [i] or [u:] and [u].

Meanwhile, most CFL learners also have similar problems in spoken Chinese, especially in the particular Chinese consonants such as “j, q, x, z, c, s, zh, ch, sh, r” since there are no similar pronunciations in English consonants or in any other phonetic system, which make Chinese phonetics difficult for beginners. Many CFL learners will pronounce “[s]” instead of “z” or “c”; and “zh ch sh” will often be pronounced as either “[tʃ]” either “[ʃ]”. Many English-speaking CFL learners like to remark English phonetics as a phonetic symbol to help pronounce Chinese phonetics which will make correcting their pronunciation harder as CFL learning progresses.

Further, the four tones of each Chinese vowel such as “ā á ǎ à” are also barriers for CFL learners as many CFL learners speak a non-tonal language. Pronunciation also varies with context according to the rules of tone sandhi makes it even more complicated for CFL beginners. The most typical representative is “Hello” in Chinese. If we pronounce it separately, it should be “你好 (nǐ hǎo)”, but the correct pronunciation is “你好 (ní hǎo)” since both “你 (nǐ)” and “好 (hǎo)” are with the 3rd tones. According to the tone Sandhi rules¹⁷, when there are two 3rd tones in a row, the first one becomes 2nd tone.

¹⁷ Sandhi is a cover term for a wide variety of phonological processes that occur at morpheme or word boundaries (thus belonging to morphophonology). The sounds from nearby sounds or the grammatical function of adjacent words will alter.

3.3.2. Grammar

Apart from the pronunciation problems for EFL and CFL learners discussed above, grammar also presents them with important difficulties. Unlike languages such as English or Spanish, Chinese is a very analytic language like mathematics. For instance, in Chinese there are no complicated rules about conjugations, gender, plural nouns or tense like English or Spanish. Most words consist of single syllables which are then combined to make compound words. This makes sentence construction fairly straightforward and easier to get started. Chinese grammar rules have no equivalent in English or other European languages, and Chinese contains no articles of speech (a, an, the). Although most Chinese EFL students can appreciate the difference between the proper use of "a" and "an," most of them perpetually struggle with when to use, how to use or whether to use the indefinite article because of different language use habits.

Similar to English articles for Chinese EFL learners, the Chinese classifier for each object noun is really an impassable barrier to overcome for CFL learners at their initial learning phase. For example, "a horse" will be said "一 (yī) - 'one, a, an' 匹 (pǐ) - 'classifier for horse, mule, cloth etc.' 马 (mǎ) - horse" in Chinese instead of "一 (yī) 马 (mǎ)". As these features are not used in English, they can be quite difficult for CFL learners to grasp. Additionally, Chinese EFL learners have difficulty managing person or subject agreement well with verbs because there is no verb conjugation in Chinese grammars. Therefore Chinese EFL learners are unaccustomed to matching subject changes with the right verb conjugation. For example, Chinese EFL learners always say "A number of students is going to learn a foreign language" instead of "A number of students are going to learn a foreign language" orally.

English conveys a considerable amount of information, especially in regard to the passage of time and sequencing of events, through the use of modal auxiliary verbs

and verb tenses (“Chinese Learner of English”, 2010, para. 13), where there is really no such equivalent in Modern Chinese. The Chinese express specific meaning, especially in regard to time sequencing, by the order of the words they use in addition to specifically using adverbs of time such as “今天-today, 昨天-yesterday, 明天-tomorrow, 这个星期-this week, 下个星期-next week etc.” in order to indicate the time tense. Consequently, mastering verb tenses and the subtle differences in the use of modal auxiliary verbs remains a struggle for many EFL learners.

CFL learners have similar problems, since there is no time tense in Chinese grammar but only adverbs of time, although there are some auxiliary words such as “了 le (modal particle or completed action marker)”, “将 jiāng (be going to)”, “会 huì (will)” to assist in expressing the time tense concept in Chinese sentences which make Chinese teaching and learning harder and more confusing in different contexts.

The Chinese characters for he, she, and it (他, 她, and 它 respectively) are different, but all three personal pronouns are pronounced the same way, that is, as “tā”. Consequently, Chinese EFL students frequently interchange the use of "he" and "she" in speech since the pronunciations of “he” and “she” in Chinese speech are the same. Although Chinese EFL learners seem unable to use English with personal pronouns properly, it does not mean they do not know the correct grammar.

In addition, English is composed of numerous phrasal verbs, many of them used informally or specifically. It takes Chinese EFL learners quite a long time to master these phrases as well as to learn which preposition to use with which verbs and how changing the preposition can subtly change word meaning.

Another linguistic feature typical among Chinese EFL students is the way in which they respond to negative questions, for example, “You didn't go to school?” Virtually all Chinese EFL students will answer “yes” when a native English speaker

would say “no,” as in “no, I didn't go to school this morning,” or conversely “yes, I did.” In other words, Chinese EFL students will answer the question as if there was no negation: “Yes, that is correct. I didn't go to school this morning.”

In the same way, many CFL learners also have problems with negative questions since Chinese has two negative words. For example, “你 (nǐ) 没 (méi) 吃 (chī) 早饭 (zǎo fàn)? (you didn't eat breakfast?).” Normally, many CFL learners will respond “不 (bù)” as a “No” instead of “没 (méi)-no”. They also have similar problems as Chinese EFL learners do because of the different language logic.

After comparing Chinese and English grammar, it is easy to say that the latter has a more complicated grammar, which makes EFL learners more confused at the primary level. However, in this chapter, the differences in other aspects of grammar are not considered.

3.3.3. Vocabulary and Word Usage

For English-speaking CFL learners, the most difficult problem is Chinese character writing and different word combinations. According to Everson (1998), a common feature among CFL learners is their relatively fast acquisition of the spoken language but slow acquisition of Chinese characters. Everson's study demonstrated a positive correlation between the ability to pronounce Chinese words and the ability to identify their meanings. This finding suggests that phonological proficiency is advantageous for CFL learners in acquiring Chinese characters (1998). However, it is still not possible to say whether it is better to introduce the Chinese characters or delay their introduction as part of CFL learners' first year. While according to Ye's research,

the majority of CFL programs do not delay teaching characters, most teachers and students believe that speaking and listening are the most important skills, while reading and especially writing characters are the most difficult to acquire (2011).

In the author's experience as a teacher of Chinese as a foreign language, it is better to introduce the writing of Chinese characters at CFL learners' second or third year after they have acquired a strong phonetic base and speaking vocabulary. If Chinese writing is introduced at the CFL learners' primary levels, its difficulties may discourage many CFL learners. Unless specified, in this thesis Chinese character writing will be excluded as part of CFL teaching and learning.

Despite the differences described here, Chinese does mostly use the same "subject - verb - object" word order as English, making it easier to translate word for word. For example, the English phrase "he likes dogs" is translated directly as "他(tā) - 喜欢 (xǐ huān) - likes 狗 (gǒu) - dogs."

Chapter 4. Innovative Teaching Approaches in FLT Classrooms

In the last decades there has been a shift towards more innovative teaching methods which can adequately address the wide-ranging needs of foreign language students. With the rapid development of the Internet and intelligence technology, it is obvious that lecturing methods will need to adjust new techniques to keep students engaged and motivated. These methods are moving away from the traditional model of lecturing and passive learning towards a greater focus on active learning, where students openly interact with one another and participate in the learning process. If the student develops higher thinking skills and problem solving abilities, the teaching methods available to them will become increasingly positive. The traditional didactic lecture model has been heavily criticized over the years for failing to engage students by limiting opportunities for student interaction, but the teaching methods to be described in the following section will provide greater student interactions in lectures resulting in much higher satisfaction, higher thinking skills and enhanced motivation.

Innovative teaching is a proactive approach to integrate new teaching strategies and methods into a classroom and to engage students intellectually through active participation. Teacher education research has established that how we were taught is one of the primary determinants in how we teach (Guskey, 2003), in that the time FL teachers have personally spent in the classroom will significantly affect the way they approach the teaching task. Modern foreign language teachers apply mixed approaches to fit the individual needs of FL learners. This means choosing appropriate teaching techniques and relevant activities for each particular task, context and learner group, with a focus on motivation towards student independence in the use of the target foreign language. Lortie (2008) and Burns (2009) have pointed out that each beginning teacher has already completed a minimum 13,000-hour apprenticeship of observation before

entering a teacher education program. Foreign language teachers receive training in a wide variety of language teaching methods; some of the characteristics of these innovative methodologies are:

- 1) Increased exposure to the target language.
- 2) Teachers act as partners in class to facilitate the learning process.
- 3) Students assume an active role to explore and reflect on the target language learning process.
- 4) The four language skills are integrated in a natural way.
- 5) Student learning styles are taken into account, and active participation is encouraged.
- 6) Teachers and students cooperate to solve problems and share successes in the classroom (Briggs, 2014; Zuljan, 2010; Burns, 2009; Lortie, 2008).

Moreover, based on the professional standards proposed by Lewis-Clark State College (2012), and in order to ensure the continuous intellectual, social, and physical development of the learner, the qualified teacher should demonstrate their professional competences in three aspects: Knowledge, Skill and Dedication (See Figure 15 for the details).

Knowledge

- Of all subjects taught
- Of the nature of learning
- Of effective ways of teaching

Skill

- As an educational designer
- As an educational facilitator
- As an educational evaluator
- As an effective communicator

Dedication

- To the well-being of children
- To the profession of Education
- To individual differences and special needs
- To diversity, equity, and human dignity
- To reflective practice

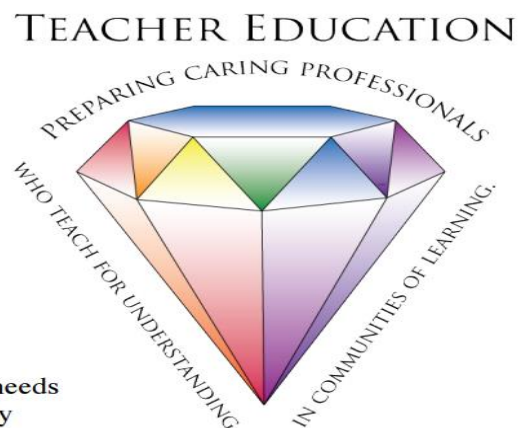


Figure 15. Professional Standards for a Qualified Teacher (Source: Lewis-Clark State College, Division of Education, 2012)

Figure 15 shows that a qualified teacher should be “an educational designer, facilitator and communicator”, and should be capable of “holding effective ways of teaching, dedicated to diversity, equity, individual differences and special needs, as well as reflective practice” (“Professional Standards”, 2012, p. 1). Qualified FL teachers are committed to using multiple teaching strategies to engage students in active learning opportunities that promote the development of critical thinking, problem-solving, and performance capabilities and that help learners assume responsibility for identifying and using learning resources (Yoon, Duncan, Scarloss, & Shapley, 2007).

However the theories underpinning these methodologies may have been accepted or discredited by foreign language researchers, innovative methodologies are being applied in FL classrooms nowadays. In this chapter, some new popularly applied teaching methods will be discussed.

4.1 Task-based Language Teaching Approach (TBLT)

The Task-based Language Teaching Approach (TBLT) has gained ground in recent years. Unlike traditional, teacher-centered FL teaching methods, task-based teaching is learner-centered, where the objective is that the students discover the target language while performing real-life tasks. Proponents claim that it develops and improves speaking, writing, listening, and reading skills, and precludes non-interactive, passive listening by students (Khadidja, 2010; Shyamlee, 2000; Paul, 2008).

Breen (1984) suggests that “when we place communication at the centre of Curriculum the goal of FL learners and learning means begin to merge: FL learners learn to communicate by communicating” (p. 52). However, some linguists such as Krashen (1982), Swain (1996), Doughty and Williams (1998) regard this form as

unnecessary, as ability to use the target foreign language would develop automatically if learners focused on meaning in the process of completing tasks.

In recent years, there is widespread acceptance that both means and ends should be incorporated in content and learning process (Nunan, 2006). Task-Based Learning stems from the Communicative Language Teaching and, therefore, shares some of their principles. Both methods consider that language is a tool for communication rather than a set of phonological, grammatical and lexical items to be memorized (Nunan 2006). However, even if both methods aim at enhancing the communicative language competence, Task Based Learning focuses specifically on achieving the communicative competence through the development of tasks. Although there are many similarities between communicative language teaching and task-based language teaching, they are not synonymous. Nunan (2006), Brinton (2003), and Savignon (1993), see communicative language teaching as a broad, philosophical approach to the language curriculum; while task-based language teaching represents a realization of this philosophy at the levels of syllabus design and methodology, text-based syllabuses, problem-based learning, and immersion education (Feez, 1998; Johnston & Swain, 1997). Ellis (1994) notes that in the case of second language acquisition, learners do not acquire items perfectly and individually; rather, they learn numerous items imperfectly and often almost simultaneously. Prabhu's (1987) research showed that his students could learn the foreign language just as easily while concentrating on solving a non-linguistic problem as when they were focused on linguistic questions, which popularized this task-based teaching method (Mahan & Chopra, 2010).

TBLT, also known as task-based instruction (TBI), focuses on authentic language and on originating meaningful tasks using the target language, based on the concept that effective learning occurs when students are fully engaged in language tasks

rather than learning the form or grammar (Robinson, 2011; East 2012; Nunan, 2004). The main aim of this methodology is to use tasks for promoting the acquisition of the target language. Such tasks can include booking a restaurant table, shopping with friends, visiting a doctor, or asking for advice from other persons. Unlike the grammar-translation method, assessment primarily focuses on outcome, the appropriate completion of real world tasks, rather than on the accuracy of prescribed language forms. This makes TBLT especially popular for developing target language fluency and student confidence in EFL and CFL classes. Hence, TBLT can be considered as a branch of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) method.

4.1.1 Definition of TBLT

Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) originated in 1913 from Dewey's view of the importance of experience, relevance and intelligent effort for effective learning, and it emphasizes purposeful and functional language use (Ellis, 2009; Hu, 2013). However, it was not until the 1950s that tasks for teaching first appeared in vocational training practice. The task basis was first derived from the military, concerned about training design for military technologies and occupational specialists of the period. Task analysis initially focused on solo psychomotor tasks, for which little communication or collaboration was involved (Richards & Rodgers, 2000, 2014). The TBLT approach promotes active participation and requires students to perform a series of real-life tasks in classrooms, making the performance of meaningful tasks central to the learning process. Long (1985) defines a target task as:

A piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus examples of tasks include painting a fence, dressing a child,

filling out a form, buying a pair of shoes...In other words, by 'task' is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play and in between (p. 89).

It has attracted increasing attention from researchers and teacher educators since Candlin and Murphy's seminal collection of papers in 1987. Pedagogically, task-based language teaching has strengthened the following principles and practices:

- 1) A needs-based approach to content selection;
- 2) An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language;
- 3) The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation;
- 4) The provision of opportunities for learners to focus not only on language but also on the learning process itself;
- 5) An enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning;
- 6) The linking of classroom language learning with language use outside the classroom (Nunan, 2004, p. 11; Murphy, 2003, p. 33; Adams, 2009, p. 14).

The main characteristics of TBLT are that students learn and use the target language naturally, and the tasks help students use and acquire the language in a natural way. Tasks provide comprehensible input as well as forcing students to produce significant output in meaningful contexts. Task Based Learning focuses on meaning rather than on form. With TBL, form and content are interwoven, and grammar is only important to the extent that it aids communication. However, this method also focuses on language form which occurs within the context of performing the tasks, the use of

authentic language and on the performance of meaningful tasks which become crucial in the foreign language learning process.

Therefore, TBLT challenges mainstream views about language teaching in that it is based on the principle that language learning will progress most successfully if teaching aims simply to create contexts in which the learner's natural language learning capacity can be nurtured rather than making a systematic attempt to teach the language bit by bit (Nunan, 2006; Ellis, 2009; Bygate et al., 2001). TBLT has evolved from the Communicative Language Teaching movement, and calls for students' active participation in pair or in small group work to complete the required tasks. Therefore, TBLT is a strong communicative approach; students are free of language control to engage in enjoyable and motivating activities. In TBLT, a natural context is developed from students' experiences with a personalized target language relevant to them. Students' needs in TBLT classes dictate what will be covered rather than a decision made by the teacher or the coursebook.

In 2004, Lopez conducted an experiment based on task-based instructions, in two classes in a private school in the south of Brazil. He found that students using the TBLT method learned English more effectively because they were using the language to do such tasks as to access information, solve problems, exchange information, and to talk about personal experiences. The students who were exposed to real language were able to deal with real-life situations when they encountered them outside the classroom.

Decisions need to be taken regarding the types and content of tasks to be included in a course, and, crucially, how to sequence the tasks so as to best facilitate learning. Methodological decisions concern the structure of a task-based lesson and the type of participation employed. When these tasks are transformed from the real world to the FL classroom, they become pedagogical in nature.

Various definitions have been offered in TBLT literature concerning the concept task: Breen (1987) regards task as “a range of work plans” (p. 23); Willis, J. (1996) gives the meaning of task as “a goal-oriented activity in which learners use language to achieve a real outcome” (p. 53); Nunan’s (1989, 2006) definition is “a piece of classroom work involving learners in comprehending, producing or interacting in the target language” while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to “convey meaning rather than to manipulate form” (p. 10). The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as “a communicative act in its own right with a beginning, a middle and an end” (p. 4).; while Long (2000) frames it in terms of target tasks:

... a target task is a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus examples of tasks include painting a fence, dressing a child, filling out a form, buying a pair of shoes, making an airline reservation, borrowing a library book, taking a driving test, typing a letter, weighing a patient, sorting letters, making a hotel reservation, writing a bank check, finding a street destination and helping someone across a road (p. 89).

Richards and Renandya (2002) offer a more complex definition:

Task is an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding the foreign language. For example, drawing a map while listening to a tape, listening to an instruction and performing a command may be referred to as tasks. Tasks may or may not involve the production of language. A task usually requires the teacher to specify what will be

regarded as successful completion of the task. The use of a variety of different kinds of tasks in language teaching is said to make language teaching more communicative since it provides a purpose for a classroom activity which goes beyond the practice of language for its own sake (p. 289).

Here, tasks are defined in terms of what the learners will do in class rather than in the world outside the classroom. They also emphasize the importance of having a non-linguistic outcome. Long's definition of task is non-technical and non-linguistic. It describes what the person in the street might say if asked what they were doing. Learners, if asked why they are attending a foreign language course such as Spanish, are more likely to say so that they could make hotel reservations, ask directions, go shopping and buy food, etc. when they are traveling in Spanish-speaking countries, rather than to be able to master the Spanish subjunctives or verb conjugations. Effective tasks serve to motivate learners since learning in ELF is imaginative, challenging, interesting, and enjoyable (Hui, 2004).

According to Ellis (1996) and Bygate et al. (2001), a task that could be language-oriented must satisfy the following criteria in Figure 16:

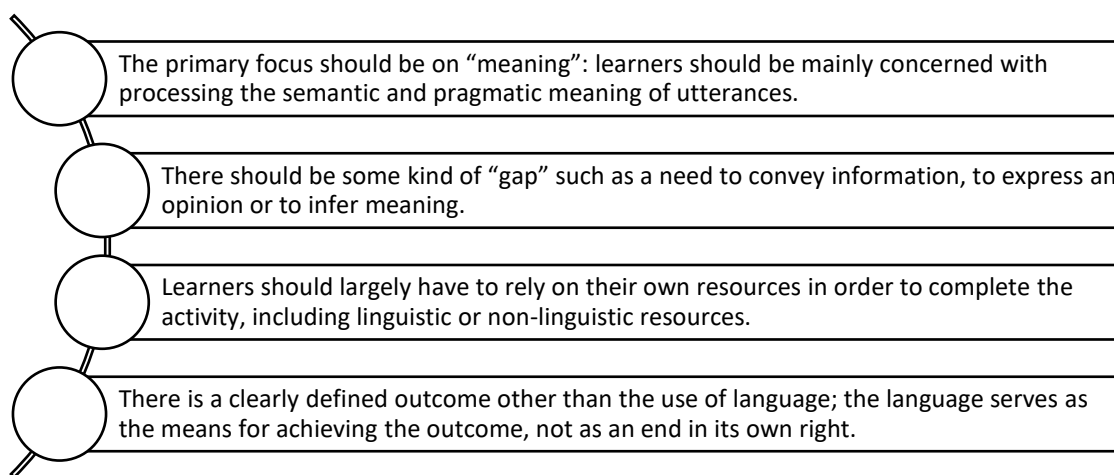


Figure 16. Four Criteria for a Task in TBLT (Source: Task-based Language Teaching, Willis, 2009)

On the basis of such criteria, it is not difficult to conclude that tasks are activities that require FL learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allows teachers to control and regulate that process. The role of a task in TBLT is providing comprehensible input and promoting communicative interaction among the learners. Interaction is a very effective way for learners to obtain data for language learning and interactive tasks can promote learners' negotiation of meaning and facilitate the development of language (Gass, 1997; Long, 2000; Hui, 2004).

Nunan (2006), in "*Task-Based Language Teaching*", notes that tasks can be divided into "unfocused" and "focused". Unfocused tasks are designed to provide learners with opportunities for using language communicatively in general. Focused tasks are designed to provide opportunities for communicating using some specific linguistic feature. However, focused tasks must still satisfy the four criteria stated above. For this reason the target linguistic feature of a focused task is "hidden"; learners are not told explicitly what the feature is. Thus, a focused task can still be distinguished from a situational grammar exercise because the latter learners are made aware of the feature they are supposed to be producing. Apart from Nunan's classification, and from the aspect of teaching methodology and the practice of learners, tasks can also be divided into closed tasks and open tasks. "Closed tasks are ones that are highly structured and have very specific goals. Open tasks are ones that more loosely structured, with a less specific goal" (Willis, 1996, p. 28). For instance, the task requiring FL learners divided into small groups to compare the differences of a subject topic is considered a closed task since the instruction and the information are much tighter. For the open task, one typical example is to express FL learners' own opinion on the topic of a chosen text since the tasks depend more on the FL learners' own way

of task-completion with personal perspective added, and there is no definitive task outcome.

Skehan (1998), expanded five key characteristics of a task in Chart 7:

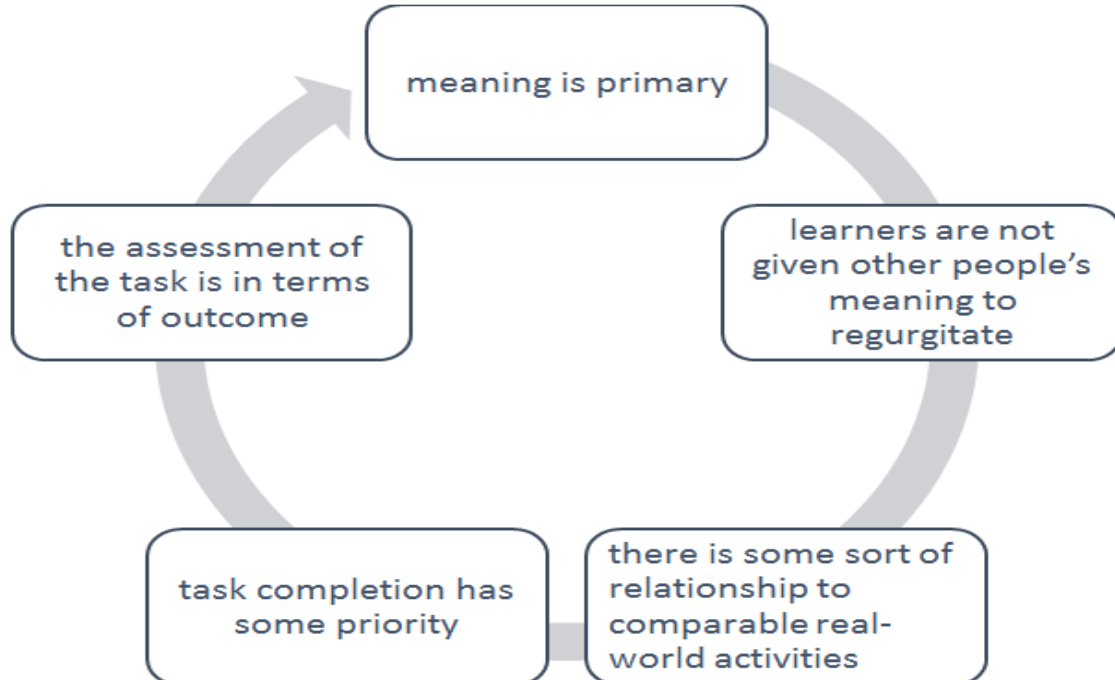


Chart 7. Five Key Characteristics of a Task. (Source: “Task-based Language Teaching”, Skehan, 1998)

Skehan’s perspective provides a refreshing point of view that the meaning of the target language is primary and task completion has some priority over language forms. However, even though these definitions vary somewhat, they all emphasize the fact that pedagogical tasks involve communicative language use in which the learners’ attention is focused on meaning rather than grammatical form, but this does not mean that the grammar is not important. The deployment of grammatical knowledge to express meaning highlights the fact that meaning and form are highly interrelated, and that grammar exists to enable the language user to express different communicative meanings. For Willis (1996) tasks differ from grammatical exercises in that learners are free to use a range of language structures to achieve task outcomes. In the same vein, Ellis (2001) considers that TBL uses meaningful tasks in order that induce learners to

focus on linguistic form. The implication of this is that FL teachers have more instructing options for learners to complete the oriented tasks to balance the target language's form and meaning.

4.2 The Framework of TBLT

TBLT suggests that teachers support students with meaningful classroom tasks and help them complete those tasks through modeling, experiencing, practicing, participating, cooperating, and communicating (Klapper, 2003; Nunan, 2004; Hu, 2013). In the view of Nunan (2004), there is a framework for task-based language teaching which defines and exemplifies the key elements. In addition, Willis (1996) and Gatbonton and Segalowitz (2005) also elucidate that a successful TBLT lesson should include the following elements: pre-task, task cycle and post-task (see Figure 17).

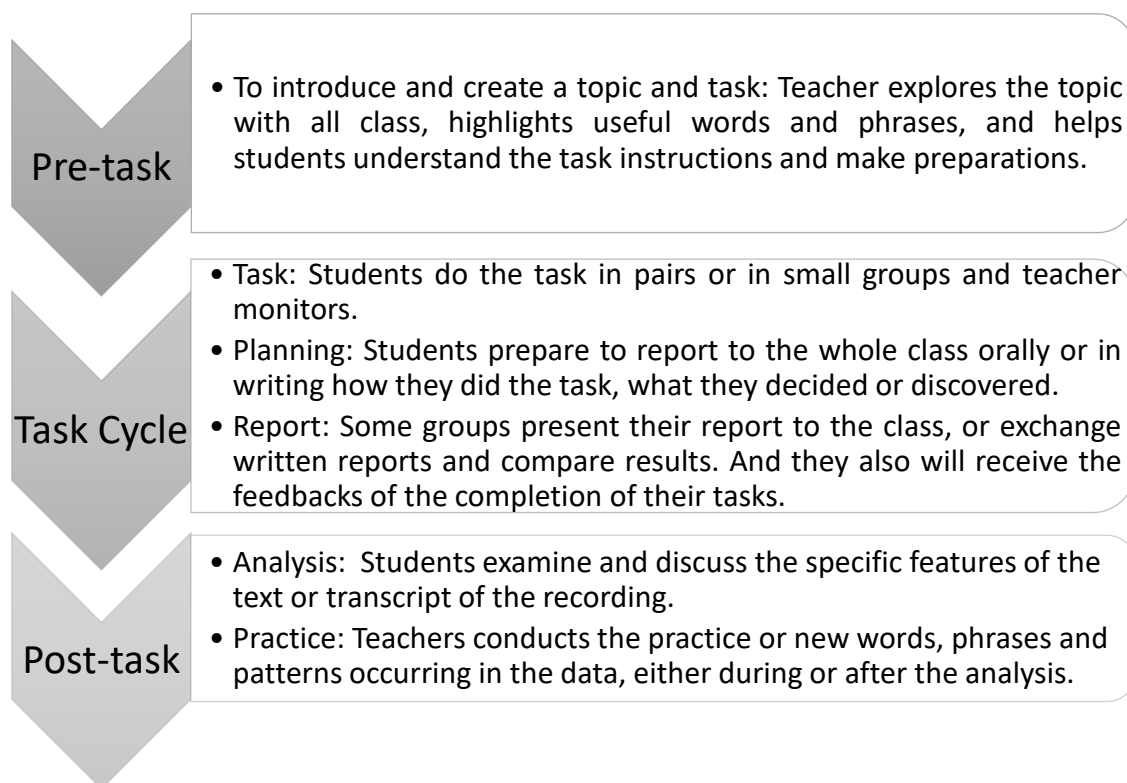


Figure 17. Process and Activities of the TBLT Lesson (Source: Gatbonton and Segalowitz. "A Study on Task-based Language Teaching: From Theory to Practice.")

A framework as outlined in Figure 29 provides a clear lesson structure while allowing for creativity and variety in the choice of options in each phase. The pre-task phase has two basic functions, one is to introduce and create interest in a task on the chosen topic, the other is to activate topic-related words, phrases and target sentences that will be useful in carrying out the task and in the real world (Rooney, 2000). The purpose of the pre-task phase is to prepare students to perform the tasks in ways that will promote FL acquisition (Ellis 2010). One way of framing the task is to provide an advance organizer of what the learners are required to do and the nature of the anticipated outcome (Lee 2000). An optional function is the inclusion of an enabling task to help students communicate as smoothly as possible during the task cycle. Skehan (1996) finds two broad alternatives available for FL teachers in the pre-task phase:

an emphasis on the general cognitive demands of the task, and/or an emphasis on linguistic factors. Attentional capacity is limited, and it is needed to respond to both linguistic and cognitive demands . . . then engaging in activities which reduce cognitive load will release attentional capacity for the learner to concentrate more on linguistic factors (p. 25).

Ellis provides some alternatives, such as supporting students in performing a task similar to the task in the completion phase, asking students to observe a model of the task, engaging students in non-task activities in order to prepare or strategic planning of the main task performance (2010).

The second phase, task cycle, consists of the tasks plus planning and report phases in which students present spoken or written reports of the work done in the tasks. During the task phase, students work in pairs or groups and use whatever linguistic

resources they possess to achieve the goals of the task. Then, to avoid the risk of developing fluency at the expense of accuracy, they work with the teacher to improve their language while planning their reports. In the view of Ellis (2010), there are two basic methodological options available to FL teachers in the during-task phase: one is called “task-performance option” relating to how the task is to be undertaken that “can be taken prior to the actual performance of the task and thus planned for by the teacher” (p. 85); the other is called “process options” that involve the teacher and students in on-line decision making about how to perform the task as it is being completed (p. 86). In the first option, teachers can elect to allow students to complete the task in a limited time which can influence the nature of the language output of learners. Yuan and Ellis (2003) have found that students performing tasks in an unlimited time results in language that is both more complex and more accurate in comparison to a control group asked to perform the same task under time pressure. Teachers can decide whether to allow the students access to the input data while they perform a task.

Joe (1998) reported a study that in two different conditions - with and without access to text, compared learners’ acquisition of a set of target words which they did not know prior to performing the task in a narrative task, the learners with access to text could produce more outputs than the ones without access to text. The “process options”, are concerned with the way in which the discourse arising from the task is enacted rather than pedagogical decisions about the way the task is to be handled (Ellis, 2010, p. 87). According to Schon (1983) and Eraut (1994), FL teachers’ one-line decision reflects their theory-in-use and practical knowledge, while on the learners’ part, they reflect language beliefs (Horwitz, 1987).

The final phase in the framework, also called the language focus, provides an opportunity for form-focused work. In this phase, some of the specific features of the

language which occurred naturally during the task are identified and analyzed. Among the possible starting points for analysis of activities are functions, syntax, words or parts of words, categories of meaning or use, and phonological features. Following analysis activities, this phase may also contain a stage in which the teacher conducts practice of the new words, phrases or patterns which occurred in the analysis activities, the task text or the report phase. The post-task phase also affords many options, with three common pedagogic goals: an opportunity for a repeat performance of the task; reflection on how the task was performed, and attention to form (Ellis 2010). When learners repeat a task their production improves in increased complexity, clearer propositions and more fluent expressions (Lynch & Maclean, 2000). Encouraging students to reflect on their task performance can contribute to the development of the metacognitive strategies of planning , monitoring and evaluating (Chamot, 1990). Learners can also be asked to evaluate the task performance itself, which would help FL teachers to decide whether to use similar tasks in the future or look for new task types. Once the task is completed, students will be encouraged to focus on form and review the errors they made to improve their future task completion, hence consolidating language and raising learners' consciousness of self-correction.

According to what has been previously stated, this method enhances active involvement of the students and encourages them to collaborate with classmates using the target language to do the tasks, that is, it highlights the importance of learning to communicate through interaction in the foreign language. Students acquire a functional perspective of the target language, which is conceived as a means to an end (the task). Another advantage of this methodology is that it brings students' own personal experiences into classroom learning and relies on authentic material to enhance the

learning process. Interaction is crucial for creating an adequate classroom dynamics which fosters natural language acquisition.

4.3. Language Skills in TBLT

The underlying principle in TBLT is that learners' task performance will help them to develop second language skills in accordance with the learning mechanisms of their own language (Ellis, 2002). The implication for TBL is that if learners are provided with a series of tasks which involve both the development of the four language skill and the production of language with a focus on meaning will be prompted (Nahavandi, 2013). As for the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) based on TBLT approach, there have been some misunderstandings. One of the common misunderstandings of TBLT is that it necessarily involves oral interaction. However, based on the definitions of task explained in the previous section, TBLT not only provides opportunities to practise speaking and listening but also reading and writing. Some current research on teaching English language associates the integration of the four skills with an improvement in the target language. Wallace, Stariha, and Walberg (2004) suggest that the integration of language skills provides natural situations in which listening, speaking, reading, and writing are developed in a single class to enhance English learning. Nunan (1999) supports this idea, seeing the integration of language skills as important for developing genuine communicative competence through authentic language usage.

Not all language skills can be conducted through isolable and discrete structural elements (Kaplan, 1997; Stern, 1992). Tasks aim at providing occasions for learners to experiment and explore both spoken and written language through learning tasks that

are designed to engage students in the authentic, practical, and functional use of language (Nunan, 2004). That is to say, it is impossible for language skills to be developed in isolation. For instance, both speaking and listening comprehension are needed in a conversation while reading and listening or writing are likely to be almost as common as having classes (Hinkel, 2010).

While many tasks are integrative, they were developed from communicative approaches, and integrating language skills facilitates the development of linguistic and communicative abilities (Ellis, 2014; Dickinson, 2010). It also depends on the choice of task in relation to the developmental level of the target learners: for beginners, the tasks might be designed to emphasize speaking and listening skills as well as fluency in the target language; for high level learners, the tasks might be designed to focus on developing reading and writing skills, as well as target language accuracy (“ESL Program Models”, para. 6).

Skehan and Foster examined a series of task characteristics and task condition variables on three different aspects of L2 performance: fluency, accuracy and complexity through three different task types: personal information exchange, decision-making and narrative (as cited. in Mehran, 2008, p. 368). See Table 4 for a better understanding of the effects of task characteristics on language accuracy, complexity and fluency.

Table 4: *The Effects of Task Characteristics on Language Accuracy, Complexity and Fluency*

Task Characteristic	Accuracy	Complexity	Fluency
Familiarity of information	No effect	No effect	Slightly greater
Dialogic vs. Monologic	Greater	Slightly greater	Lower
Degree of Structure	No effect	No effect	Greater
Complexity of outcome	No effect	Greater	No effect
Transformations	No effect	Planned condition leads to greater	No effect

(Source: Foster and Skehan, “*The influence of source of planning and focus of planning on task-based performance*”)

Table 4 shows that task type will affect target language accuracy, complexity and fluency, and that it is possible to design tasks that are predictive of language use as well as different language skills. Task difficulty should be taken into account and teachers need to design tasks that address particular pedagogical needs. A further aspect to consider is the necessity of using tasks that not only induce students to focus on form and meaning, but also accommodate students' different learning styles and strategy preferences (Samuda & Bygate, 2008).

Cordova's findings show that TBLT is an effective approach to integrate all language skills in EFL programs and a meaningful way to develop FL learners' self-awareness of FL learning process. This is also corroborated by Richards and Rodgers (2001) who point out that learning tasks suited to learner needs assists mastery of skills through a variety of class exercises. Development of the four language skills, then, depends on well- designed tasks suited to the needs of FL learners.

As for reading skills in TBLT, Shabani and Ghasemi conducted research about the effect of Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) on the EFL reading comprehension and concluded that TBLT as a meaning-centred methodology encouraged FL learners to understand the written text with an unconscious and peripheral focus on the form of language (2007), the three different phases in TBLT can help FL learners activate their background knowledge and the related schemata and get feedbacks from their peers and teacher immediately, thus TBLT helps FL learners to master their target language more effectively and naturally. Besides, this methodology is quite effective for fostering reading skills (Keyvanfar & Modaresi, 2009). Students need to rely on written texts from a variety of sources in order to perform some of the tasks. Written texts are one of the sources of input in TBL and, since students need to summarize, paraphrase, and reorganize the information they have read, critical thinking

skills and reading comprehension is enhanced. In short, TBLT encourages FL learners to understand the written text with an unconscious and peripheral focus on the form of language as a meaning-centred methodology (Shabani & Ghasemi, 2007).

Furthermore, TBLT has proved effective in developing students' listening and speaking abilities since student interaction is based on listening and speaking. What is more, "the implementation and the structure of TBLT allowed the FL learners to express themselves freely and to practice real-world language more than normal classroom environment" (Saricoban & Karakurt, 2015, p. 457). FL learners' feedback expressed listening and speaking confidence in class while performing tasks, and increased motivation to communicate in group problem solving, thus the TBLT method significantly developed their listening and speaking abilities (2015).¹⁸

Research on the writing skill has shown the effectiveness of implementing TBLT for fostering writing abilities. For example, Ahmed and Bidin's (2016) research in Malaysia observed improvement in the complexity, fluency, and accuracy of the target written language of the TBLT participants compared to the language learners from the control group. TBLT also allows students to use the procedural knowledge they have learnt and apply it productively in the task context which helps learners appreciate the academic questions and provide an experiential substrate for the development of a further academic discourse (Buykkarci, 2010). Further in 2014 Miao demonstrated that the task-based approach to English writing, with the introduction of oriented tasks, increased student motivation when they "cooperated with their classmates and teacher in order to write better English essays" (p. 68). Both FL teachers and learners have benefited from the TBLT approach to the writing process because of group engagement in meaningful activities. According to Vygotsky (1978), social

¹⁸ See also Murad and Smadi (2009, p. 102).

interaction plays a fundamental role in the development of cognition. Writing abilities and skills development arise from interactions with others rather than in isolation. In addition, Valli and Priya (2016) have also concluded, based on their research on writing skills and TBLT, that TBLT has proved to be a successful approach in developing students' writing skills at any level as it encourages student involvement.

To summarise, TBLT is applicable and suitable for foreign language learners of all ages and backgrounds; FL learners have a more varied exposure to language, are more active and participate with greater motivation towards tasks and activities (Mao, 2012). FL learners are free to use and manage whatever vocabulary and grammar they know since they are not obliged to concentrate on one aspect of a certain language skill, and learners are exposed to a whole range of lexical phrases, collocations and patterns as well as language forms, enabling FL learners to explore the target language. Students pay closer attention to the relationship between form and meaning, which requires a high level of creativity and initiative to complete the task. Well-designed tasks facilitate awareness of syntax, vocabulary, and phonology that may lack perceptual and psychological saliency in untutored conversational settings and so may go unnoticed and unlearned (Schmidt, 2013). TBLT is therefore effective for FL teaching and learning since it uses all the language skills, freeing students to focus entirely on meaning in more realistic situations.

4.2. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

In Europe, in recent years, an innovative teaching method, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), has become a prevalent method in FL classrooms. It refers to a dozen or more educational approaches such as immersion,

bilingual education, multilingual education, etc. It also refers to educational settings where a language other than the learner's mother tongue is used as the medium of instruction. The target language can be found in use from kindergarten to a high level, and the extent of its use may range from occasional foreign language texts in individual subjects to covering the whole curriculum. Rationales for the use of CLIL tend to be directed towards the perception that outcomes of foreign language learning in school settings are frequently unsatisfactory, especially in terms of productive skills (Darn, 2006, 2009). CLIL's main characteristic is that it focuses on both the acquisition of language-independent concepts and skills as well as an additional language (Houwer & Wilton, 2011; Marsh, 2007; Dalton-Puffer, 2007).

The term CLIL was coined in Europe in the early 1990s to describe any dual focused provision in which a second language is used for teaching non-language subject matter, with language and content having a joint and mutually beneficial role (Marsh, 2002, 2007, 2008). The glossary produced by University of Cambridge ESOL Examination (2009) offers the definition that "CLIL is an approach in which a foreign language is used as a tool in the learning of a non-language subject in which both language and the subject have a joint role"(p. 1). This idea is based on the belief that a foreign language is best acquired if the emphasis is put on content rather than form (Wolf, 2003). Instead of using everyday life as a source, classroom content consists of such subjects as mathematics, biology or geography, taught through the target language. Therefore, CLIL teachers need three separate but intertwined abilities in order to operate within this new approach: target language ability, content knowledge and CLIL methodology. Integration of language and content gives equal importance to both elements although, on occasion, they may vary in importance, even when the intention is proficiency in both (Eurydice, 2006, p.14). The flexibility of the CLIL system

accommodates a wide range of socio-political and cultural realities in the European context (Harrop, 2012; Inglis, 2008; Kalanj, 2013).

Marsh (1999, 2007, 2008) sees CLIL as a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language, and it synthesizes and provides a flexible way of applying the knowledge learnt from these various approaches. While for Novotná and Hofmannová (2000), Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is "an innovative approach to learning, a dynamic and motivating force with holistic features" (p. 77). Marsland et al. (2008) described CLIL as "an approach which refers to any learning context in which content and language are integrated in order to fulfil specified educational aims" (p. 15). This method of learning subject content through a foreign language has been acclaimed worldwide as a pedagogical tool, providing learners with a special learning-promoting atmosphere.

In short, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) refers to a dozen or more educational approaches such as immersion, bilingual education, multilingual education, etc. It also refers to educational settings where a language other than the learner's mother tongue is used as the medium of instruction. The target language can be found in use from kindergarten to a high level, and the extent of its use may range from occasional foreign language texts in individual subjects to covering the whole curriculum. Rationales for the use of CLIL tend to be directed towards the perception that outcomes of foreign language learning in school settings are frequently seen as unsatisfactory, especially in terms of productive skills (Darn, 2006, 2009).

4.2.1. A Brief History and Definition of CLIL

CLIL gained increasing popularity in European countries in the 1990s when greater levels of foreign language proficiency and new forms of bilingual education were needed due to socio-economic integration and globalization. Though the term CLIL was launched in 1994, its practice has been around a lot longer with its roots in immersion education from the 1970s and 1980s. In the 1890s, bilingualism and multilingualism existed among the most privileged wealthy families. More recently, probably the first example of modern CLIL appeared in 1965 in Canada, where it was known as Content-based Instruction (CBI). English-speaking parents who were living in the French quarter of Quebec were worried because they saw that their children were disadvantaged compared with French speakers. They asked the Government to produce school immersion programs so that their children learned the subjects in French instead of learning the French language only. The idea apparently spread through Canada and to the rest of the world. In the 1970s more bilingual immersion programs for people of different backgrounds appeared and there was an increased awareness that language and content should go hand-in-hand. Therefore, CBI has been explicitly encouraged in official EU documentation since the 1990s.

In 1996 the Council of Europe introduced and developed the concept, subsequently underpinning it with a series of classroom based studies which provided evidence for its advantages (“CLIL in Europe,” 2015, para. 4). In 21st century Europe almost all countries have incorporated this approach into their school systems. Some offer CLIL-type provision on a voluntary basis, others have made it an obligatory part of their education (Wolff, 2012).

The definition is clear with respect to most aspects of CLIL. It accentuates the dual focus of the content-language approach and makes clear that CLIL is expected to

promote pre-defined competences related to both language and content. Marsh and Langé's seminal definition of CLIL has been modified since 2000. Nowadays this method is defined in the European Framework of references for languages as "a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of content and language with the objective of promoting both content and language mastery to pre-defined levels" (Marsh, 2006, p. 1).

CLIL came to be seen as "a joint curricular role in the domain of mainstream education, pre-schooling and adult lifelong education" where it does not give emphasis to either language teaching or learning, or to content teaching and learning, but sees both as integral parts of the whole (Marsh, 2007, p. 58). It also can be seen as a powerful tool which aims to safeguard the subject being taught whilst promoting language as a medium for learning as well as an objective of the learning process itself (Coyle, 2008, p. 37). Holmes, Coyle, and King (2009) described CLIL again in their "Towards an *integrated curriculum-CLIL National Statement and Guidelines*" as:

a pedagogic approach in which language and subject area content are learnt in combination. The generic term CLIL describes any learning activity where language is used as a tool to develop new learning from a subject area or theme (p. 6).

While, in the view of Eurydice (2006), Marsh (2002, 2008) and Liang (2013), CLIL is a generic teaching method encompassing all methodological practices pertaining to various bilingual education models in which FL is used as a medium to teach academic subjects, CLIL is distinctive for its emphasis on the notion of integration of both content and language. Colye stated that "integration of content and language is a powerful pedagogic tool which aims to safeguard the subject being taught whilst

promoting language as a medium for learning as well as an objective of the learning process itself” (2008, p. 27).

The CLIL method requires language teachers to learn more about subject content and subject teachers to learn about the language needed for their subjects. CLIL therefore strives to promote two types of learning: non-language content and a target foreign language; each becomes a vehicle for promotion of the other. In CLIL practice, a dual-focused approach is understood in many countries as that which prioritizes the content subject: CLIL teaching and learning is foremost about content subject teaching and learning. The additional language in which teaching and learning takes place, is not taught as such but referred to whenever it seems useful. CLIL is therefore often called language-sensitive content teaching, and is based on a set of scientific concepts derived from second language acquisition research, from cognitive psychology and from constructivism (Wolff, 2008; Harrop, 2012; Fontecha & Alfonso, 2014). Empirical research in second language acquisition has shown that languages are learnt while they are being used; cognitive and constructivist psychologists have made it clear that language learning takes place when learners are involved in the content they are dealing with (Banegas, 2012, p. 12).

Clegg (2006) provided a useful table (Table 5) to point out the many differences between traditional FL teaching and CLIL.

Table 5. Comparison of FL Teaching and CLIL

Key Features	Foreign language teaching		CLIL
	Conventional FL teaching	Content-based language teaching	
Priority in planning	Language	Language	Subject
Taught by:	Language or class teacher	Language or class teacher	Class teacher
Assessed as:	Language	Language	Subject
Viewed as:	Language teaching	Language teaching	Subject teaching
Materials	Language	Language/subject	Subject
Syllabus	Language syllabus: general purposes	Language syllabus: CALP ¹⁸	Content syllabus and CALP
Methodology	FLT methodology	Language-supportive teaching	Language-supportive subject-teaching desirable

(Source: Clegg, J. Teaching Subjects through a Foreign Language in the Primary School)

From Table 5, it can be seen that the major difference between traditional FL teaching and CLIL is that whereas the former focuses on language-supportive teaching, the latter focuses on both the language and subject content. In addition, CLIL provides a purpose for language use in the classroom, since learners need to communicate among each other in order to help cooperative learning. It has a positive effect on language learning by putting the emphasis on meaning rather than on form. By having non-disposable content, it focuses on meaning and grammar is embedded. Most students dislike learning grammar as a subject, therefore, learning grammar in a more meaningful way helps them to acquire grammar rather than study it. This method increases considerably the amount of exposure to the target language (Dalton-Puffer & Smit, 2007), potentially doubling or more the amount of language exposure, while taking into account the learners' interests, needs and cognitive levels.

As stated previously, CLIL is a meaning-focused learning method, an umbrella term used to talk about bilingual education situations (Van de Craen, 2006; Gajo, 2007; Bentley, 2010). Furthermore it concerns languages and intercultural knowledge and understanding (Marsh, 2008, p. 12). CLIL is an evolving educational approach where subjects are taught through the medium of a non-native language, aiming at an equal development of proficiency in both content subjects and the language in which they are taught. It operates along a continuum of the FL and academic content at any one time, (Colye, 2006), with “an overall equal focus on content and language” (Leung & Liang, 2013, p. 22), see Figure 18 for the pattern of CLIL.

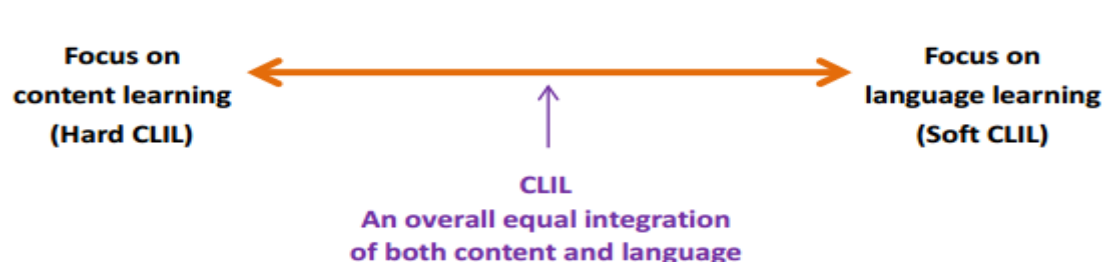


Figure 18. Continuum of CLIL Approach (Source: “CLIL: Perceptions of Teachers and Students in Hong Kong”, 2013)

CLIL is a teacher-led movement, because what happens in classrooms and how this motivates both teachers and learners, is gaining momentum (Coyle, 2006). An essential feature of CLIL is that it places both language and non-language content on a continuum without implying preference or dominance of one over the other (Holmes, Coyle, & King, 2009). It is well-known that the experience of learning subjects through the medium of a non-native language is more challenging and intensive since there is more exposure to the language, and learners acquire knowledge and skills in different areas of the curriculum. CLIL models are by no means uniform (Coonan, 2007, 2012); they are elaborated at a local level to respond to local conditions and desires. It is the combination of many choices with respect to the variables that produces a particular CLIL project. While the central aim of all CLIL projects is to learn language and content simultaneously, it is the interpretation of content and language integration in CLIL that has major implications for and impact on the development of CLIL pedagogies (Coyle, 2009; Richards, 2013, Troyan, 2014).

CLIL is a holistic approach to language learning because it promotes four key principles for effective CLIL practice, known as the “4Cs”: Content, Communication, Cognition, and Culture/Citizenship, and a successful lesson should combine these four elements (Coyle, 1999, 2008). The 4Cs Conceptual Framework views CLIL from a holistic perspective and “integrates four contextualized building blocks: content (subject matter), communication (language learning and using), cognition (learning and thinking process) and culture (developing intercultural understanding and global citizenship)” (Coyle, 2008, p. 41), see Figure 19:

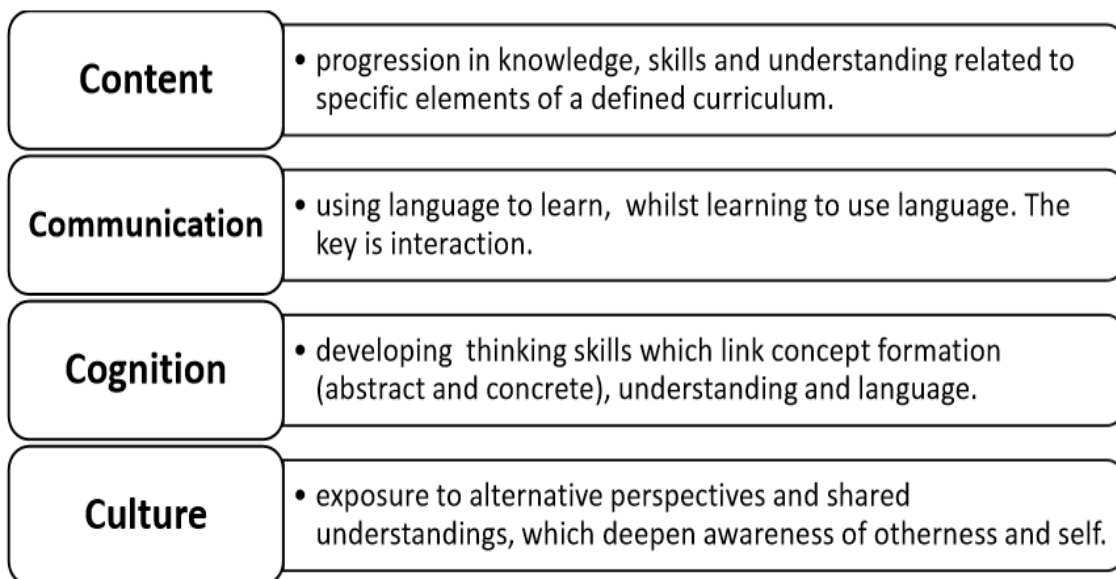


Figure 19. Building Blocks of Coyle’s 4Cs Framework (Source: Coyle, “CLIL: Towards a Connected Research Agenda for CLIL Pedagogies”)

This 4Cs Framework integrates and contextualizes content (content and cognition) and language (communication and culture) learning, asserting the importance and symbiotic relationship of “learning to use language appropriately” while “using language to learn effectively” (Coyle, 2008, p. 9). Coyle (2008) views her framework not as a theory but as a conceptualization of CLIL. As Figure 20 shows, all of the four conceptual elements of CLIL are interwoven and form the educational basis for all variants of CLIL.

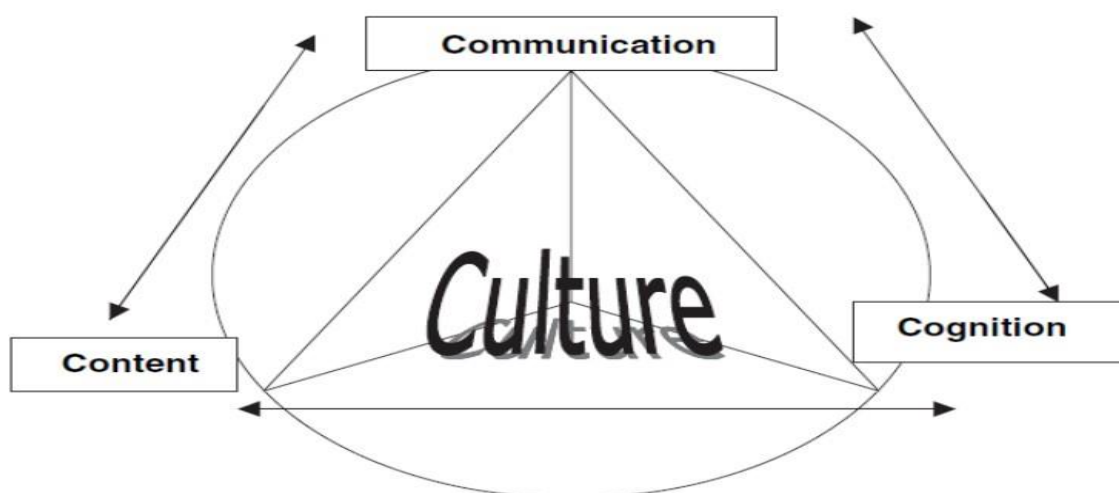


Figure 20: 4Cs Framework for CLIL (Source: Coyle, “Content and Language Integrated Learning: Towards a Connected Research Agenda for CLIL Pedagogies”)

CLIL lessons at school are typically scheduled as content lessons and they are taught on the basis of existing national curricula with the added advantage that the target language is a further foreign language subject (Dalton-Puffer and Nikula, 2009, p. 2). However, greater flexibility is required in CLIL content than is required in selecting curricular subjects because the context of the learning institution defines content in CLIL (Coyle and Marsh 2008, p. 27).

According to the theoretical intentions of CLIL, it represents a student-led approach in which learners are cognitively engaged, with opportunities to think on their own, make choices, or to reason. Effective content learning can only take place when learners are intellectually challenged and when they get the opportunity to apply their knowledge through problem solving or creative thinking. For this reason Coyle claims that CLIL activates deep learning which “involves the critical analysis of new ideas, connecting them to already-known concepts and leads to understanding and long-term retention of those concepts so that they can be used for problem solving in unfamiliar contexts” (2008, p. 39).

As communication is at the core of learning in CLIL lessons, students are required to be active participants in meaningful interaction to acquire content knowledge. This “dialogic form of pedagogy” is an essential part of CLIL classrooms (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2012, p. 35). Students not only learn an additional language but also develop communication skills via active communication in the target language. The terms “language” and “communication” are used interchangeably, not only as a syntactical device for promoting the “C” concepts, but also as a strategy for promoting genuine communication in the target language (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2012, p. 42).

Moreover, there is a strong connection between culture and language, since “culture determines the way in which we interpret the world, and we use language to

express this interpretation” (Marsh 2007, 2012 p. 30). CLIL becomes a means for intercultural experiences because it raises awareness of “otherness” and “self” as well as mediating between different cultures:

culture associated with language cannot be “learned in a few lessons about celebrations, folk songs, or costumes of the area in which the language is spoken. Cultural awareness may focus on knowledge about different cultures, but the move towards intercultural understanding involves different experiences. [...] It starts with raising awareness about one’s own cultures, including culturally learned attitudes and behaviors (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2012, p. 40).

CLIL induces an intercultural dialogue in which learners need to develop competences in analysing social processes or outcomes. In interactive settings CLIL students can demonstrate their cultural knowledge, attitudes, and skills. In addition to the views elaborated above, there are other distinguishing features of CLIL programs, providing a more comprehensive overview of CLIL:

- 1) The CLIL language is usually a FL rather than an L2.
- 2) Most CLIL teachers are content specialists (not target language experts) and non-native speakers of the target language.
- 3) CLIL lessons are scheduled as content lessons. There are stand-alone FL lessons conducted by language specialists.
- 4) In CLIL programs, usually less than 50% of the curriculum is conducted in the target language.
- 5) CLIL is normally implemented at the secondary level when students have already acquired some L1 literacy skills (Dalton-Puffer & Smit, 2007, p. 183-184).

CLIL is close to some types of immersion programs but different from other content-based approaches developed outside Europe. CLIL classrooms are not typical language classrooms; non-linguistic content is used to teach as learners acquire new knowledge but in a foreign language. According to Wolff and Marsh (2007), there are at least three important points in the CLIL teaching method:

Firstly, CLIL should not be perceived as an approach to language teaching and learning, as it is important to pay attention to both content and language. Second, in CLIL content and language are learnt in an integrated way. The two subjects are related to each other and dealt with as a whole. Thirdly, in CLIL, another language is used as the medium of instruction (p. 55).

Naturally, the learners must have some basic knowledge of the language they are learning and be capable of understanding the content. As knowledge of the language becomes the means of learning content, the learner is highly motivated and language acquisition becomes crucial.

4.2.2. Language Skills in CLIL

According to Darn (2006), all four language skills should be combined in a CLIL lesson. CLIL teachers plan a lesson that balances all four skills. Students are presented with new content in a form which requires either reading or listening; they will demonstrate their understanding of the new content through speaking or writing. CLIL lessons exhibit the following characteristics: they integrate language and skills; lessons are often based on reading or listening texts; language is functional and is

dictated by the context of the subject and approached lexically rather than grammatically. This methodology highlights both the necessity of providing meaningful input as well as of producing contextualized output. In order to get adequate input students need to be exposed to a great amount of reading and listening materials, the main goal being to develop student proficiency in both language and content. However, students should also practice productive skills, that is speaking and writing, in order to become proficient users of the target language.

Lessons are usually delivered by teachers versed in CLIL methodology and are based on material directly related to a content-based subject. Both content and language are explored with equal weight, with the aim of guiding language processing and production, using techniques for exploiting reading or listening texts and structures, or for supporting spoken or written language. What is different is that the language teacher is also the subject teacher, or the subject teacher is also able to exploit opportunities for developing the four language skills.

At the core of learning in CLIL lessons is classroom communication, hence students must participate actively to acquire language competence (Marsh & Coyle, 2010). Furthermore, CLIL promotes genuine communication in the target language because this boosts the learners' motivation. Moreover, language use in authentic interactive settings leads to a subtle overlap between intentional language learning and incidental language acquisition. See Figure 21 for the four language skills in a CLIL lesson framework:

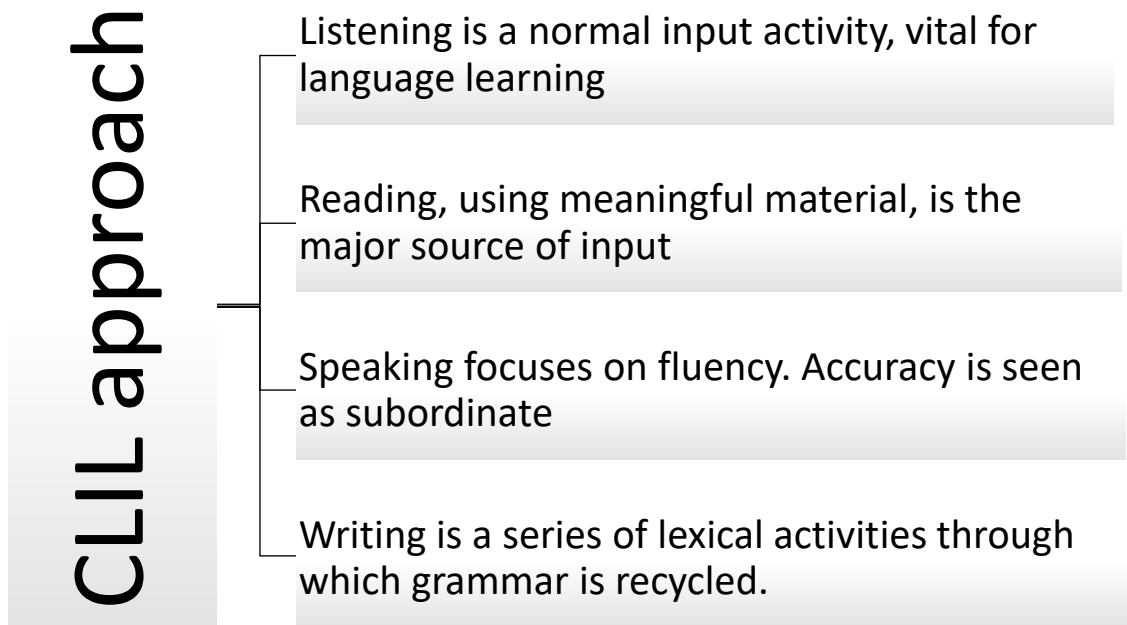


Figure 21: Four Language Skills in a CLIL Lesson (Source: Steve Darn, “CLIL: A lesson framework”)

Listening comprehension, according to Vandergrift (2002), is an interactive, interpretive process where listeners use both prior knowledge and linguistic knowledge in understanding messages. Listening comprehension, as an integral part of verbal communication, is influenced by the situational context, the relationship between the interlocutors, the sender and the addressee, and their mutual perceptions, as well as their goals in the communicative event (Dakowska, qtd. in Papaja, 2014, p. 34). The CLIL teacher may provide this input in the form of lectures, instructions, discussions, video clips or audio recordings. Students also listen to other students presenting or discussing work, giving opinions or asking questions in class. A study of 130 Spanish primary school learners in CLIL and EFL settings assessed their performance and revealed that CLIL students outperformed their non-CLIL counterparts in both receptive and productive listening (Jiménez-Catalán, Ruiz de Zarobe and Cenoz, 2006). Similarly, Admirral and Westhoff (2009), who conducted a four-year longitudinal study of secondary school students in five Dutch schools comparing CLIL and non-CLIL students also provided evidence that listening skills were favoured in CLIL settings.

Liubiniene (2009) conducted research related to developing listening skills in CLIL, and indicated that CLIL students develop better listening skills than non-CLIL students since the CLIL environment provides students with more opportunities for the development and use of listening strategies. Marsh (2008) remarks that there is no need to pay particular attention to the development of listening comprehension skills since CLIL learners are constantly exposed to a foreign language.

Unlike listening, students will have time to read over difficult sections of text and consult a dictionary if necessary and they also can read to find facts, opinions, and arguments, to compare, to follow instructions or to correspond with people. CLIL effectively improves reading skills on a variety of levels which has been shown in a number of studies comparing CLIL and non-CLIL learning situation in which CLIL was consistently shown to provide greater. Pladevall and Ballester (2014) conducted a study related to the development of English reading skills of two CLIL and non-CLIL groups, and found that the CLIL group outperformed the non-CLIL group in the results obtained in the reading comprehension tests. Zarobe and Zenotz concluded in their study about the impact of CLIL on the reading skills that the implementation of this method had a positive effect on the reading comprehension process (2012, 2015). In a CLIL classroom, reading is extremely important because it activates the learners' world and language knowledge and helps them to remember new content information (Papaja, 2014; Andrzej & Konrad, 2013). It also provides the major source of input through relative materials for acquiring detailed information (Hillocks 1987, p. 71). Anderson and Pearson (1984) claim that gaining new content knowledge through reading thematically connected texts activates cognitive structures which help in developing reading comprehension skills. CLIL is more involving and motivating to the learners if the content of the reading tasks is more significant. However, it should be remembered

that reading comprehension is goal-oriented and may be defined as searching for meaning and sense connected with the subject content. To sum up, reading in CLIL classes is supposed to provide the learners with an opportunity to decode and comprehend the text as precisely and deeply as is necessary to store the knowledge for use in communicative activities.

As for the development of speaking skills in the CLIL context, it is evident that students are encouraged to communicate in English, in discussions, presentations, and information exchange in class. Speaking about the subject content allows students to show their understanding and consolidates learning using thinking skills. Spoken production can be considered in terms of fluency, accuracy, communicative interaction, coherence and the range of vocabulary and grammatical structures. It has been suggested that “spoken language skills do not develop as well as receptive skills in CLIL which it may be linked to the types of teaching methods or lack of experience of teachers who are not familiar with CLIL” (Marsh and Marsland, 1999, p. 79). Getting learners to speak English regularly in lessons is one of the main goals of CLIL. Belenkova (2014) has concluded that CLIL learners are more motivated to speak in CLIL classes because the rules for the class structure require their active involvement and also provide a framework for their contributions. Thus, speaking skills are practiced extensively in a CLIL class since learners are required to use the target language to participate, to manage tasks and to communicate with other classmates and the teacher, use subject-specific language to discuss the content of the lesson, and academic language to express the processes or thinking skills which they are using. As Loranc-Paszylk (2009) aptly remarks, these positive experiences in classroom can lead to greater skills and confidence in speaking in front of larger groups.

The ability to write in a target foreign language is necessary to become successful in academic and professional life. Saville-Troike (1984) claims that writing is a language competence which develops academic competence. Taking into consideration the development of writing skills, Wysocka (1989) points out that the ability to select information as well as to plan and organize writing is the most important thing, and it is connected with a special way of thinking on the part of the writer. Writing allows students to demonstrate their understanding of the concepts learnt and allows consolidation and extension of that knowledge. Written work is considered in both content terms and in linguistic accuracy, range, organization and cohesion, register and format (Hawley, 2004; Alves, 2008). Writing strategies such as drafting, paragraph organization and writing introductions and conclusions demonstrated in CLIL class has proved beneficial to learning outcomes for CLIL learners. This method helps student adopt a top-down approach to writing and, therefore, students are more focused on expressing ideas in a well-organized way. They also need to have their audience in mind, which obliges them to select the adequate style and vocabulary.

In addition, the benefits which come from the acquisition of writing skills also help CLIL learners to deal with the subject content and language knowledge. The results of the experiment in Loranc-Paszyk's research in 2009 found that the students who attended CLIL classes made significant progress in developing academic writing skills and grammatical competence. She stressed that the CLIL formula provides a very suitable educational context for a natural integration of thematically-coherent and text-responsible writing.

Overall, research work carried out on CLIL affirms that it is a safe and promising way of teaching both for foreign language and a content subject. (Gregorczyk, 2012). Findings have shown that CLIL has a positive impact not only on content

learning (Vollmer, 2008; Deller & Price, 2007), but also on L1 and L2 competences (Coyle, Hood, & March, 2010). The advantages of adopting a CLIL approach include increasing students' motivation, developing a positive attitude towards learning languages since the learning process is not only about the language grammar, but personalizing the language through teaching subject content that is relevant to students. It also broadens FL learners' horizons through preparing students for further studies and work since the specific target language terminology in their specialty is acquired in natural learning conditions. Moreover, CLIL provides a purpose for language use in the classroom by putting the emphasis on meaning rather than on form. A curriculum taught in the target language will double its exposure time.

4.3. Integrating Technology Teaching Methods

With the rapid development of technology and the integration of the global economy, multimedia assisted instruction in education is playing an increasing role which may lead to a new revolution in foreign language teaching systems and methodologies. For the purposes of this study, the following section focuses on the integration of technology into TBLT and CLIL for TEFL and TCFL systems.

As technology continues to be used more extensively in all walks of life, so it also appeals to language teaching, where it is used to enhance teaching and learning effectiveness. Language teachers have moved from using audio CDs to multimedia as more applications become available. Language teaching software assists in the preparation of teaching materials and is increasingly effective. In addition, almost every student has a smartphone App downloaded for using digital flashcards and instant translation such as Chinese-English and English-Chinese all-in-one dictionary.

Technology is both highly customizable and intrinsically motivating to students, it is particularly well-suited to expand the learning experience (Moeller & Reitzes, 2011).

4.3.1. Roles of Technology in FL Teaching and Learning

In recent years FL Teachers have incorporated various forms of technology to support their teaching, engage students in the learning process, provide authentic examples of the target culture, and connect their classrooms in their own country to classrooms in other countries where the target language is spoken. For example, many CFL learners in Spain, UK, USA are taking distance courses via Skype, connecting them to China, while the FL learners in China are taking online courses to learn English, Spanish, or French.

Furthermore, some technological tools enable teachers to enhance the learning experience by providing separate, individual instruction to students according to their needs, and to adapt classroom activities and homework assignments. Distance learning programs can enable language educators to expand language-learning opportunities to all students, regardless of where they live, the human and material resources available to them, or their language background and needs. Advocates of a more personalized, student-centered design to meet the needs of an increasingly diverse student population argue that learning should be driven by a focus on students and their proficiency with specific competencies, and not by archaic school structures and arbitrary, age-based benchmarks (Moeller & Reitzes, 2011).

While technology can play a very important part in supporting and enhancing language learning, the effectiveness of any technological tool depends on the knowledge and expertise of the qualified language teacher who manages and facilitates the

language learning environment. The use of computer technology and digital media have fundamentally transformed all aspects of our lives, and many education reformers agree that it can and must be an important part of current efforts to personalize education (Christensen, 2008; Collins & Halverson, 2009; Wellings & Levine, 2009; Woolf et al., 2010). In some cases, however, school and university administrators have permitted technology to drive the language curriculum and have even used it to replace certified language teachers. Language technology companies have made unsubstantiated claims about their products' abilities to help students learn languages, thus confusing administrators into thinking that these technologies can be an effective cost-cutting measure. For example, in some schools in remote areas of China, some administrators had tried to teach students using videos with pre-recorded lessons because of the lack of certified language teachers. Moeller and Reitzes expanded the point of view by saying that:

Use of technology can help to improve and enhance the acquisition of knowledge and skills, and learning with and about technology is essential for students to gain the competencies to function well in a 21st century society and workforce. Moreover, technology can serve as an important tool for districts, schools, and teachers to support reforms. Because technology is intrinsically motivating to many students and also highly customizable, it is particularly well suited to support student-centered learning (2011, p. 11).

The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) also acknowledges and encourages the use of technology as a tool to support and enhance classroom-based language instruction (2010). ACTFL additionally supports the

potential of well supervised and articulated distance learning programs to fill a need where classroom teachers are not available, and recognizes the crucial role of a qualified language teacher to incorporate and manage the implementation of technology so that it effectively supports language learning (2010). However, the use of technology should never be the goal in and of itself, but rather one tool for helping language learners to use the target language in culturally appropriate ways to accomplish authentic tasks (ACTFL, 2010; Jared, 2014; Ihsan, 2015). Moreover, all language learning opportunities whether provided through technology or in a traditional classroom setting, should be standards-based and help develop students' proficiency in the target language through interactive, meaningful, and cognitively engaging learning experiences, facilitated by a qualified language teacher.

With the advent of networked multimedia computing and the Internet, not only TEFL and TCFL teachers, but foreign language teachers worldwide have been warming to the use of computers in the language classroom. This is particularly true in higher education where students and teachers have greater access to computer laboratories and Internet accounts.

4.3.2. Importance of Technology-integrated Teaching Methods

What are the advantages of integrating new technologies into TBLT and CLIL in the FL classrooms? One question often asked by administrators is whether or not technologies truly function, that is, if they promote language learning and do so in a cost-effective way. However, the computer is a machine, not a method. The world of online communication is a vast new medium, comparable in some ways to books, print, or libraries. Many researchers indicate that appropriate and specific uses of technology

can improve student outcomes and their performance on achievement tests (Dynarski et al., 2007; Moeller & Reitzes, 2011). The technology-integrated teaching method has been found to be more effective than traditional teaching methods such as Grammar-translation method, or the Direct method in the development of learners' language skills (Wnglinsky, 2006; Warschauer & Matuchniak, 2010).

It is inevitable that integrating new communications technologies into foreign language teaching will become an inseparable and essential part of the education system. TBL and CLIL involve tasks and content that are cognitive demanding and ITCs may help students overcome the difficulties they might meet, especially when confronted with difficult content and challenging tasks. Technologies support a cognitive approach to language learning and “allow learners maximum opportunity to be exposed to language in a meaningful context and to construct their own individual knowledge” (Meskill & Warschauer, 2003, p. 2). Much of our reading, writing, and communicating is migrating from other environments to the screen. For instance, based on an analysis of data of National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP)¹⁹, Research shows that the educational use of technology can enhance competencies that go well beyond the knowledge and skills typically measured by these achievement tests. These competencies include improved understanding of complex concepts, connections between ideas, processes and learning strategies, as well as the development of problem solving, visualization, data management, communication, and collaboration skills etc. (Wenglinsky, 2005; Halverson, 2009; Moeller & Reitzes, 2011).

¹⁹ National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), is the largest nationally representative assessment of what America's students know and can do in various subject areas including mathematics, reading, and science.

Technology and media use is pervasive among all young FL learners. According to a recent survey of media and technology use by 8-18 year olds conducted by the Kaiser Family Foundation (Rideout, Foehr, & Roberts, 2010), demonstrating that 61% of 11-14 year olds, 80% of 11-14 year olds, and 83% of 15-18 year olds owned iPods or MP3 players; laptops were owned by 27% percent of 11-14 year olds, and 38 % of 15-18 year olds. In such a context, we can no longer think only about how we use technologies to teach foreign languages, but we must also think about what types of skills learners need to master in order to be able to communicate effectively via computer, as well as to meet the life and career skills in a 21st century global society. This realization has sparked an approach which emphasizes the importance of new information technologies as a legitimate medium of communication in their own right rather than simply considering them as teaching tools (Warschauer & Meskill, 2003; Butler-Pascoe & Wiburg, 2003; Thomas & Reinders, 2010).

The advantages of integrating new technologies into FL teaching methods in the FL classrooms can only be interpreted in light of the changing goals of language education and the changing conditions in postindustrial society. This is accomplished through creating opportunities for authentic and meaningful interaction both within and outside the classroom, and providing students the tools for their own social, cultural, and linguistic exploration. Students can progress independently in mastering teaching materials, choosing the pace of work, repeating the material that is not sufficiently clear; when tests are performed they get results immediately and can track their progress with the application of educational technology (Stosic, 2015). In addition, FL teachers can get feedback from students immediately with the assistance of multimedia.

By using new technologies in the language classroom, FL teachers can better prepare students for the kinds of international cross-cultural interactions which are

increasingly required for success in academic, vocational, or personal life. Whether in workplaces or in schools, the natural tendency is to use new technologies in ways consistent with previous methods of organization and practice. This can often result in inefficient or even demotivating uses of computers, in which workers or students see their interpersonal connections and personal power reduced rather than increased. Educational technology must inevitably be integrated into classrooms and curricula (Clements & Sarama, 2003; Glaubke 2007; Fred Rogers Center, 2012; Stosic, 2015).

Graddol (1997) states that “technology lies at the heart of the globalization process; affecting work and culture...” (p. 16). The using ICT in TBL and CLIL approaches are obvious. For example, it can provide authentic materials, reduce cognitive load, help them visualize the content and better understand the tasks, provide graphical organizers to help students develop higher order-thinking skills, such as summarizing, paraphrasing, etc. It also provides the language teachers and learners with multimedia resources, such as texts, graphics, sound, animation, video linked together. Hence, it is better for FL learners to use Hypermedia in class which can help learners focus on the content and access different links with grammar explanations, exercises, vocabulary, pronunciation, etc. In addition, ICT give more opportunities for communication between classmates, or group partners. They can exchange and update information during their cooperation process which will help them build a greater sense of participation and confidence. By using the authentic material provided by the Internet, we will have a better insight into the culture of the country and people whose language we study.

Khausova (2015) from Gumilyov Eurasian National University concludes the advantages of the use of ICT in foreign language teaching in four aspects:

1. The information required will be more quickly and easily accessible for educational purposes.
2. Innovation in learning is growing in the presence of e-learning innovations that further facilitate the educational process.
3. Progress of ICT will also allow the development of virtual classroom or classroom-based teleconference that does not require the educator and learners are in one room.
4. System administration in an institution will be more easily and smoothly because of the application of ICT systems (“Using ICT”, para. 12-13).

ICT offers an authentic learning environment, it combines listening with seeing. Skills can easily be integrated in the teaching/learning process; reading, writing, speaking, listening can be combined both in TBLT and CLIL.

In conclusion, the key to successful use of technology in language teaching lies not in hardware or software but in "humanware" our human capacity as teachers to plan, design, and implement effective educational activity (Thomas& Reinders, 2010). Language learning is an act of creativity, imagination, exploration, expression, construction, and profound social and cultural collaboration. In order to keep pace with the current situation, we still need to seek some other appropriate teaching methods suitable for TEFL and TCFL, or for any other foreign language field.

Chapter 5. Theoretical Framework of TBLT-CLIL Combinations

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) and content-based instruction (CBI) represent different approaches to foreign language teaching, but both of them belong to the field of second language learning research and stem from the communicative approach. The two models share many similarities on meaning-making activities or tasks geared to achieving a non-linguistic outcome in the interest of enhancing foreign language development. In the following section, a comparison will be made of TBLT and CLIL on the definition of tasks, the procedure of lesson plans, and the rationales.

5.1. Comparison of TBLT and CLIL

It is important to distinguish the nature of tasks in CLIL and TBLT classrooms in order to compare their differences. The target tasks in TBLT are carried out by processing or understanding the target language. The tasks may or may not involve the production of language, which usually requires FL teachers to specify what will be regarded as successful task completion.

According to Richards, the use of a variety of different tasks in TBLT is said to make language teaching more communicative since “it provides a purpose for a classroom activity which goes beyond the practice of language for its own sake” (2008, p. 290). In the TBLT classroom focus on language is assumed to arise incidentally from problems in executing the task. Moreover, according to Ellis’ criteria, FL learners are free to choose their linguistic resources in solving the task, while in CLIL lessons, the primary desired outcome of tasks is that learners reach the curricular goals of the content-subject and these are by definition not linguistic (2003, 2009). Even though

language is clearly implicated in subject learning, it continues to be extremely difficult to change the understanding and self-image of subject-teachers in a fundamental way. The tasks in CLIL represent a focus on meanings which are connected with the concepts, notions, facts and skills of the content-subject. In other words, the CLIL tasks are usually of meaning orientation via the content curriculum, and concrete non-linguistic outcomes are required as specific content learning goals.

However, the interface of the task definition between TBLT and CLIL can be understood from another angle if we compare the tasks in TBLT and CLIL. According to the four criteria outlined by Ellis (2009) and Skehan (1996, 1998) for a TBLT classroom activity: first, its main focus must be on the meaning rather than the form of the target language; second, there must be a need to convey information, to express an opinion or to infer meaning; third, learners are not taught language forms ready to complete the task; and finally the outcome must go beyond using language which is the means not the end. It is interesting to find that tasks that fulfil all the above criteria happen naturally in CLIL classrooms. These tasks offer FL learners opportunities for language and content engagement and learning, and also help to expose them to more time in the target language use.

5.1.1. Tasks and Procedures of TBLT and CLIL

The primary desired outcome of tasks in a CLIL class is that learners reach the curricular goals of the content-subject which are by definition not linguistic. Meaning orientation is there automatically via the content and concrete non-linguistic outcomes are required because of the specific content learning goals. Within TBLT classrooms focus on language is assumed to arise incidentally in the execution of the task.

Therefore, tasks in CLIL classes focus on meaning rather than form as well as the need to convey information or to infer meaning which coincide naturally with the first and second criteria of TBLT tasks.

With regard to the rest of the criteria, we can observe that the tasks implemented by CLIL teachers are of necessity working towards content learning goals, including knowledge, opinion, and terms related to the subject. Students are free to choose the linguistic resources that enable them to act as target language users to solve the tasks, and look for linguistic resources to express what they have learnt in the CLIL class. Thus, while all basic defining criteria of task in TBLT seem to be fulfilled in CLIL tasks, they will require an adjustment of focus, as they present differences compared to prototypical tasks in TBLT and a dual agenda of language and content learning classrooms in CLIL classrooms.

Furthermore, the procedure of a TBLT lesson is different from a CLIL lesson. Below is a figure providing a clear comparison of the procedures in TBLT and CLIL lessons in FL classrooms:

FLT methods Procedures	TBLT	CLIL
Pre-lesson	Introduce and create a topic and task, and preparations for task	Subject content preparation
During Lesson	Task completion + Planning + Report +Feedbacks of tasks	Identification and organization of knowledge of the content; language identification (Input)
Post-lesson	Language focus	Tasks for students (Output)

Figure 22. Comparison of Procedure of TBLT and CLIL Lesson Plans. (Source: Guirong Chen)

From the above figure it is easy to conclude that the roles of teachers and learners are very different in each phase of the FL class. In the pre-lesson of TBLT, both teachers and learners should participate in topic selection and task preparation;

teachers explore the topic with the whole class, and highlight some useful words and phrases for task preparation, and students are required to understand the task instructions and to get all the preparations done. In the CLIL teaching method, however, the teachers are supposed to prepare all the subject content and relative materials at the same time as the relevant language skills teaching adjustment. This means that CLIL is more teacher-centered than TBLT in the first phase. Therefore, it is also very important for those CLIL teachers who recognize the limitations of their linguistic skills, to adapt their content and methods accordingly. That is why the preparation of a CLIL class becomes crucial and it is essential that the teachers have sufficient command of the target language.

During the second phase of TBLT class, all FL learners should participate in the whole process by planning, reporting and doing the tasks in pairs or in small groups; teachers are only responsible for monitoring the task completion and helping them complete the relative tasks. Therefore, in this phase, TBLT is mainly a learner-centered rather than a teacher-centered process, while during the CLIL lesson, teachers are involved in teaching subject content through the target foreign language while teaching the foreign language through the subject content, requiring more teacher performance than learner performance in a FL class.

Finally, the last phase of a TBLT lesson focuses on the target foreign language itself. Learners are required to examine and discuss the specific features of the target language context or materials used during the tasks together with their FL teachers and sometimes together with their task partners. At the same time, FL teachers are supposed to explain the grammar patterns or relative new vocabulary and phrases occurring in the tasks. As in the first phase, TBLT is an interactive process since both FL teachers and learners are supposed to participate together, whereas in the last part of a CLIL class,

once the main subject content task is completed, the teachers will ask the students to complete a series of post-tasks to reinforce the knowledge acquired. Therefore, in the final phase, CLIL is a more learner-centered process than the interactive process of TBLT.

5.1.2 Rationales for TBLT and CLIL

There are differing emphases on each aspect for TBLT and CLIL rationales. For Littlewood, there is no discontinuity between CLIL and TBLT (qtd. in Naves 6), but Richards (2005) asserts that both TBLT and CLIL are “extensions of the Content-Language Instruction movement but which take different routes to achieve the goals of communicative language teaching to develop learners’ communicative competence” (p. 29). Nunan (2003, 2005, 2006) sees communicative language teaching as an overarching concept of which TBLT represents a realization at the levels of syllabus design and methodology. Littlewood (2004) also regards TBLT as a development within the communicative approach, in which the crucial feature is that “communicative tasks serve not only as major components of the methodology but also as units around which a course may be organized” (p. 324). Most of the arguments in favor of CLIL come from Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research and show that CLIL creates conditions for naturalistic language learning, provides a purpose for language use in classroom, has a positive effect on language learning by putting the emphasis on meaning rather than form, and greatly increases the amount of exposure to the target language (Dalton-Puffer & Smit, 2007).

TBLT focuses on the ability to perform a task or activity without explicit teaching of grammatical structure (Rahimpour, 2010). It is argued that such an approach creates more favorable and better conditions for the development of target language ability than does an approach that focuses solely on the explicit teaching and learning of the rules of the language (Long, 2014). The rationale for TBLT is also discussed from a psycholinguistic perspective, where

a task is a device that guides learners to engage in certain types of information-processing that are believed to be important for effective language use and/or for language acquisition from some theoretical standpoint (Ellis, 2013, p. 197).

It assumes that while performing the tasks, learners engage in certain types of language use and mental processing that are useful for acquisition. Ellis (2013) asserts that using tasks may help reduce the cognitive load in learners, while Skehan (1998) point out that tasks promote the natural acquisition of the target language. In line with the cognitive approaches to language learning, Robinson (1995) also argues that the Task-based approach contributes to establishing a relationship between language production and acquisition, thus facilitating cognitive processes involved in language development. Similarly, Prabhu (1987) views language development as the result of natural processes and argues against focus on language form as inhibiting language learning.

Regarding the rationale behind CLIL, Krashen, Michael and Swain (1999) suggest that FL students will learn more when the focus of language instruction is shifted away from teaching the language directly to a situation in which students acquire language naturally, through lively exchanges with other students. CLIL offers a means

by which learners can continue their academic or cognitive development while they are also acquiring academic language proficiency. Cummin and Davison (2007) suggest that successful learning takes place when “the task is cognitively demanding yet heavily contextualized” (p. 84). The integration of language and subject content offers the possibility of meeting the two conditions which can not only extend the role of the target language across the curriculum but also can improve teacher and learner motivation and raise the quality of teaching and learning. CLIL, because of its content learning character, seems a commendable approach that is less exclusively inspired by language acquisition models as in TBLT and takes a more general educational-linguistic perspective.

5.1.3. The Teachers’ Role in TBLT and CLIL

It is common knowledge that mastery of a foreign language should not be automatically equated with being able to teach in that language in a given situation. Teaching both in TBLT and CLIL demands much more than the ability to speak or listen in a language. Good linguistic skills in the target language are necessary for possessing insight into how language functions, in addition to being able to use the language as a tool in FL classes. According to Richards and Rogers, the language teacher aiming at implementing TBLT in the classroom should perform three main roles: (1) select and sequence tasks, (2) prepare learners for tasks and (3) language consciousness-raising. Therefore, the TBLT teachers must have an active role in choosing, adapting and designing tasks and then building these tasks in keeping with learner needs, expectations, interests and language skill levels. Second, they must use pre-task training to prepare language learners for the tasks. These training activities may

include topic introduction, specifying task instructions, assisting students in learning or recalling beneficial words and phrases to make the task accomplishment easy, and offering partial display of task process. Third, the teachers should deploy an amalgamation of form-focusing techniques, covering attention-focusing pre-task activities, examining the given text, guided exposure to similar tasks, and employment of highlighted material.

Pedagogically, TBLT teachers are responsible for the content and topic selection; then they should emphasise learning to communicate through interaction in the target language and bring the introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation. Meanwhile, they also should provide more opportunities for learners to focus not only on language but also on the learning process itself and should help learners enhance their own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning and link language use both within and outside the classroom. In TBLT class, FL teachers should cooperate, listen and respond to learners' needs, decide what tasks to work on and when to try a new task, as well as to correct and gather feedback after task completion.

Additionally, the CLIL teacher should have the ability to teach one or more subjects in the curriculum in a language other than the usual language of instruction and also teach that language itself (Marsh, 2008). Teachers involved in CLIL should recognize the need to change established habits which might be used in the L1 when teaching the same content in the target language. Marsh claims that "this is where code-switching and preparation become crucial" (2008, p. 78). On the other hand, Hall states (2014) that it is very important to remember that being able to use an L2 does not mean being able to teach in that L2 in a given situation. If a CLIL teacher is to teach extensively in the L2 it is essential that s/he has sufficient command of the language. A

foreign language teacher need to master the target language and the grammar rules so as to foster student communicative language skills; therefore, target language competence is one of the most important abilities of the CLIL teacher. In this vein, Andrews points out that:

effective foreign teaching requires of the teacher more than just the possession of such knowledge and the ability to draw upon it for communicative purposes. The FL teacher also needs to reflect upon that knowledge and ability, and upon his/her knowledge of the underlying systems of the language, in order to ensure that the learners receive maximally useful input for learning (Andrews, 2003, p. 93).

CLIL is no easy undertaking for the teachers involved. This has all too often only been recognized in practice as its flexibility of form or type and specificities of context make features of implementation difficult to determine. What is understood across most contexts is that CLIL is demanding for teachers in terms of adjusting practice and developing competences, and that prior training is essential. Teachers undertaking CLIL will need to be prepared to develop multiple types of expertise: in the content subject, in a foreign language, in the best practice in teaching and learning, or in the integration of the previous three as well as in the integration of CLIL within an educational institution (Mehisto, Marsh, & Frigols, 2008).

According to Pavon and Rubio (2012), foreign language teachers are responsible for bringing language-sensitive content matter to their classes so as to provide students with opportunities to be exposed to authentic use of the target language. There is no single recipe for CLIL and its success depends on a thorough analysis of context, an evaluation of needs, resources, and human and material available. What is vitally

important for the implementation of these programs is that the content has to be understood by students so that they can produce meaningful output.

Additionally, the CLIL teacher should use different kinds of non-threatening cooperative methods, especially at the start of the course, to help learners build up enough self-confidence to actively speak in the target language. Teachers involved in CLIL recognize the need to change established needs which might be used in the first language when teaching the same content in any other foreign language. What is evident is that a professional teacher will recognize that the CLIL context means that it is not only the teacher's linguistic competence which is of importance, but also that of the learners. This leads directly to the notion of a methodological shift whose main characteristic lies in the movement from teacher-centered to learner-centered methods.

Medley distinguishes three dimensions of teacher quality: “teacher effectiveness, teacher competence and teacher performance” (1984, p. 43), see Figure 23 for the details of CLIL teacher quality.

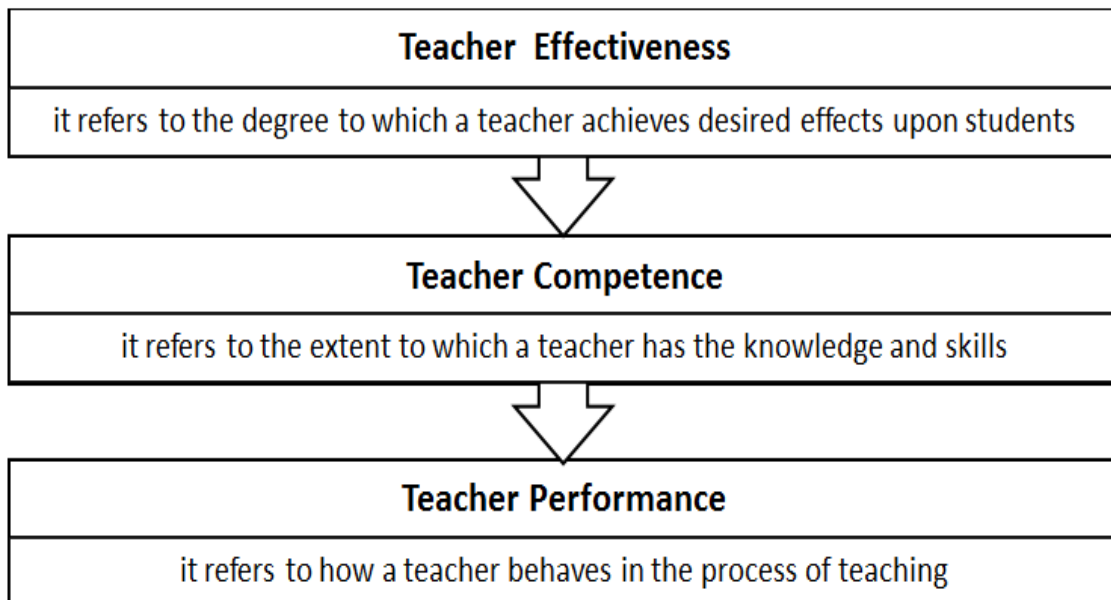


Figure 23. Three Dimensions of Teacher Quality. (Source: Medley, “Focus on CLIL” 27)

As Figure 23 shows, class preparation becomes crucial and it is essential for CLIL teachers to have a good command of the target language. Teaching in CLIL

demands much more than the ability to speak or listen in a particular language. Whether one is dealing with native or non-native speakers of a given language, the key question of linguistic competence for the teaching context remains a key issue. Teachers who use CLIL need to be linguistically aware, possessing insight into how language functions, in addition to being able to use the language as a tool in the classroom. What is very important is the need for those teachers who know their linguistic skills are limited to adapt their content and methods. In fact, “this is where code-switching and preparation become crucial” (Marsh & Wolff, 2007, p. 45). It is also reasonable to suggest that teachers with more limited linguistic skills have to pay more attention to lesson planning in order to feel more confident. Generally speaking, CLIL teachers need to be simultaneously both language and content teachers. The emphasis may be more towards one of these than the other, depending on the teacher competences but nonetheless “dual-interest and dual-ability, if not dual-qualification, appear to be highly desirable” (Marsland & Marsh, 1999, p. 38).

Marsh (2007), who outlines some important idealized competencies, says that the essential requirements of a CLIL teacher should include sufficient target language knowledge and pragmatic skills for CLIL, and comprehension of the differences and similarities between the concepts of language learning and acquisition. In addition, CLIL teachers are also required to have the ability to identify linguistic difficulties and to use communication or interaction methods that facilitate the understanding of meaning as well as the ability to use strategies for correction and for modeling good language usage. Furthermore, the teacher should have the ability to use dual-focused activities which simultaneously cater for language and content aspects.

Teachers also work with learners of diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds, and have to select, adapt or exploit relevant materials to a given topic. They also have to

develop and implement evaluation and assessment tools for learners. See the Figure below for the idealized requirements of a CLIL teacher according to Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010).

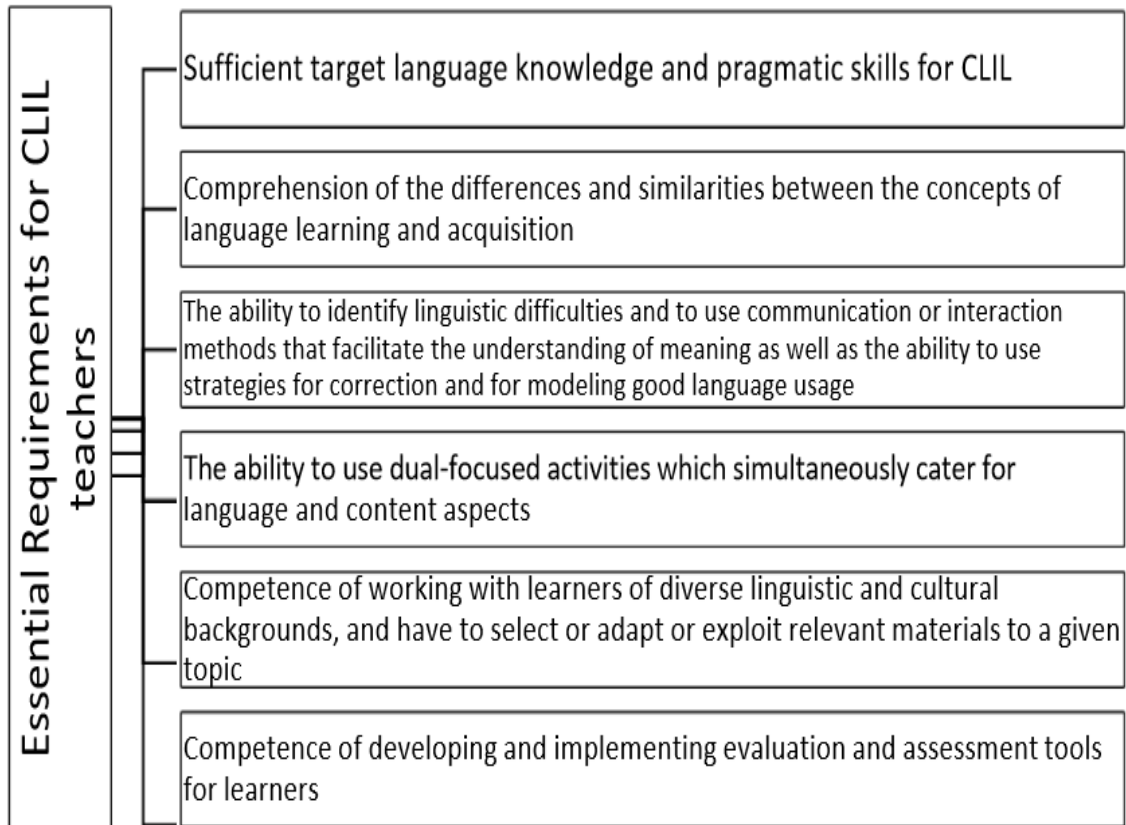


Figure 24. Essential Requirements for CLIL Teachers. (Source: Coyle, Hood, & Marsh. Content and language integrated learning. 78-81)

The CLIL teacher, according to Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009), should cooperate with a foreign language teacher in order to know which grammar aspects the CLIL learners are familiar with and prepare additional exercises using the specified content of the CLIL lesson. The teachers are required to teach one or more subjects in the curriculum in a language other than the usual language of instruction, and teach that language itself in CLIL classrooms through the content. The CLIL teacher should have the qualities that Whitty enumerates, namely: “professional values, professional

development, communication, subject knowledge, understanding of learners and their learning” (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2009, p. 89).

5.1.4. The Learners’ Roles in TBLT and CLIL

Similar to the teachers’ role in TBLT in the previous section, Richards (2008) points out that the TBLT learners who are exposed to the implementation of target tasks in the FL classroom should carry out three major roles: (1) group participant; (2) monitor; and (3) risk-taker and innovator.

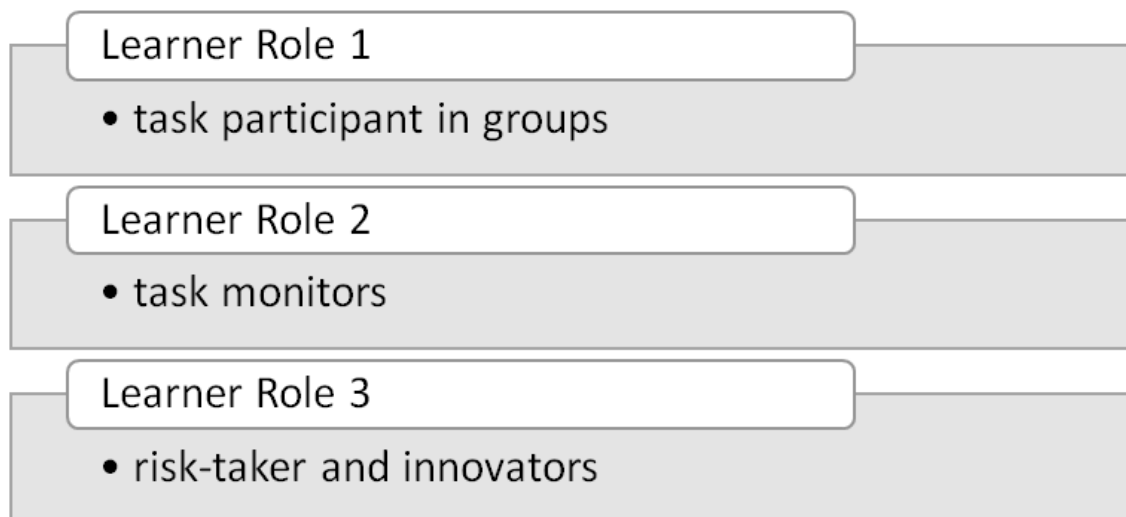


Figure 25. Learners’ Role in TBLT Class. (Source: Hismanoglu "Task-based language teaching: what every EFL teacher should do." 46-52)

The first role requires that the learners perform a number of tasks either in pairs or small groups. Pair or group work may involve some adaptation for those learners who are more used to whole class activities and individual work. The second learner role stresses that tasks are employed as a tool for facilitating the learning process in task-based learning. Classroom activities should be organized so that learners can have the opportunity to observe how language is utilized in communication. Learners

themselves should attend both to the message in task work and to the form in which such messages typically come packed. Then, relevant to the third learner role, many tasks will push learners to generate and convey messages for which they do not have full linguistic resources and prior experience. In reality, this is said to be the point of such tasks. The skills of making guesses from linguistic and contextual clues, asking for explanation, and consulting with other learners may need to be enhanced (Hambye & Richards, 2012).

Though TBL learners do not have to reproduce anything, they are expected to be able to understand the input and use their linguistic knowledge to carry out the tasks. Since learners will need to use both simple and more complex language, there is no grading of language involved. Furthermore, learners may need the language of comparison and contrast, location or description of a process, but may also need certain discourse markers, adverb phrases or prepositional phrases. Collocations, semi-fixed expressions and set phrases may also be given attention as well as subject-specific and academic vocabulary. That is, they not only are required to develop skills in manipulating the linguistic system, but also to use their linguistic knowledge spontaneously and flexibly in order to express the intended message. Therefore, the center of the learning process moves to the students themselves and allows them to come to the realization that language is a tool to tackle and solve task problems. Students will learn how to ask questions, how to negotiate meaning and how to interact in and work within groups, where they can observe different approaches to problem solving as well as learn how others think and make decisions. By moving the focus away from mechanical drills, task-based teaching focuses on communication and interaction, using appropriate language at the correct time.

In addition, learners' cultural knowledge, interest and motivation also plays an important role in TBLT contexts since comprehension is a process of building bridges between the known and the unknown (Nunan, 2004). Learners bring their pre-existing knowledge to the comprehension process, and try to incorporate new knowledge. Brindley suggests that, in addition to background knowledge, learners' confidence, prior learning experience, learning place, observed ability in language skills, cultural awareness and linguistic knowledge also will affect the learning process in TBLT class (Nunan, 2004).

It should also be pointed out that CLIL learners, apart from attending lessons, also attend target foreign language lessons during which grammatical structures are introduced, and they should practice more grammatical structures and consolidate their content knowledge in the post-CLIL class. Moreover, CLIL learners are supposed to participate as much as they can in the activities prepared by CLIL teachers to communicate ideas or exchange information as TBLT learners do, and they are expected to incorporate the smaller bits of language intensively practiced previously into the whole of their language repertoire. The CLIL learners should distinguish between the forms they have mastered as part of their linguistic competence, and the communicative functions which they perform. And items mastered as part of a linguistic system should also be understood as part of a communicative system though the requirements expected are not as high as in the comprehension system.

Therefore, a CLIL class, requires learners' self-awareness and self-regulation as it involves conscious thinking about learning processes. CLIL is not just about the transmission of knowledge, but also the demonstrating and understanding of that knowledge, applying it, analyzing it, synthesizing it, and evaluating it (Anderson, 2009, 2011). This requires a consideration of learners' output such as expressing,

understanding and use in and beyond the classroom. A lot of what goes on in the CLIL classroom involves practical application of knowledge through problem solving tasks and cooperative learning.

It has been demonstrated that students in CLIL classes develop significantly more positive attitudes towards language learning (Merisuo, 2007). According to Arnold's 2011 research, in CLIL classes the learners are more interested, motivated and autonomous, have reduced anxiety levels and are less inhibited to speak the second language. So CLIL classes can exert a positive influence on a learners' desire to develop their language competence in the target foreign language. Moreover, CLIL students will have greater awareness of language patterns, and a more efficient and strategic use of the resources at hand to facilitate discovery, since CLIL boosts risk-taking, problem-solving, vocabulary learning skills, grammatical awareness, and spontaneity in using the language. Students should learn to use feedback to judge their fluency and accuracy in the foreign language, and they should become aware of the social meaning of language forms. For many learners, this may not entail the ability to vary their own speech to suit different social circumstances, but rather the ability to use generally acceptable forms and avoid potentially offensive ones.

As for the tasks, there is little difference in task-type between a CLIL lesson and a TBLT lesson. A variety of tasks should be provided, taking into account the learning purpose and learner styles and preferences. Receptive skill activities are of the "read and listen and do" type. A menu of listening activities such as "listen and label a diagram or chart" or listen and reorder the relative information will be required both in TBLT and CLIL. CLIL tasks designed for production need to be subject-oriented, so that both content and language are recycled. Since content is to be focused on in CLIL, more language support than is usual in a TBLT lesson may be required. The scope of this

thesis does not permit a discussion of task differences as a part of the comparison of TBLT and CLIL.

5.2. The Advantages and Disadvantages of TBLT and CLIL

The advantages of TBLT are very obvious. Firstly, it is applicable and suitable for students of all ages and backgrounds. Secondly, students will have a much more varied exposure to language with a whole range of lexical phrases, collocations, patterns as well as language forms, and are free to use whatever vocabulary and grammar they know, rather than just the target languages of the lesson in a limited-time class. Finally, it helps students pay close attention to the relationship between form and meaning, which will encourage learners to be more ambitious in the language they use and at the same time make them more confident in using the foreign language.

However, the disadvantages of TBLT cannot be ignored. It requires a high level of creativity and initiative in preparation and presentation of the tasks, and there is a risk that learners will achieve FL fluency at the expense of accuracy, since grammatical patterns are less focused on during task completion. It also requires resources beyond the textbooks and related material usually found in FL classrooms. According to Lightbrown and Spada (2000, 2008), task-based instructional environments involve goals that put the emphasis on interaction, conversation, and language use, not on learning the language itself. The basic assumption of TBLT is that it provides a more effective basis for teaching than other foreign language teaching approaches that remain in the domain of theory rather than fact. It depends on tasks as the primary source of pedagogical input in teaching, but the absence of a systematic grammatical syllabus

might reduce target language accuracy. This caused Littlewood to argue that “the task-based approach has achieved something of the new orthodoxy” (2004, p. 319).

To conclude, TBLT is based on the principle that language learning will progress most successfully if teaching aims simply to create contexts in which the learner’s natural language learning capacity can be nurtured rather than making a systematic attempt to teach the language bit by bit. It may help to encourage students to use the target language actively and meaningfully. However, many aspects of TBLT have to be justified such as task type, task sequencing and evaluation of task performance.

As discussed in section 5.2, CLIL is a natural and real way of learning a foreign language since it focuses on both language and content. It fosters the acquisition of the target language and thinking skills within social and cultural dimensions. It also increases learners’ motivation as language is used to fulfill real purposes to learn the substantive material, rather learning a language simply to know a foreign language; it is more purposeful and, therefore, more motivating for learners. It also introduces learners to the wider cultural context, and will help develop a positive attitude towards learning languages as well as multilingual interests since knowing more about a language increases the learners’ interest in different cultures. It also broadens learners’ horizons through different subject contents being taught in the target foreign language. CLIL theoreticians and teachers claim that “the learning environment created by CLIL increases the learners’ general learning capacities, their motivation and interest” (Lasagabaster, 2011, p. 9). They also argue that in CLIL, the separate roles of the learner as a foreign language learner and a content subject learner merge into one (Papaja, 2012; Czura & Papaja, 2009). Cummin (2000) claims that learners, apart from

acquiring linguistic competencies, also develop academic competencies in the target language.

Furthermore, CLIL creates conditions for naturalistic language learning by having to communicate in the target language, to fulfill some of the tasks or even to understand the subject. It also provides a purpose for language use in the classroom, since learners need to communicate among each other in order to promote cooperative learning. It has a positive effect on language learning by putting the emphasis on meaning rather than on form. It dramatically increases the amount of exposure to the target language since teaching a curricular subject in the target language might double or more the time of exposure to it (Dalton-Puffer, 2007).

Despite the considerable potential of the CLIL project, content-based language teaching problems have been investigated by different scholars and teaching experts. One of the main problems of CLIL is that language teachers lack knowledge of the subjects while subject teachers often have minimal knowledge of foreign languages. Another main concern is undeniably the lack of materials available to teach CLIL. Publishing houses have not yet shown interest because they will have to be personalized for each country and each subject according to their curricula and culture. Therefore, for FL teachers it will be time-consuming and burdensome to create their own materials. They need to be personalized to learners' needs so as to enable them to develop until they are working at high levels of cognitive and linguistic challenge. In addition, as CLIL integrates the four skills in a realistic way, there is a greater burden on students to read extensively for both language and content input such as watching videos, listening to the radio, or reading newspapers outside the classroom because of the time limit in CLIL class.

Having introduced and compared TBLT and CLIL, it is of great interest to investigate to what extent the two teaching approaches can be combined and how, What results will be produced through TBLT-CLIL combinations in FL classrooms, and if there will be obtained any different results in EFL and CFL classes. With these questions, classroom experiments in different EFL and CFL groups will be undertaken in the following chapters.

Chapter 6. Research Design and Procedures

While Chapters 4 and 5 had a clearly theoretical focus on the Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), and sought to show their potential combination, in this chapter I shall highlight these possibilities for EFL and CFL teaching, and explore key issues in implementing them in EFL and CFL classes. Through experimental research I shall investigate whether these hybrid forms can prove effective and motivating for teaching both languages. As Galés cleverly summarizes, both methods can be used in combination to promote foreign language acquisition:

TBLT puts the emphasis on the final task and the teaching and learning techniques that can be applied during the sessions. CLIL puts the emphasis on the compound competences that are needed to build a lesson (content and foreign language), and the fields that are going to be activated during the sessions (4C's). Surely we can use CLIL to inspire TBLT, and we can use TBLT to develop CLIL lessons. And it can be done in pairs, in groups, and even in flipped classrooms (1997, p. 6).

Galés has further reported that the 4Cs considered the pillars of the CLIL approach can be upgraded into the 6Cs by including other important competences such as creativity and complex skills (2003). Therefore, the complexity and comprehensiveness of a CLIL approach can be used in combination with TBLT in order to enhance foreign language acquisition. The objective of my research is to further explore the viability of combining TBLT and CLIL, and to analyze the pedagogical advantages of the TBLT-CLIL combination in the FL classroom, as well as to improve learners' motivation and satisfaction in developing language skills. The research will be carried out through classroom experiments in controlled EFL and CFL learner groups.

These experiments do not assume that the proposed combined TBLT-CLIL teaching methods must be better than each individual teaching method or any other traditional FL teaching method applied to their previous classes. This research will make a direct comparison of different TBLT-CLIL combinations in TEFL and TCFL with the aim of improving current teaching methods via these advocated combinations and their compatible use not only in TEFL and TCFL, but also in any other foreign language contexts. Furthermore, it will present, discuss and evaluate the findings of the qualitative and quantitative study and suggest a potential TEFL-TCFL compatible teaching method.

The concept of TEFL-TCFL compatibility can be understood by considering relations between methodologies and applications, some of which may also be useful for other foreign language teaching contexts such as Teaching Spanish as a Foreign Language (TSFL) or Teaching French as a Foreign Language (TFFL). Therefore, this research will explore not only the possible combinations of TBLT-CLIL but also the potential benefits and problems of implementing this methodology in the EFL or CFL classrooms. A further aim is to raise FL teachers' awareness of improvements related to tasks, content and the target foreign language, and consequently to encourage learners to acquire language in a more natural, unconscious way. Moreover, it should enable FL teachers to make appropriate and informed decisions with regard to combining teaching methods in the classroom based on the particular needs of each language level. It is hoped that this research might inspire more FL teachers and scholars in other contexts to undertake similar research in the future to explore the potential effective and compatible foreign language teaching approach.

Before reporting and discussing the classroom experiments and observations, this chapter will elucidate the combinations of TBLT and CLIL content, language teaching and tasks proposed and implemented by the author.

6.1. TBLT-CLIL Combinations

According to the explanations in the previous chapters, the central aims of TBLT and CLIL are tasks, content and the target foreign language itself. I combine the various phases of TBLT and CLIL to create potential combinations that may improve teaching, by observing the effects of these combinations in FL classrooms, either by integrating content, tasks and the target foreign language or by integrating target foreign language learning with both designed tasks and relevant subject content. However, given that Chinese writing is a highly complex part of teaching and learning, it is not possible to include it in this study. Therefore, the CFL experiments of this study are confined to three skills: listening, speaking, and reading instead of the traditional four skills of target languages.

To begin the process for English and Chinese language teaching, I first developed a chart that could be followed when adapting a unit of structural and functional combinations of the two teaching methods. Each teaching method is divided into three parts as below:

Table 6. Different Phases of TBLT and CLIL

A: TBLT		B: CLIL	
A1	Pre-task: to introduce and create topics and tasks	B1	Pre-lesson: Curriculum subject content and language organization and their preparation
A2	Task Cycle: Task, Planning and Report-Task completion	B2	During-lesson: Teaching content through language and learn language through content
A3	Post-task: Analysis and Practice-language focus	B3	Post -lesson: practice or tasks for learners

(Source: Guirong Chen)

The pre-task (A1) represents the first part of TBLT, the task-cycle (A2) is the second part, and the post-task (A3) is the final part. Similarly, B1, B2 and B3 represent the first, second, and third parts of CLIL. As shown in chart A, the TBLT task is the central aim through which learners acquire the target foreign language in the three main stages, while in CLIL, as shown in chart B, the central aim is simultaneous language and content learning. What is important here is to integrate TBLT and CLIL without losing each method's features in the experiments. In order to achieve this and at the same time to improve the teaching of both content and language forms for TEFL and TCFL, two possible combinations for classroom trials were created.

6.1.1 The First TBLT-CLIL Combination

The first possible combination is B1+A1 as the preparation of the lesson design, then B2+A3 as the second part of the 1st combination; the last step is to combine B3 and A2 as the final part (see Figure 26 for the design of the first TBLT-CLIL).

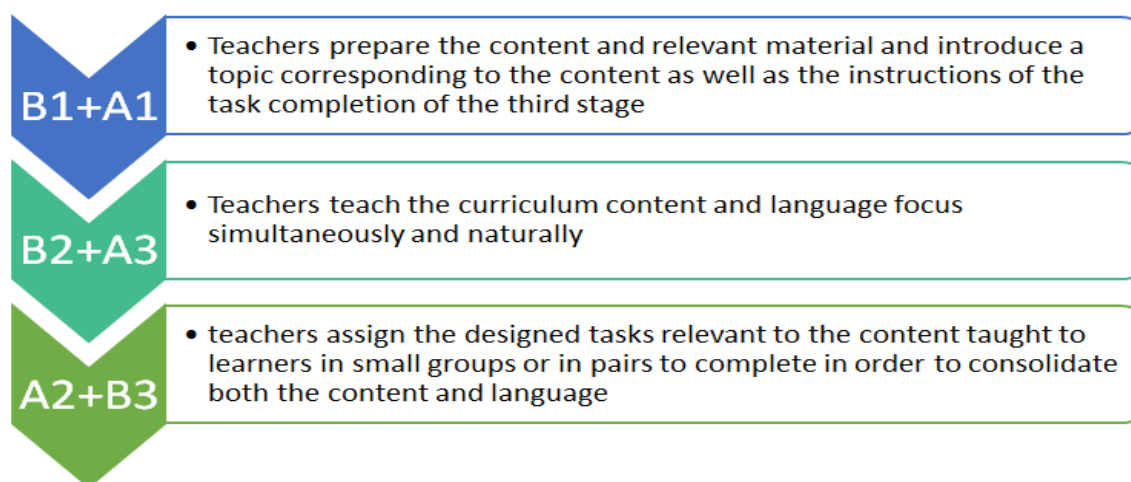


Figure 26. The First Possible Combination (Source: Guirong Chen)

In the first combination, the target language or subject teachers prepare all the relevant materials, both subject content and target language pedagogical points before the FL class. Teachers also introduce the topics corresponding to the subject content and provide instructions on what is required in the following stages. During the second part of the first stage, learners will participate in the activities together with their teachers, and new ideas or opinions from learners can be adopted during the activities in order to encourage greater participation in the following sections.

In the second stage, subject content is taught through the target foreign language and vice versa. In this case, the target foreign language refers to English or Chinese. During this stage, an intermediate language is allowed to explain the meaning of key vocabulary. The first part of the second stage is more teacher-centered; in the second part of the second stage, both teachers and learners are required to focus on the language itself, such as grammar points and the use of new vocabulary. There is an opportunity here for teachers to highlight some language points and request that learners analyze and use them.

During the last stage of the first combination, task performance and content-language consolidation, relevant tasks will be introduced by teachers. Learners are

divided into small groups or pairs, using the target language to learn the content. Oral reports or presentations should be made as part of the tasks. Meanwhile, the teachers are available for the students to ask advice or to help them clear up language or content doubts. In addition, teachers will provide feedback on the learners' task performance.

Compared with the second stage, more interaction and participation on the part of the students is required in the third. However, some adjustments and modifications of TBLT will be made for the combination, since the tasks for TBLT are usually taken from everyday life while the content of CLIL is not taken from everyday life but from curriculum subjects such as mathematics, biology, geography, culture, history. During the second part of this stage, some practice and exercises can be assigned both during and after class to reinforce the knowledge and language points learnt.

6.1.2 The Second TBLT-CLIL Combination

The second option combines B1 of CLIL as preparation of the lesson design, then A3+B2 as the second part of the design, the last step being to combine A1, A2 and B3 (see Figure 27 for the detailed design).

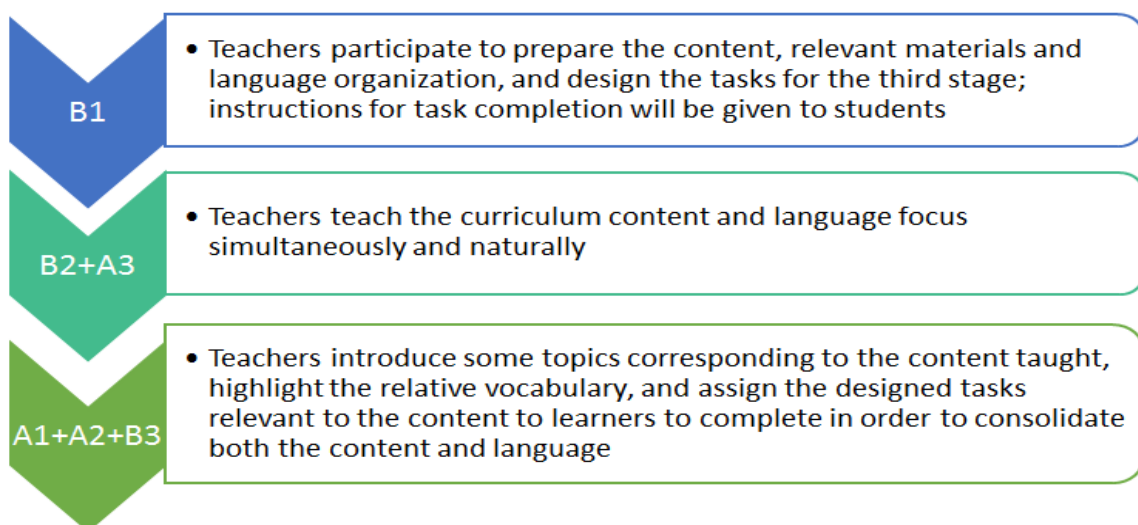


Figure 27. The Second Combination (Source: Guirong Chen)

In the second combination, teachers are responsible for preparation of the subject content and language pedagogical points as in the first stage of the CLIL plan. In addition, teachers are responsible for designing tasks related to curriculum content for students to complete in the third stage. At the end of the first stage, teachers provide instructions for the task performance.

Language and content will be integrated in the second stage, as is usual in CLIL; here language analysis and new vocabulary and content knowledge will be highlighted, since in CLIL language is approached lexically, leading to less focus on grammar. Emphasis on both meaning and language form will be applied through this method.

In the final stage, teachers introduce the topic and tasks after the completion of integrated content and language teaching. Learners are divided into small task groups and work in pairs according to the task instructions given; then after planning, they provide reports or presentations. Some practice exercises will be given after task completion to consolidate what has been taught.

6.2. Hypothesis and Research Questions

One of the main problems in combining teaching methods is that foreign language teachers may lack relevant knowledge on the pedagogical or curricular subjects while subject teachers may have problems teaching foreign languages (Molina, Pérez Cañado, & Luque, 2005; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2011). The second concern is the lack of current, relevant subject teaching materials due to the need for them to be personalized, especially in the CFL field. A third problem may be the limited time available during the FL class if the two teaching methods are combined, which will lead to insufficient exposure to content, language teaching, and related task completion. The

most important problem will be Chinese language teaching with the CLIL method, since Chinese curricular subject materials are all written in Chinese characters and the matter of Chinese writing is excluded in this study. In order to overcome this difficulty, the teaching material for TBLT-CLIL will be personalized both in pinyin and character format in order to be executable during the experimental lessons.

The aforementioned objectives can be specified in the following six hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: As a whole, both proposed combinations of TBLT-CLIL work better in TEFL than in TCFL.

Hypothesis 2: As a whole, the 1st TBLT-CLIL combination motivates EFL and CFL learners more than the 2nd TBLT-CLIL combination.

Hypothesis 3: EFL groups outperform CFL groups at all tested language skills in both TBLT-CLIL combinations.

Hypothesis 4: Both EFL and CFL learners show a higher satisfaction and motivation of the 1st TBLT-CLIL combination than the 2nd TBLT-CLIL combination.

Hypothesis 5: Both EFL and CFL teachers show a preference for the 1st TBLT-CLIL combination.

Hypothesis 6: Some restrictions, such as lack of relative syllabus teaching materials in the target language, time limit in class, etc., will affect the results of TBLT-CLIL combinations trials.

These hypotheses led to the design of the class experiments undertaken in five universities and schools in China, Spain, USA and UK.

6.3. Experiment Preparations

According to Wilkins, “positive interaction between producers and receivers of language increases when the receiver in turn becomes a producer” (2005, p. 78). This suggests that it is normally the principal objective in language teaching to contribute to building a productive repertoire in the learner. Tasks in curricular lessons need to be designed to encourage maximum production from learners. Therefore, decisions need to be made about the nature of student communication, and about the skills and abilities required in order to perform combined TBLT-CLIL tasks in TEFL and TCFL classes. A key element in task design must be related to the curricular subject content imparted during the teaching stage. Tasks should be built around familiar themes and subject content directly related to the students’ school or social life in order to avoid losing the features of TBLT. We should be concerned about how the teachers put those personalized tasks into practice in each individual lesson, to ensure students fulfill them through effective activities which foster acquisition of subject content and pedagogical language points.

The first step in experiment preparation was to select the teaching materials and corresponding curriculum content for a designed FL class, and then to find out which functions of the new TBLT-CLIL combinations were covered in the unit for the appointed content lesson. The texts were selected taking into account learners’ needs, their level of language competence, course aims and objectives, among other aspects. In this study, the target FL learners are mostly EFL and CFL university students, so all the materials were related to their curriculum requirements. Original teaching materials were accessed from four universities in four countries for reference, which personalized the experimental teaching materials.

The next step was to design the lesson according to the possible combinations. This involved learner participation in the various designed activities that comprised the unit. The main aim was to discover whether the TBLT-CLIL combinations could serve, or be adapted to improve learners' language skills in TEFL and TCFL classrooms. A TBLT-CLIL combined lesson or task series was created either by selecting a suitable activity for the selected content, adapting an activity to meet task definition, choosing a task from subject content, or designing a new subject content task; the next step was to construct a suitable framework. Since the experiments were carried out in different EFL and CFL groups in pairs, two lesson plans with the same subject content were designed, using the proposed TBLT-CLIL combinations. Each experiment was followed by an evaluation form to be completed by teachers and learners and intended to provide insights into their use in the other phases of the TBLT-CLIL framework. To this was added whatever other requirement was needed to maximize the combinations' effectiveness. In the following section I will use both the described design framework and my own teaching experience to demonstrate my ideas.

Currently the textbook syllabus used by teachers for CLIL in Europe is developed for the Communicational Teaching Project, but not all CLIL textbooks are compatible for use in different countries or cultures. It was therefore necessary, in this study, to design TBLT-CLIL materials specific to the requirements of our FL classroom experiments. According to the Standards for Foreign Language Education (ACTFL): Preparing for the 21st Century, there is a 5C standard for a well-designed foreign language curriculum: Communication, Culture, Connections, Comparisons and Communities (ACTFL, 1999)²⁰. The five standards have essentially become one of the

²⁰ Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century, 1999 and Standards for Foreign Language Learning: Preparing for the 21st Century, 1996

most crucial organizing principles for a foreign language curriculum, course materials, and assessment design. They were used as guidelines for selecting and adapting resources for the learning goals specified in this study.

The following materials were used for reference to re-design new TBLT-CLIL teaching materials for the EFL experiments, especially in the English language level and subject content based on the 5Cs standards. The first textbook “*How to Listen to Great Music*”, is from Purdue University, designed for optional courses for all undergraduate students (See Annex I). The second, “*English File*” published by Oxford University Press, is used at the University of Salamanca for compulsory courses for undergraduate students majoring in English in the Faculty of Philology (See Annex II). The third, published by Cengage Learning (2011), is “*Principles of Macroeconomics*”, and has been used at the Zhengzhou University of China for compulsory courses for the second grade of Economics major undergraduates (See Annex III). The fourth, “*Mostly Harmless Econometrics: An Empiricist's Companion*”, written by Angrist and Pischke (2008) is published by Princeton University Press, used at the University of Cambridge, and is designed for compulsory courses for Economics major undergraduates (See Annex IV).

The CFL learners participating in the study had an initial to intermediate level of Chinese, and there were no published CLIL teaching materials for CFL initial learners. In addition to this, Chinese writing was excluded in this study, therefore, all TBLT-CLIL teaching materials were designed by the author and required the design of content corresponding to the participants' language level.

The 5 C's: Communication, Culture, Connections, Comparisons, Communities.

These standards describe the "what" (content) of world languages learning and form the core of standards-based instruction in the world languages classroom.

Matthew Christensen suggests that in foreign language teaching, it is important to “bring culture into the classroom through contextualized performance” (2011, p. 19). In his opinion, to gain competency in a foreign language, cultural understanding is very important. According to ACTFL’s 5C standards (1999), it prompts a shift in thinking from traditional, structure-based approaches to learning to more holistic, communicative-based approaches. Therefore, I have selected teaching content relative to Chinese Culture. See Annex I to Annex VII for all the original materials and re-designed teaching materials.

The aims of the lessons were to teach the optional curricular courses of Music and compulsory courses of Economics to undergraduate students through English, and the optional curricular course of Chinese culture to CFL learners in Chinese. Implementation of the TBLT-CLIL teaching methods according to the different combinations proposed in the previous sections required participants and lesson plans for each class experiment. The following sections, describe the selection process for participants and lesson plan designs (see Figure 28 for the summary).

Groups	Subject	Optional/Compulsory	Reference Material
EFL Groups	Music	Optional	How to Listen to Great Music; English File
	Economics	Compulsory	Principles of Macroeconomics; Mostly Harmless Econometrics: An Empiricist's Companion
CFL Groups	Chinese Culture	Optional	Self-designed material

Figure 28. Summary of Preparations (Source: Guirong Chen)

6.4 Participants

According to Sargeant et al. (2009), “subject selection in qualitative research is purposeful, and participants should be selected who can best inform the research questions and enhance understanding of the phenomenon under study” (p. 16). Hence, one of the most important tasks in the study design phase was to identify appropriate participants. Decisions regarding selection were made taking into consideration the research questions, theoretical perspectives, and evidence informing the study.

Since most of the target EFL and CFL learners were full-time undergraduate students, students from senior high schools or foreign language schools, convenience sampling was used, with research conducted with a limited number of purposefully chosen participants. This enabled the recruitment of individuals based on the study objectives, but in order to avoid limiting the ability to produce population-based findings, and to ensure that the sample accurately represented the population and enabled us to make generalizations from our sampling, we fulfilled a number of requirements:

- 1) the EFL and CFL learners as participants were selected from different universities and countries with different language environment;
- 2) they had a required level-B1/B2²¹ of English, A2/B1 of Chinese,

²¹ The required target language level of participants was based on The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR), which distinguishes between four kinds of language activities: reception (listening and reading), production (spoken and written), interaction (spoken and written), and mediation (translating and interpreting). The CEFR divides learners into three broad divisions that can be divided into six levels; for each level, it describes what a learner is supposed to be able to do in reading, listening, speaking and writing. A2 refers to elementary level, B2 refers to an intermediate level, and B2 equals to upper intermediate level.

3) participation in questionnaire and classroom experiments was on a voluntary basis.

To avoid the bias that may occur if only participants with strong views about the research topic volunteer, and to ensure a wide variety of respondents, twelve groups of ten to twenty participants each were selected from different universities or foreign language schools. All EFL participants were undergraduate students and CFL participants were from middle school. See Appendix XV for the background details of each group of participants and Appendix I, II, III, IV for the scanned teaching materials.

The EFL sample comprised 140 students, selected from three different universities, who were enrolled in the English language programs at Zhengzhou University, Hainan University, China, and Lindenwood University, the United States. Three different proficiency levels were based on their institutional status: Level 1, first year of undergraduate, n=20; level 2, second year of undergraduate, n=80, and level 3, third year of undergraduate, n=40. The EFL sampling is with 90% native-Chinese-speaking learners, 8% native-Spanish-speaking learners, 2% native-Russian-speaking learners (see Figure 29 for the distribution of EFL participants).

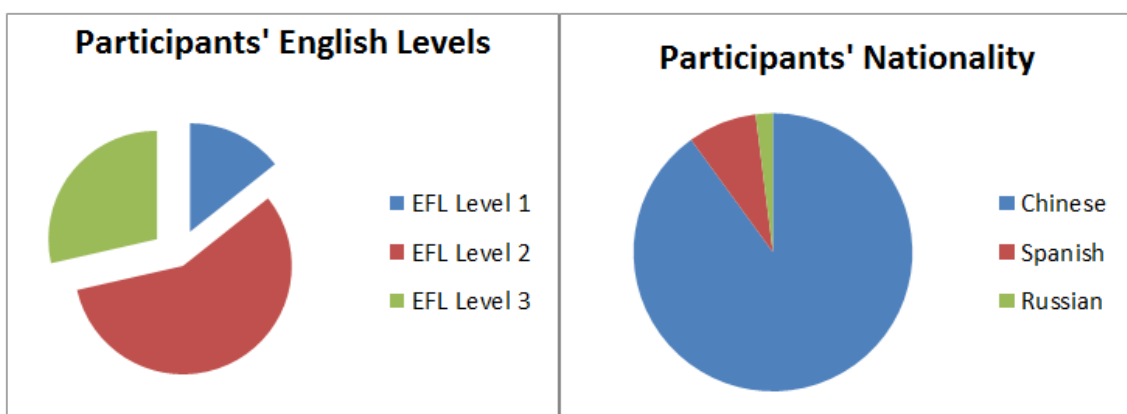


Figure 29. Distribution of EFL Participants (Source: Guirong Chen)

The Level 1 EFL students had completed a six-year English program in their middle school and achieved an initial-intermediate level of English language; 2015-

2016 was their first academic year in the English undergraduate program. The level 2 EFL students had completed a one year undergraduate English program: 2015-2016 was their second academic year, achieving intermediate level English. The level 3 EFL students had completed two years of an English undergraduate program; 2015-2016 was their third academic year in the program, achieving the upper-intermediate level.

The CFL participants were enrolled in the Chinese language program at the Tia Tula International Foreign Language School in Spain and Central Foundation Boys' School in the United Kingdom. The sample comprised 40 students from two different proficiency levels based on their institutional status: Level 1, the first and second year of Chinese learning program, n=18; level 2, the third and the fourth year of Chinese program, n=22. They are 45% native-Spanish-speaking Chinese learners and 55% native-English-speaking Chinese learners (see Figure 30 for the distribution of CFL participants).

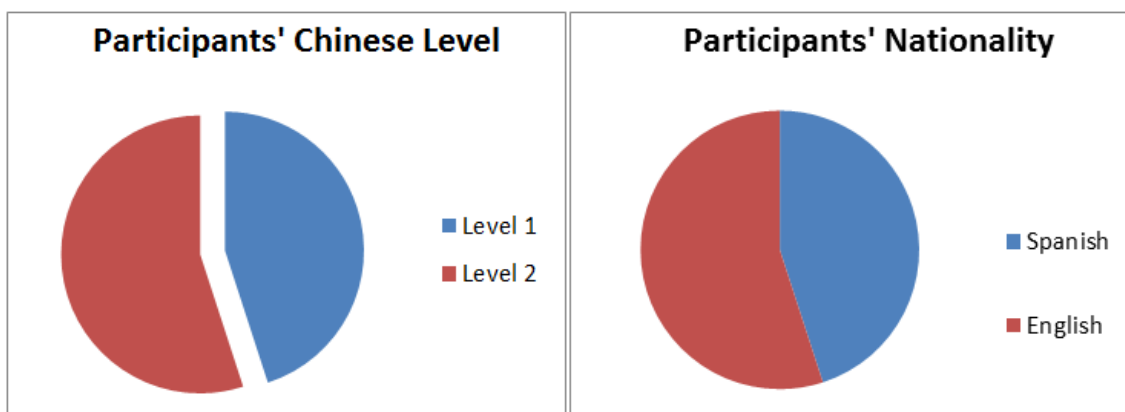


Figure 30. Distribution of CFL Participants (Source: Guirong Chen)

The CFL students of level 1 had a very basic knowledge of the Chinese language before they enrolled: they knew how to pronounce the pinyin system and had a very basic vocabulary of Chinese, some basic knowledge of Chinese grammar, and some simple sentences. The level 2 CFL students had completed three or four years of the Chinese program achieving an initial-intermediate language level. They knew some

basic Chinese characters and were able to make sentences, and they also knew how to use the Chinese dictionary.

In order to have similar variables, the samples comprise twelve groups in total, each consisting of ten or twenty similar age students in the same grade, hence avoiding other unnecessary influence. In addition, the composition of study participants was controlled to ensure that the subjects maximally represented EFL and CFL learners, so that there were equal numbers of male and female participants and the subjects were for college students or foreign language school students.

Group one participants: six native speakers of Spanish, two native speakers of Chinese, two native speakers of Russian with English as their first language, who were born and grew up in their own country, and are learning English in the United States. There were four female students and six male students in this group, all aged between eighteen and twenty (except one was 26 years old) at March 2016. These participants are all full-time, English-major undergraduates, enrolled in the Faculty of Philology of Lindenwood University, the United States, the second-oldest higher-education institution west of the Mississippi River and the fastest-growing university in the Midwest.

Group two participants: six native speakers of Spanish, four native speakers of Chinese with English as their first language, who were born and grew up in their own country, and are learning English in The United States. There are five female students and five male students in this group, all aged between eighteen and twenty at March 2016. These participants are all full-time English-major undergraduates, enrolled in the Faculty of Philology, Lindenwood University in the United States.

The participating teacher responsible for groups 1 and 2 is their English teacher, with five years' teaching experience in TEFL.

Group three participants: Twenty native speakers of Chinese with English as a first foreign language who were born and grew up in China. There were twelve females and eight males in this group, all aged between eighteen and twenty-one at March 2016. These participants were all full-time Economics-major undergraduates, enrolled in Zhengzhou University, in an important city in central China. All of the participants were born and raised in the urban environment.

Group four participants: Twenty native speakers of Chinese with English as a first foreign language who were born and grew up in China in an urban environment. There were eleven females and nine males in this group, all aged between eighteen and twenty-two at March 2016. They were all full-time Economics-major undergraduates at Zhengzhou University, China.

The participating teacher responsible for groups 3 and 4 is their English teacher, with seven years' teaching experience in TEFL with CLIL teaching method.

Group five participants: Twenty native speakers of Chinese with English as a first foreign language who were born and grew up in China, sixteen of them in an urban environment. The group comprised eleven females and nine males, all aged between eighteen and twenty-two at March 2016. All were full-time English-major undergraduates in the Faculty of Philology, Zhengzhou University.

Group six participants: Twenty native speakers of Chinese with English as a first foreign language who were born and grew up in China, eighteen of whom were raised in an urban environment. . The group comprised ten females and ten males, all aged between eighteen and twenty-two at March 2016. All were full-time English-major undergraduates in the Faculty of Philology, Zhengzhou University.

The participating teacher responsible for groups 5 and 6 is their English teacher, with ten years' teaching experience in TEFL.

Group seven participants: Twenty native speakers of Chinese with English as a first foreign language who were born and grew up in China in an urban environment. The ten females and ten males comprising the group, all aged between eighteen and twenty-one at March 2016, were full-time undergraduate students majoring in Hotel Management at Hainan University, China. This university is located in the southernmost province of China.

Group eight participants: Twenty native speakers of Chinese with English as a first foreign language who were born and grew up in China, eighteen of them in an urban environment. The ten females and ten males in this group, were all aged between eighteen and twenty-two at March 2016 and were all full-time undergraduate students, majoring in Hotel Management at Hainan University.

The participating teacher responsible for groups 7 and 8 is their English teacher, with nine years' teaching experience in TEFL.

Group nine participants: Ten native speakers of Spanish with English as a first foreign language and Chinese as their second foreign language who were born and grew up in Spain. All are enrolled in the Chinese program of Tia Tula International Foreign Language School, Salamanca, Spain. There were four females and six males, aged between fifteen and eighteen at March 2016. Eight participants were full-time students in senior high school in Salamanca, and two were from the Faculty of Philology, University of Salamanca.

Group ten participants: Eight native speakers of Spanish with English as a first foreign language and Chinese as their second foreign language who were born and grew up in Spain and were enrolled in the Chinese program of Tia Tula International Foreign Language School, Salamanca, Spain. The four females and four males were aged

between fourteen and sixteen at March 2016. All eight participants were full-time students in senior high school in Salamanca.

The participating teacher responsible for groups 9 and 10 is the author, with six years' teaching experience in TCFL.

Group eleven participants: ten native speakers of English with Chinese as their first foreign language who were born and grew up in United Kingdom, were aged between fourteen and sixteen at March 2016, and were full-time senior high school students in the Chinese program at the Central Foundation Boys' School, London, United Kingdom²².

Group twelve participants: Twelve native speakers of English with Chinese as their first foreign language who were born and grew up in United Kingdom and were aged between fifteen and sixteen at March 2016. All were full-time senior high school boys enrolled in the Chinese program at the Central Foundation Boys' School, London, United Kingdom.

The participating teacher responsible for groups 11 and 12 was their Chinese teacher, with twelve years' teaching experience in TCFL.

²² Central Foundation Boys' School was a pioneer in the education of children and in the early years when legislation for compulsory child education had just been introduced, was involved in opening many schools in the east end of London.

Chapter 7. Methodology

A mixed method research paradigm was used to collect data both quantitatively and qualitatively. The preparation of the experiment involved planning, observing, acting, and reflecting on the data gathered. This study utilized standardized questionnaires consisting of 20 questions, a classroom observation report and evaluation forms consisting of 20 questions and comments to maximize data quality. In order to investigate the effectiveness of TBLT-CLIL combinations in TEFL and TCFL fields, the experiments were conducted in three selected universities, one secondary school and one foreign language school. The participants comprised 180 students distributed among 12 groups. The program curriculum was divided into three themes, together with six different lesson plans for the two TBLT-CLIL combinations. The six-lesson plans are based on the proposed TBLT-CLIL combinations and the subject content. Consequently, the observation report is designed to describe and record classroom performance and behavior in order to delineate the complex practical issues that confronted the participants. In addition, an evaluation form was designed, based on the subject content and the target language focus, as well as the degree of satisfaction with the TBLT-CLIL teaching method.

Before commencing the experiment, two questionnaires were sent out for all participants, one for the students, and another to the participating teachers. During the experiment, a class observation report was sent to participating teachers to record their class performance. After the experiment, two further evaluation forms were sent out to participant students and teachers to evaluate the effectiveness of and satisfaction with the TBLT-CLIL combinations.

7.1 Questionnaires

In order to make the information as complete as possible, the participants completed a questionnaire on their language background (See Annex IX for the students' questionnaire). This 20-item questionnaire was divided into three sections and distributed to participants before the FL classroom experiments began. See the following table for the structure of the questionnaire.

Table 7: Structure of the Students' Questionnaire

Section	Content	Questions
1	Basic personal information	5 questions
2	Language background information	7 questions
3	Knowledge of FL teaching methods	8 questions

(Source: Guirong Chen)

Section 1 includes the participants' sex, age, country, place of residence and educational background. Section 2 reveals the nature and extent of their language background, which includes participants' mother language, home language, first foreign language and duration of their FL learning. Section 3 establishes their knowledge of foreign language teaching methods and whether they have found any methods they preferred during their FL acquisition, as well as their expectations regarding the foreign language skill they expected to improve in the future (See Table 8 for the questions' distribution in section 3).

Table 8: Distribution of the Students' Questionnaire

Questions	Focus
Q 1 to Q. 2	knowledge about TBLT/CLIL
Q3.	Preference for Teaching Methods
Q 4 to Q.8	Language Skills

(Source: Guirong Chen)

Meanwhile, a questionnaire (see Table 10, below) designed for participating FL teachers was also sent out in order to establish the nature of the teaching methods they

had been using for their classes and to gather their opinions on the TBLT and CLIL teaching methods based on their own experience.

Table 9: Structure of the Teachers' Questionnaire

Section	Content	Questions
1	Basic information of teaching experience	9 questions
2	Preferred FL teaching methods and knowledge on TBLT/CLIL	3 questions

(Source: Guirong Chen)

Section 1 of the teachers' questionnaire asked for the duration of their experience as a FL teacher/subject teacher, the medium language used in FL/subject class, and the language background of participating teachers; while Section 2 requested information about their preferred teaching methods and their knowledge of TBLT and CLIL (See Annex X for details).

7.2 Lesson Plans

This section describes the lesson plans of each TBLT-CLIL combination in three selected subjects: Music, Economics for EFL learners, and Chinese Culture for CFL learners. Since each subject was taught with two different TBLT-CLIL combinations, there are six different lesson plans in total.

According to the first proposed combination of TBLT and CLIL, the procedure should be:

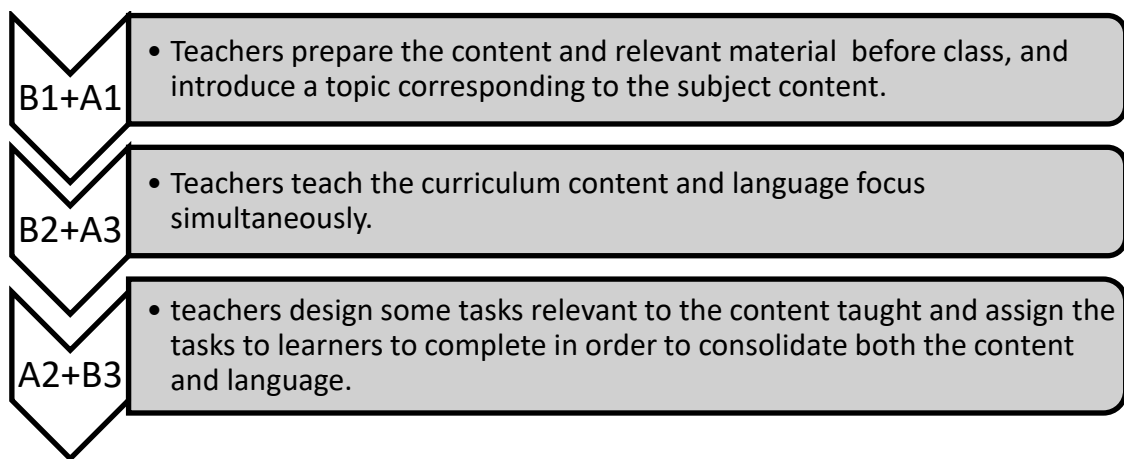


Chart 8. Procedure of the 1st TBLT-CLIL Combination. (Source: Guirong Chen)

The participants in the first TBLT-CLIL-combination (hereafter EFL Experiment 1) are group one from Lindenwood University, USA; groups three and five from Zhengzhou University, China, and group seven from Hainan University, China. The participants of group one mostly live in the USA, while the remaining participants live in China. In CFL Experiment 1, the participants are group nine from Tia Tula International Language School, who live in Spain, and group eleven from Central Foundation Boys' School, who live in the United Kingdom. The material for the EFL groups was re-designed by the author based on materials for undergraduate students from Purdue University, USA, and the University of Salamanca, Spain. The teaching material for CFL groups is designed by the author based on the participants' level of Chinese.

In the first phase of the first TBLT-CLIL combination in Experiment 1, on the subject of Music, the EFL or subject teachers are responsible for preparing all subject content and relevant language knowledge points before the class begins. In class the participating teachers introduce relevant topics, such as music, musical instruments, concerts, students' favorite singer, favorite songs, etc., to warm up the class, activate students' previous knowledge and increase learner motivation. Instructions for third stage task completion are introduced and explained to students.

On the subject of Economics, the students are encouraged to talk about their understanding of money and its importance in their daily life or any other topics relative to the concept of “Money” in order to make them use the language and activate their content schemata. Following the warm-up exercise, the instructions for the third stage task are introduced. On the subject of Chinese Culture, students are encouraged to discuss Chinese festivals, food, traditions or cities, or any topics related to China in their own words; Chinese dictionaries are allowed as assistance tools.

In the second phase, the teacher delivers the subject content using the target language; at the same time, relevant English knowledge, such as new vocabulary and grammar is taught. For example, on the subject Music, teachers will teach such content as *“Beethoven’s Compositional Innovations”*, explaining the four periods of Beethoven’s compositional life and Beethoven’s mature compositional innovations in English. Meanwhile, the English language related to this content such as new vocabulary and verb tenses are explained, again in English. The Economics FL/subject teacher teaches *“What is Money?”*, explaining the definition, functions, and types of money in English; at the same time teaching English language focus such as verb tenses, the structure of sentences, the use of new vocabulary. Regarding the topic of Chinese Culture, *“The Spring Festival”* will be explained in detail, including its history and traditions, celebration date, differences between northern and southern China, etc.; in the meantime, the Chinese sentences and new vocabulary related to content, verbs, adverbs and adjectives are explained. Through this method, learners receive both content and language focus simultaneously and naturally.

In the last phase, tasks relative to the content and topics introduced in the first phase are assigned to all learners to complete according to the instructions explained in the first stage. CFL/EFL learners are divided into small groups or pairs and will be

required to use the subject content and vocabulary during task completion. The purpose is to prepare them to perform tasks in ways that promote FL acquisition, since it has already been established that it is important to present a task in a way that motivates learners. Some alternative procedures can be tackled in one of the four ways below:

Alternative 1

- Supporting students in performing a task similar to the task they will perform during the task phase of the lesson.

Alternative 2

- Asking students to observe a model of how to perform the task.

Alternative 3

- Engaging students in non-task activities designed to prepare them to perform the task.

Alternative 4



- Strategic planning of the main task performance

Chart 9. Four Alternative Procedures supporting Task Completion. (Source: Guirong Chen)

7.2.1. Lesson Plans for Experiment 1

Each lesson plan includes the class goals, competences, teaching materials, and procedures. See Tables 10 and 11 for the lesson plans for EFL learners on “Music” and “Macroeconomics”, and table 12 for the lesson plan on Chinese Culture for CFL learners.

Table 10. Lesson Plan on Music for EFL Learners of the 1st Combination



 	
A TBLT-CLIL Lesson Plan for EFL Learners (Combination 1)	
Subject: Music Grade: _____ Topics: Beethoven’s Compositional Innovations Time: 50 minutes + 50 minutes	
Goals:	Students will be able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Talk about their favorite music; topics relative to music using the language acquired in class. • Understand common directions given and subject content in English. • Complete assigned tasks related to class content. • Increase in exposure time to the four language skills.
Competences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners will use subject content and new key vocabulary to communicate with their partners and classmates. • Students will naturally use and remake correct sentences after language focus. Tasks introduced will be completed smoothly in pairs or groups. • Learning strategies, e.g., summarizing and paraphrasing should be developed.
Materials:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Re-designed teaching materials based on PU and USAL teaching materials in Annex V. • Audio-visual materials related to subject and topics, from website links given below.
Introduction:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Topics relevant to Music introduced as warm-up activity to establish background of the subject content—music, such as “The Voice of China/USA/Spain”, “I am a Singer” etc. • Prior common knowledge of the subject, e.g., background of Beethoven’s music/sonatas established at the same time.
Content Teaching and Language Focus:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subject content: Beethoven’s Compositional Innovations, taught through reading. • Key vocabulary and verbs relative to music taught. • Essay questions based on content given to students to consolidate learning. • Difficult concepts explained to assist consolidation of content acquisition.
Development and Tasks:	Students will deliver an oral presentation: Task 1: Retell the text in their own language to check for understanding. Task 2: Oral presentation on Beethoven’s music, subject content, key vocabulary, his famous sonatas, violin concertos, etc. Task 3: a short talk on your favorite music and reasons.

	Use of the key vocabulary related to the subject content will be encouraged in task completion. Students are also encouraged to be creative and use the knowledge they have acquired about the topic to support their ideas.
Closure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review vocabulary and pronunciation. • Resolve student doubts. • Give feedback on students' task completion. • Assign practice work at home.
Procedure	
10-15 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Topic introduction as warm-up activity. • Guidelines provided for third phase tasks, e.g., how to retell taught content with own managed target language, or how to make a short speech on the music or any other topics related to music.
30-35minutes	Subject content on <i>Beethoven's Compositional Innovations</i> and language teaching
10 minutes	Short break
10 minutes	Subject content on Music: Beethoven's Compositional Innovations and language review.
30 minutes	Task completion in groups or pairs and correction
5-10 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review vocabulary and pronunciation. • Resolve student doubts. • Feedback on task completion. • Assign practice work at home.
Relative Videos Links: Beethoven Piano Concerto No.1 http://v.youku.com/v_show/id_XNDk2NDQwMDg=.html?from=s1.8-1-1.2 https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7JdACm904DI Beethoven Symphony No.5 https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=POVjeuef0RY http://v.youku.com/v_show/id_XMTQ1Mjc4NjlwOA==.html?from=s1.8-1-1.2 Beethoven - Missa Solemnis http://v.youku.com/v_show/id_XODkzNzM5MTI=.html?from=s1.8-1-1.2 https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-uSME7Bv4JE	

(Source: Guirong Chen)

Table 11 is the lesson plan of TBLT-CLIL Experiment 1 on Macroeconomics for EFL learners. It includes class goals, competences to be developed, tasks to complete in class, procedure, and duration of each phase.

Table 11. Lesson Plan on Macroeconomics for EFL Learners of the 1st Combination

 	
TBLT-CLIL Lesson Plan for EFL Learners (Combination 1)	
Subject: Macroeconomics Grade: _____ Topics: What is Money? Time: 50 minutes + 50 minutes	
Goals:	Students will be able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use the target language to talk about their understanding of money, importance of money in daily life, any other topics relative to the concept of “Money”. • Understand common directions given and subject content taught in English. • Complete assigned tasks on taught class content. • Increase in exposure time of the four language skills.
Competences:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners will use subject content, new key vocabulary, language forms acquired in class to express their perspectives on the topic. • Tasks introduced will be completed smoothly in pairs or groups. • Students will acquire learning strategies such as summarizing and paraphrasing developed.
Materials:	The re-designed teaching materials are based on the teaching materials used in University of Zhengzhou, China, and University of Cambridge, UK (See Annex VI);
Introduction:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction of relevant Money topics as warm-up activities, e.g., learners’ understanding of Money functions, plans if they had plenty of money. • Establishment of prior common knowledge of “Money” in economics and types of “Money”. • Instructions for task completion will be explained.
Content Teaching and Language Focus	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subject content “What is Money”, taught through reading together with FL/Subject teachers. • Explanation of key vocabulary, verbs related to Money and Economics Terms. • Essay questions given based on content, for undergraduate students to consolidate their learning. • Explanation of difficult concepts to consolidate content acquisition.
Developments and Tasks:	Students will deliver an oral presentation: Task 1: Retell the text. Task 2: Discussion related to “Money” in economics such as the types, the functions, the values, misunderstandings of the concept of money in Economics. Final task: Students will deliver an oral presentation describing what they would do if a) they could issue money or b) they won \$5 million in the lottery? (Alternative).

	Students are encouraged to use key vocabulary related to subject content in task completion. They are also encouraged to be creative and use the knowledge they have acquired about the topic to support their ideas.
Closure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review vocabulary and pronunciation • Resolve student doubts about the subject content from students. • Give feedback on students' task completion. • Assign practice work at home.
Procedure	
10-15 minutes	Topic introduction as warm-up activity. Guidelines provided for third-phase tasks, such as how to retell taught content with own managed target language, or how to make a short speech on Money or any other topics related to Money.
30-35minutes	Subject content on Macroeconomics: What is Money and language teaching
10 minutes	Short break
10 minutes	Subject content and language review
30 minutes	Task completion and correction
5-10 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review vocabulary and pronunciation. • Resolve student doubts. • Feedback on the task completion. • Assign practice work at home.



(Source: Guirong Chen)

There are three important aspects in the acquisition and production of Chinese learning, which could be further categorized into knowledge and skill: the knowledge of the phonetic and transcription system (Pinyin) of the Chinese language, the knowledge of the tone of each word as well as the skill of articulating different tones and the skill of character writing correspondingly, though in this study character writing is excluded. Those who take Chinese language courses as a foreign language are introduced to basic phonetic knowledge of tones when they start learning the Chinese Pinyin system. They usually depend on a transcription system of Pinyin with tones to assist with pronunciation. Mastering the phonetic knowledge of tones and the transcription system as one aspect of knowledge acquisition still cannot guarantee the accurate articulation of tones with the right pitch.

CFL participants with level 2 should recognize some basic Chinese characters to assist them to understand each word, though mastering character is not required in this case. The new TBLT-CLIL combinations aim at increasing the skill of producing Chinese with accurate pitch, and at assisting FL learners with the memorization of word pronunciation and meaning in the corresponding context.

Unlike the EFL experiments, only one topic has been chosen for CFL learners in this study. Therefore, in the first combination of TBLT-CLIL, only one lesson plan was provided, which covers class goals, competences, teaching materials, procedures and phase duration.

Table 12. Lesson Plan on Chinese Culture for CFL Learners of the 1st Combination

 	
A TBLT-CLIL Lesson Plan for CFL Learners (Combination 1)	
Subject: Chinese Culture Grade: _____ Topics: The Spring Festival Time: 50 minutes + 50 minutes	
Goals:	Students will be able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Talk about Chinese festivals or other topics relative to Chinese culture with their managed Chinese using dictionary/mobile/internet as assistive tools in the class. • Understand common directions and subject content taught in Chinese. • Complete the tasks assigned related to the content taught. • Increase in exposure time of the four language skills in class.
Competences:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners will use the subject content and the new key vocabulary to communicate with their partners and classmates, and compare Chinese culture to their own culture. • Students will naturally use and remake sentences after language focus and content review. • Tasks will be completed smoothly in pairs or groups. • Increased exposure to the four language skills. • Some learning strategies, e.g., summarizing and paraphrasing will be developed.
Materials:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teaching materials are designed by the author according to different groups' Chinese level on subject Chinese Culture: "<i>The Spring Festival</i>" (See Annex VII); • Some audio-visual materials related to subject and topics from websites; links given below.

Introduction:	Warm-up activity: Topics relevant to Chinese festivals, food eaten in festivals, traditions, differences between Chinese cities, to establish subject content background—“ <i>The Chinese Spring Festival</i> ”. Establishment of prior common knowledge of the Chinese culture.
Content Teaching and Language Focus:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subject content <i>Chinese Spring Festival</i> taught according to the lesson plan with FL/Subject teachers. • Key vocabulary relative to Chinese culture as well as verbs taught. • Essay questions set based on content to consolidate student learning. • Explanation of difficult concepts to assist with consolidation of content acquisition.
Development and Tasks:	<p>Students will deliver an oral presentation:</p> <p>Task 1: Retell text in their own language to check for understanding.</p> <p>Task 2: Oral presentation related to Chinese Festivals, subject content, key vocabulary, famous Chinese food, etc.</p> <p>Task 3: Presentation of country’s favorite Festival and reasons.</p> <p>Students are encouraged to use key vocabulary related to subject content in task completion. They are also encouraged to be creative and use the knowledge they have acquired about the topic to support their ideas.</p>
Closure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review vocabulary and pronunciation, and • Resolve student doubts. • Give feedbacks of on task completion. • Assign practice work at home.
Procedure	
10-15 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Topic introduction as warm-up activity; • Guidelines provided for third-phase tasks, e.g., how to retell the content taught with own managed target language, or how to make a short speech on Chinese culture or any other topics related to Chinese culture.
30-35minutes	Subject content and language teaching
10 minutes	Short break
10 minutes	Subject content and language review
30 minutes	Task completion and correction
5-10 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review of vocabulary and pronunciation. • Resolve student doubts. • Feedback on task completion. • Assign practice work at home.
<p>Recommended Links for activities:</p> <p>Songs for Chinese New Year:</p> <p>gōng xǐ fā cái 恭 喜 发 财 https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RSxtW4lBr5g</p> <p>xīn nián hǎo 新年好 https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gCN-gKjNnDQ</p>	

(Source: Guirong Chen)

7.2.2 Lesson Plans for Experiment 2

According to the second proposed combination of TBLT and CLIL, the procedure should be:

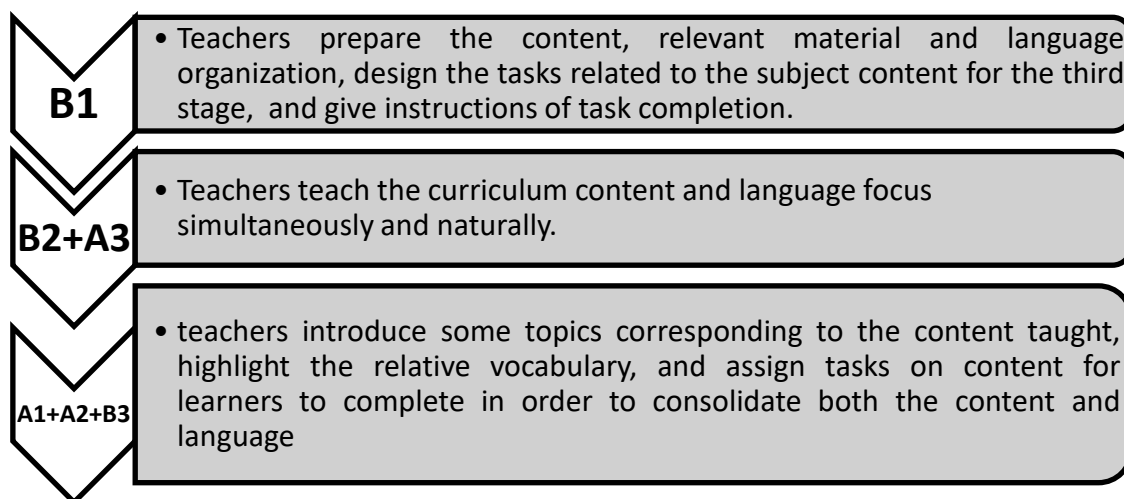


Chart 10. Procedure of the 2nd TBLT-CLIL Combinations. (Source: Guirong Chen)

The participants in this EFL classroom experiment of the second TBLT-CLIL combination (hereafter EFL Experiment 2) are: group two, from Lindenwood University, USA; groups four and six from Zhengzhou University, China; group eight from Hainan University, China. The participants of group two mostly live in a native-English-speaking country, and the remaining participants live in China. In CFL Experiment 2, the participants are group ten from Tia Tula International Language School in Spain who live in a native-Spanish-speaking country, and group twelve from Central Foundation Boys' School in United Kingdom who live in a native-English-speaking country. The materials are those used in Experiment 1.



In the first phase of the second TBLT-CLIL combination in Experiment 2, the EFL teachers or Subject teachers are responsible for preparation of the subject content and language pedagogical points as in the first stage of the CLIL plan. In addition, teachers are required to design tasks related to the curriculum content for students to

complete in the third stage. At the end of the first stage, teachers should explain the instructions of the task performance. Unlike Experiment 1, there is no topic introduction in this phase as a warm-up activity. In the second phase, the teacher will teach the subject content with the target language; at the same time, the relevant English knowledge, such as new vocabulary and grammar, including verb tenses and use of terms will be taught. After content-language teaching a grammar-content exercise will be assigned to FL learners to consolidate the language knowledge and subject content. In the last phase, some topics related to the subject content will be introduced as pre-task activities, then, following task instructions, tasks relative to the content and the topics introduced will be assigned to all EFL learners to be completed in small groups or in pairs. The purpose is to prepare the EFL students to perform the tasks in ways that will promote FL acquisition.

Like the lesson plans for the 1st TBLT-CLIL Combinations, these three lesson plans for Experiment 2 also include class goals, competences, teaching materials, procedures and the duration of each phase. See Tables 13 and 14 for the lesson plans for EFL learners on the subject “Music” and “Macroeconomics”, and Table 15 for the lesson plan on Chinese Culture for CFL learners.

Table 13 is the lesson plan for the 2nd TBLT-CLIL combination on the subject Music for EFL learners. It includes class goals, objectives, procedure, and duration of each phase, as well as some reference links relative to the content.

Table 13. Lesson Plan on Music for EFL Learners of the 2nd Combination



 	
A TBLT-CLIL Lesson Plan for EFL Learners (Combination 2)	
Subject: Music	
Grade: _____	
Topics: Beethoven's Compositional Innovations	
Time: 50 minutes + 50 minutes	
Goals:	<p>Students will be able to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Talk about their favorite music or other topics relative to music using the target language. • Understand common directions given and subject content taught in English. • Complete the tasks assigned related to the content taught in the class. • Increase in exposure time of the four language skills in class.
Competences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners will use subject content and new key vocabulary to communicate or discuss relative topics with classmates and provide their reaction to the topic. • Students will naturally use and remake correct sentences after language focus. Tasks introduced will be completed smoothly in pairs or groups. • Learning strategies, e.g., summarizing and paraphrasing are developed.
Materials:	Re-designed teaching materials based on the PU and USAL teaching materials in Annex V; audio-visual materials from websites related to the subject and topics (links given below).
Content Teaching and Language Focus	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subject content <i>Beethoven's Compositional Innovations</i> taught through reading. • Key vocabulary relative to music and including verbs will be taught. • Essay questions based on content to consolidate student learning. • Difficult concepts explained to help consolidate content acquisition.
Development and Tasks:	<p>Topics related to Music will be introduced and discussed together with teachers to establish the background of the subject content—music, such as “The Voice of China/USA/Spain”, “I am a Singer” etc., and some prior common knowledge of the subject such as the background of Beethoven’s music and his famous sonatas can be set at the same time.</p> <p>After the topic-introduction, students will deliver an oral presentation:</p> <p>Task 1: Retell the text using their own words to check their understanding.</p> <p>Task 2: An oral presentation related to Beethoven’s music, subject content, key vocabulary, his famous sonatas, violin concertos etc.</p> <p>Task 3: A short talk on learners’ favorite music and reasons.</p> <p>Use of the key vocabulary related to the subject content will be encouraged in their task completion. They are also encouraged to be creative and use the knowledge they have acquired about the topic to support their ideas.</p>

Closure	Review the vocabulary words and their pronunciation, resolve student doubts. Give feedbacks of students' task completion. Assign practice work at home.
Procedure	
30-35minutes	Explanation and instruction of task completion; Subject content on Music: <i>Beethoven's Compositional Innovations</i> (See Annex V) and language teaching
10-15 minutes	Subject content on Music: Beethoven's Compositional Innovations and language review.
10 minutes	Break
10-15 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discussion with teachers of topics related to Music, e.g., introducing the discussion on the popular—programs “The Voice of China/USA/Spain”, “I am a Singer” etc., • Establishment of prior common knowledge related to the subject such as Beethoven's famous sonatas can be discussed.
30 minutes	Task completion in groups or in pairs and correction
5-10 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review vocabulary and pronunciation • Resolve student doubts. • Feedback for task completion. • Assign practice work at home.
Relative Videos Links: <u>Beethoven Piano Concerto No.1</u> http://v.youku.com/v_show/id_XNDk2NDQwMDg=.html?from=s1.8-1-1.2 https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7JdACm904DI <u>Beethoven Symphony No.5</u> https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=POVjeuef0RY http://v.youku.com/v_show/id_XMTQ1Mjc4NjlwOA==.html?from=s1.8-1-1.2 <u>Beethoven - Missa Solemnis</u> http://v.youku.com/v_show/id_XODkzNzM5MTI=.html?from=s1.8-1-1.2 https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-uSME7Bv4JE	

(Source: Guirong Chen)

Table 14 is the lesson plan of the 2nd TBLT-CLIL combination on Macroeconomics for EFL learners. It includes class goals, the student competences to be developed, tasks to complete in class, procedure, and duration of each phase.

Table 14. Lesson Plan on Macroeconomics for EFL Learners of the 2nd Combination



 	
A TBLT-CLIL Lesson Plan for EFL Learners (Combination 2)	
Subject: Economics Grade: _____ Topics: What is Money? Time: 50 minutes + 50 minutes	
Goals:	Students will be able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use the English language to talk about their understanding of money, the importance of money in daily life, other topics relative to “Money”. • Understand common directions and subject content taught in English. • Complete assigned tasks related to class content. • Increase in exposure time to the four language skills.
Competences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners will use the subject content, key vocabulary, language forms acquired in class to communicate or discuss relative topics. • Development of learning strategies such as summarizing and paraphrasing, predicting , making inferences.
Materials:	Re-designed teaching materials, based on those used in University of Zhengzhou, China, and University of Cambridge, UK (See Annex VI);
Content Teaching and Language Focus	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The subject content “What is Money” taught through reading together with FL/subject teachers. • Explanation of key vocabulary related to Money and Economics Terms as well as verbs. • Explanation of difficult concepts to help learners consolidate content and language acquisition. • Essay questions set based on content to consolidate their learning.
Development and Tasks :	Discussion with teachers of topics related to Money, e.g., learners’ own understanding of Money functions, their plans if they had plenty of money. Students will be divided into small groups. After topic-introduction, students will deliver an oral presentation and carry out some enabling tasks: Task 1: Retell the text. Task 2: Discussion related to “Money” in economics such as the types, the functions, the values, misunderstandings of the concept of money in Economics, etc. Final task: Students will do an oral presentation describing what they would do if a) they could issue money or b) they won \$5 million in the lottery? (Alternative).

	Students are encouraged to use key vocabulary related to subject content in task completion. They are also encouraged to be creative and use the knowledge they have acquired about the topic to support their ideas.
Closure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review vocabulary and pronunciation. • Resolve student doubts. • Give feedbacks of students' task completion. • Assign practice work at home.
Procedure	
30-35minutes	Explanation of the task; Subject content on Economics: <i>What is Money</i> (See Annex VI) and language teaching
10-15 minutes	Subject content and language review
10 minutes	Break
10-15 minutes	Whole class discussion of topics related to Money with teacher's participation, e.g., the importance and definition of Money, prior common knowledge related to the subject, e.g. Money functions, Money types in Economics, expressed in own language.
30 minutes	Task completion in small groups or in pairs and correction
5-10 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review vocabulary and their pronunciation. • Resolve student doubts. • Feedbacks from the task completion. • Assign practice work at home.

(Source: Guirong Chen)

Table 15 is the lesson plan of the 2nd TBLT-CLIL combination on Chinese Culture for CFL learners. As in the other lesson plans, it includes class goals, competences to develop tasks, the teaching procedure and the duration of each phase.

Table 15. Lesson Plan on Chinese Culture for CFL Learners of the 2nd Combination

 	
A TBLT-CLIL Lesson Plan for CFL Learners (Combination 2)	
Subject: Chinese Culture Grade: _____ Topics: The Spring Festival Time: 50 minutes + 50 minutes	
Goals :	Students will be able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use Chinese to talk about Chinese traditions and festivals they know or any other topics relative to Chinese culture, using dictionary/mobile/internet as assistive tools in the class. • Understand common directions given and subject content taught in Chinese • Complete assigned tasks related to taught content. • Increase in exposure time to the four language skills in class.
Competences:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners use subject content and new key vocabulary to communicate with partners and classmates. • Students will naturally use and remake sentences after language focus and content review. • Tasks introduced will be completed smoothly in pairs or groups. • Greater class exposure to four language skills. • Development of learning strategies such as summarizing and paraphrasing.
Materials:	Teaching materials are designed by the author according to different groups' Chinese level on the subject Chinese Culture: " <i>The Spring Festival</i> " (See Annex VII); some downloaded audio-visual materials related to subject and topics; the links will be given below.
Content Teaching and Language Focus:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The subject content of <i>the Chinese Spring Festival</i> is taught according to lesson plan with FL/Subject teachers. • Key vocabulary relative to Chinese culture as well as verbs taught. • Essay questions set, based on content, to consolidate learning. • Difficult concepts explained to help consolidate content acquisition.

Development and Tasks:	<p>Topics related to Chinese festivals, famous Chinese food, traditions etc. introduced by FL/subject teacher to establish subject content background—“<i>The Chinese Spring Festival</i>”.</p> <p>Establishment of prior common knowledge of Chinese culture.</p> <p>Learners are divided into small groups.</p> <p>Teacher gives instructions for task completion.</p> <p>Students then deliver an oral presentation:</p> <p>Enabling Task 1: Retell the text in own language to check understanding, and practice language skills such as paraphrasing, summarizing, discriminating main ideas from details.</p> <p>Enabling Task 2: An oral presentation related to Chinese Festivals, the subject content, the key vocabulary, Chinese famous food, etc.</p> <p>Final Task: A presentation of your favorite Festival of your country and reasons.</p> <p>Students are encouraged to use key vocabulary related to subject content in task completion. They are also encouraged to be creative and use the knowledge they have acquired about the topic to support their ideas.</p>
Closure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review vocabulary and pronunciation. • Resolve student doubts. • Assign practice work at home.
Procedure	
30-35 minutes	Subject content on Chinese Culture: <i>The Spring Festival</i> and language teaching
10-15minutes	Subject content and language review
10 minutes	Break
10-15 minutes	<p>Short talk on Chinese culture in learners' own language.</p> <p>Task guidelines for third-phase tasks provided, e.g., how to retell taught content in own managed target language, or how to make a short speech on the Chinese culture or any other topics related to Chinese culture.</p>
30 minutes	Tasks completion and correction
5-10 minutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review the vocabulary and pronunciation. • Resolve student doubts. • Feedback on the task completion. • Assign practice work at home.
<p>Recommended Links for activities: Songs for Chinese New Year:</p> <p>gōng xǐ fā cái 恭喜发财 https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RSxtW4lBr5g</p> <p>xīn nián hǎo 新年好 https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gCN-gKjNnDQ</p>	

(Source: Guirong Chen)

7.3 Class Observation Report

Observation is one of the methods through which we assess the quality of teaching and learn how to develop and improve our teaching. Siddiqui (2005) states that classroom observation has a behaviorist orientation that attempts “to identify, control, and manipulate specific outcomes of teaching by altering selected aspects of a teacher's overt behavior” (p. 52). This section will describe the design of the classroom observation report to record teacher and student behavior in class. The purpose of this report is to reflect on the performance of the FL teachers and EFL learners as well as the class environment according to the requirements of the TBLT-CLIL combinations, and to record the results of each group’s experiment.

According to Allwright and Bailey (1991), any system of classroom observation must recognize the possibility of multiple perspectives on a classroom event. There can be at least three different perspectives: the teacher’s perspective, the learner’s perspective, and the observer’s perspective (qtd. in Badea, 2008, p. 2). Most traditional models of classroom observation have been unidirectional, that is, the information flow is generally from the observer to the teacher, the observer being a supervisor in the case of a practice teacher, or a teacher educator in the case of a teacher-trainee. In our experiments, the teacher assistants performed a dual role as participating teachers and observers in order to help record the performance of the whole class according to the limited conditions provided. The emphasis on teacher perspective ensures self-monitoring and self-evaluation on the part of the teacher. It gives an opportunity for teachers to analyze their own classroom discourse, such constant and continual reflection results in a heightened awareness of one’s own teaching behavior. Emphasis on observer perspective ensures a different approach from an informed and inquisitive observer. It also enables collaboration among teachers and assistants in the way shown

by modern classroom management techniques, and helps teachers improve each other's teaching performance and the work environment. The learners' perspective of the observation report, which can bring a unique perspective to the classroom event, was designed in the third part of the evaluation forms. They filled out an evaluation form where they could explain and examine different aspects of classroom discourse self-evaluation measures, learning strategies, the clarity of the instructional guidance given by the teachers, and the satisfaction of the tested TBLT-CLIL combinations.

Research on effective teaching has typically consisted of subjective data based on personal and anecdotal accounts of effective teaching. In order to develop a scientific basis for teaching, researchers began to use the more objective and reliable measures of classroom observation (Stallings, 2006, p. 69). Therefore, in order to make critical classroom observation viable and useful, teachers, observers and learners have to function jointly as partners in striving to understand and assess the discourse of a particular lesson. These partners, by virtue of their prior experience and exposure, bring with them their own perceptions and prescriptions about teaching methods, learning strategies, and outcome. Therefore, one and the same classroom event can be interpreted differently by different participants in that event. As Allwright (2007) points out, the challenge is how to help teachers fully integrate their normal pedagogic practices with the research perspective, "without adding significantly and unacceptably to teachers' workloads" (p. 131), so as to contribute both to professional development and to theory-building within and across the profession. And according to Badea et al. (2011), a critical classroom observation must essentially encompass a systematic observation of both teaching and learning acts, and must create an awareness of both teacher and learner perception of what did or did not happen in the class. The classroom observation report is a research instrument which involves recording the performance and behaviors

of all participants in the experiments. Although there are several types of observational procedures or techniques that have been used to examine effective teaching, such as charts, rating scales, checklists, and narrative descriptions, the most widely used procedure or research method has been systematic classroom observation based on interactive systems which allow the observer to record nearly everything that students and teachers do in the class. These interaction systems are very objective and typically do not require the observer to make any high inferences or judgments about the behaviors they observe in the classroom.

Therefore, the classroom observation report designed for the present research included the basic information on the TBLT-CLIL experiment: participating teacher, grade of the learners, subject title, selected TBLT-CLIL combinations. The instruction part includes: preparation of materials, clarity of instructional guidance, opportunities for student participation. The report should also describe classroom atmosphere, learner-teacher interaction, and classroom management, such as dealing with discipline problems, fostering student engagement, developing classroom routines and procedures, as well as relevant information about time management and teachers' feedbacks for task completion. The observer's overall assessment of each phase should be included for an objective evaluation of the effectiveness of the experiment.

As Good (1988) points out, "one role of observational research is to describe what takes place in classrooms in order to delineate the complex practical issues that confront practitioners" (p. 337). The major purposes and functions of using classroom observation for this study are the following: (1) to provide the author with a rational check of the TBLT-CLIL combinations in EFL/CFL groups; (2) to obtain more detailed and precise evidence than with other data sources; and (3) to stimulate improvement and verify the improvement for future research. The descriptions of instructional events that

are provided by observation report are supposed to lead to improved understanding and better models for improving TBLT-CLIL teaching. In addition, classroom observation has many valid and important educational purposes such as a description of instructional practices, an investigation of instructional inequities for different groups of students, and an improvement reference for teachers' classroom instruction based on feedback from individual classroom reports.

The report for this study is intended to evaluate the implementation of the classroom lessons, and the interaction between teachers and students. It also records whether the lesson includes topic introductions, good transitions, understandable materials, clear instructions for the students to work on their tasks, related individual activities and a clear summary that leads the students to anticipate any follow-up lessons. In addition, it should record whether the teacher presents the lesson's learning objectives clearly to the students, whether the teacher fully explains any assignments relating to the lessons and whether the teacher has created objective evaluation tools to assess the success of the lessons. It also observes how the instructor makes allowances for different learning and performance styles and attention spans among the students, evaluates the teacher's overall preparedness for lessons in the report, his/her ability to involve students in planning and implementing lessons and his/her ability to engage the students during the course of the class. Besides, a qualitative method of measuring classroom behaviors from direct observations that specifies or evaluates both the teaching method itself or behaviors is needed in the experiments.

Therefore, the purpose of the classroom observation report in this study is threefold: to make assessments about the performance of the examined TBLT-CLIL teaching method in EFL/CFL class; to make judgements about the quality and the management of the teaching method; to assess the quality of acquisition. The designed

observation report form provides a framework describing the elements and characteristics of an effective lesson as well as giving guidance on feedback and the use of secondary sources in addition to observation. It will ensure the consistency of every pair of EFL/CFL groups in the experiment for the two TBLT-CLIL combinations. It will also provide a reliable feedback both for participating teachers and students. In order to have a complete description of each group's experiment, a standardized class observation report form will be sent to the participating teachers as part of the experiment (See Appendix X for the details of the report). This report form consists of three parts. The first part concerns basic information on the names of the participating teacher and observer, the date and duration of the class experiment, the number of participants, the combination type etc. The second part records the teacher's preparation, the interaction between teacher and students, the class management and other related aspects. In the third section (see Appendix X), a likert-type scale, wherein, 1=insufficient, 2=somewhat sufficient, 3=regular, 4=good, and 5=excellent, was used to assess the performance of each phase of TBLT-CLIL combinations. Generally, the data collected from this procedure focuses on the satisfaction of the participants throughout this process in which TBLT-CLIL methods were implemented for the teaching of English and Chinese.

7.4 Evaluation and Feedbacks

After the class experiments and observations, an evaluation form was sent to all participants to evaluate the effectiveness and characteristics of the TBLT-CLIL teaching in both EFL/CFL groups. Evaluation is the basis of the data collection and analysis in this study. Developing and implementing an evaluation form has many benefits

including helping researchers to better understand and resolve the target participants' needs, to make the objectives more achievable and measurable, and to monitor progress toward those objectives, thus helping to increase the project's productivity and effectiveness.

The purpose of evaluation is to make judgments about a project, to improve its effectiveness, and/or to inform programming decisions (Patton, 1990, 2008). Evaluation is critical for our data analysis and for providing reliable data for further research. It ensures that diverse viewpoints are taken into account and that results are as complete and unbiased as possible. Input should be sought from all of those involved and affected by the evaluation; it will show the strengths and limitations of the study and is a reference for improving future design. As Donavon and Jungbluth (2007) assert, “a good evaluation is one that is likely to be replicable, meaning that someone else should be able to conduct the same evaluation and get the same results” (p. 4). The higher the quality of the evaluation design, the more complete the data collected, the more accurate the conclusions and the greater the findings uncovered.

Based on the view of Rossi, Lipsey and Freeman (2003), evaluation is a systematic endeavor, and it emphasizes acquiring and assessing information rather than assessing worth or merit because all evaluation work involves “collecting and sifting through data, making judgements about the validity of the information and of inferences we derive from it, whether or not an assessment is of worth or merit results” (p. 13). The most important basic distinction is that between formative and summative evaluation, which, according to Donavon and Jungbluth (2007), strengthen or improve the object being evaluated:

They help form it by examining the delivery of the program, the quality of its implementation, and the assessment of the organizational context,

personnel, procedures, and inputs. Summative evaluations, in contrast, examine the effects or outcomes of project/object, and they summarize it by describing what happens subsequent to implementation of the program, assessing whether the project/object can be said to have caused the outcome, and determining the overall impact of the causal factor beyond only the immediate target outcomes (Donavon & Jungbluth, 2007, p. 53).

However, Rossi, Lipsey and Freeman (2003) point out that “experimental models are the most historically dominant evaluation strategies” (p. 22), which prioritize the desirability of impartiality, accuracy, objectivity and the validity of the information generated. This strategy was used to design the evaluation forms since they are suitable for experimental designs and objectives-based research that comes from education. In addition, the qualitative model strategy was also used for designing the evaluation, based on our previous classroom observation report. Qualitative models emphasize the importance of observation, and the value of subjective interpretation in the evaluation process which meets the required needs in this study. As the term participant-oriented model suggests, this further strategy emphasizes the central importance of the evaluation of participants, in this case, it refers to the participating EFL/CFL teachers and learners.

Based on the theory of Rossi, Lipsey and Freeman (2003), a good evaluation should be replicable and its methods as rigorous as circumstances allow. After accepting these strategies and types of evaluation chosen, I decided to design the evaluation form separately based on the different subject content and participants in order to collect the

most complete data possible. Four different evaluation forms were designed for this study, three for learners based on the subject content, one for teachers.

The first step was to build and support an evaluation system such as setting goals, objectives, and a desired result, then to create measurement criteria for collection, analysis and use of the information provided in the form to establish the success rate of these goals and objectives. The generic goal of the evaluation forms was to provide useful feedback for analysis of the two TBLT-CLIL combinations in EFL/CFL groups, and to compare their effectiveness after completion of the two content-language-task experiments in the TBLT-CLIL and EFL-CFL categories. Another purpose was to observe the implementation of the experiments, and whether they operated as intended, and individual satisfaction with the TBLT-CLIL combinations. The third purpose of the evaluation forms was to allow the participants and researchers to review the teaching methods' strengths and weaknesses so that improvements could be made.

The second step was to design the evaluation form according to the study objectives based on the different experiments. As explained in the previous section, the evaluation forms were separately designed taking into account the different subject content and participating teachers/learners.

In designing the subject content category for the learners' evaluation form, the intention was to examine the effects of the TBLT-CLIL combination in content and language teaching through ten multiple-choice questions or the fill-in-the-blank questions based on corresponding subject content and language focus. After checking the accuracy of participants' understanding subsequent to delivery of the content-language-task, an assessment of satisfaction was followed by another set of nine multiple-choice questions and one fill-in-the-blank question for further comments and suggestions. This part of the evaluation was designed to focus mainly on the overall

assessment of the whole class performance, the different phases of the experiment design, the language skills being exposed and further suggestions for the improvement of the experiment design. See Table 16 for the structure of the students' evaluation form.

Table 16: Structure of the Students' Evaluation Form

Section	Content	Questions
1	Basic experiment information	4 questions
2	Content-language evaluation	10 questions
3	Class performance evaluation	10 questions

(Source: Guirong Chen)

The first section sought basic information such as the subject taken, language taught, and experiment date in order to facilitate the classification of the data collection. The second evaluated the effectiveness of both the subject content and language related to the content using multiple-choice questions, six relating to the content check, four to the language check. Answers were given after the evaluation forms were collected. The third section concerned satisfaction with the teaching method used in class compared with other teaching methods used in their previous class, the assessment of each phase of the experiment design as well as exposure to the four language skills. In addition, it sought comments or suggestions on the teaching method. See Appendix XI for the evaluation form on subject Music, Appendix XII on subject Economics, and Appendix XIII on subject Chinese Culture. In the EFL groups, aid tools, such as the Internet or dictionaries were not permitted for understanding the questions. In contrast, CFL groups were allowed to use any aid tools, such as the Internet or dictionaries, for a better understanding of the questions since questions in the second section were in Chinese characters though some pinyin and explications were given next to the new vocabulary in case learners did not fully understand the questions.

As for the teacher's evaluation form, it aimed to evaluate class performance, especially the students' participation in each phase, as well as teachers' assessment of

the combined TBLT-CLIL in corresponding experiments. See Table 18 for the structure of the teachers' evaluation form.

Table 17: Structure of the Teachers' Evaluation Form

Section	Content	Questions
1	Basic experiment information	4 questions
2	Class performance evaluation	8 questions
3	Class observation and comments	3 questions

(Source: Guirong Chen)

It comprised three sections. The first asked for basic information, such as subject, experiment date, participants' grade as well as the intermediate languages for class. The second section evaluated the performance of TBLT-CLIL to compare the results of implementing the combination with their previous method, using eight multiple-choice questions. The third section gathered some comments or suggestions as part of feedback, including a short class observation focusing on a record of student behavior, participation, the interaction between partners and teachers, and seeking suggestions and comments for improvements on the TBLT-CLIL combination design (See Annex XIV for the details of the Evaluation Form for teachers).

Chapter 8. Data Collection

After providing methodological insights on the underlying qualitative and quantitative approaches, the following chapter depicts the entire collection process for data analysis and interpretation based on the experiments carried out and can be understood by considering relations between the combination of both methodologies and the implementation of each combination. The purpose of this experimental section is to determine whether the combinations of TBLT and CLIL are effective, whether they can improve the implementation of these methods to teach TEFL and TCFL, and to inform future work in the exploration of new FL teaching methods as an open topic and will form the basis for analysis and discussion in this chapter.

Based on the theoretical models applied to the proposed TBLT-CLIL combinations, I hypothesized that both combinations would work better in TEFL than in TCFL, and that EFL groups would outperform CFL groups at all tested language skills in both combinations. I further hypothesized that the first TBLT-CLIL combination would motivate EFL and CFL learners more than the second; in addition, participant learners and teachers would show a higher satisfaction on the first TBLT-CLIL combination. I foresaw that some restrictions, such as lack of relative syllabus teaching materials in the target language, or time limit in class, or the use of convenient sampling would affect the results of the TBLT-CLIL combinations trials.

To test these hypotheses, 20 class experiments were conducted in 12 different groups from four different countries: USA, China, Spain and UK, using the redesigned teaching materials in chapter 6 and specified lesson plans in chapter 7. In order to avoid any other unnecessary variables and factors which might affect the results, every pair of groups for two different TBLT-CLIL combinations was taught by the same participating teacher. Therefore, the twelve groups can be sorted into six sets for comparison; of these,

four received payment by the proposer of the experiments; the remaining groups were volunteers.

The quality and utility of monitoring, evaluation and experiments in this project fundamentally relies on the ability to collect and analyze quantitative and qualitative data. Therefore, the participating teachers have provided assistance by collecting the original questionnaires and evaluation forms. They were also required to write a brief class observation report with the help of their assistants.

8.1 Data Collection Process

Each classroom experiment was performed quite fluently by all participants. Data collection was completed through questionnaires, which were distributed before the experiments, class observation reports, which were taken during the experiments, and evaluation forms, which were collected after the experiments. To clarify, a figure of the data collection process is given below:

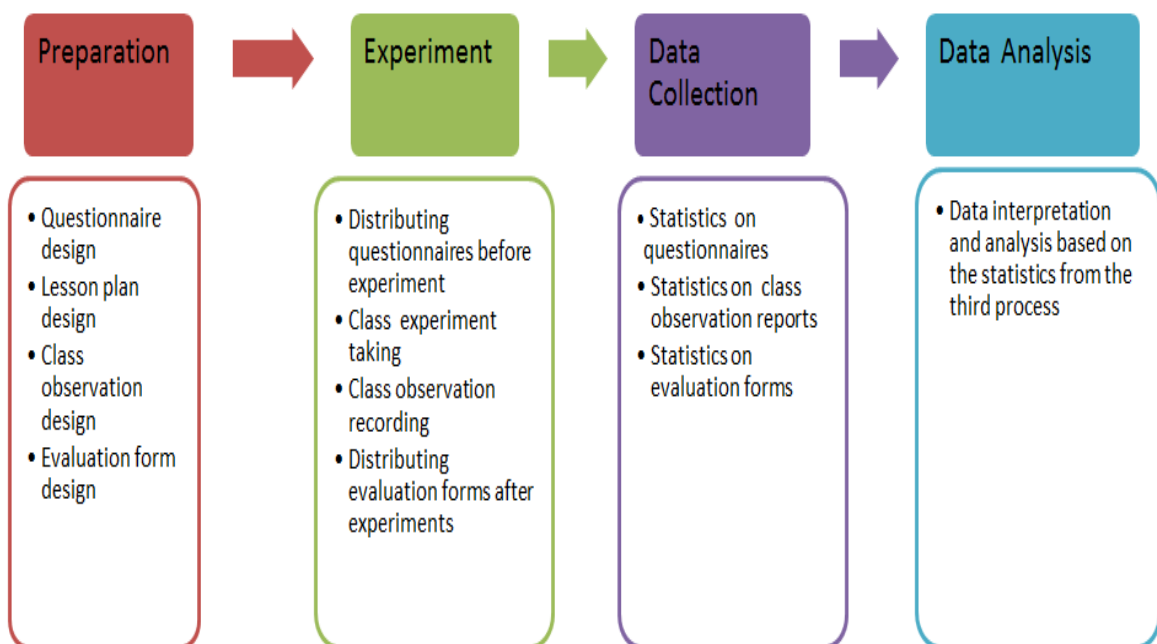


Figure 31. Process of the Data Collection and Analysis. (Source: Guirong Chen)

In addition, some individual interviews, video-calls, and voice calls, emails, international contexts, WeChat²³ communications were done to supplement the data collection process. All the original data were scanned and recorded in Annex CD and a coding framework and statistical figures were developed to analyze the data.

According to the process, statistics on the questionnaire, class observation report and evaluation form were done separately as an integral part of the data collection, before the results from the experiment data were analyzed. The main purposes of the statistics are not only to facilitate the analysis and interpretation of the data gathered, but also to present the raw sources in their true form with the help of figures and tables which can also help in condensing the data into accessible figures. The statistics used in this study helped in collecting appropriate quantitative data, presenting complex data in a suitable tabular/diagrammatic/graphic form for clear comprehension, and for a better understanding of the nature and pattern of variability of the experiment performance. It also helped in drawing valid inferences, along with a measure of their reliability about the population parameters from the collected data. In order to facilitate the understanding of the data, they are represented in the form of graphs, diagrams or through an average or coefficients.

²³ WeChat (literally: "micro message") is a cross-platform instant messaging service developed by Tencent in China. It is one of the largest standalone messaging apps by monthly active users. As of May 2016, WeChat has over 700 million active users. WeChat provides text messaging, hold-to-talk voice messaging, broadcast (one-to-many) messaging, video conferencing, video games, sharing of photographs and videos, and location sharing.

8.2 Participants' Background Statistics

186 questionnaires, as detailed in chapter 9, were initially sent to all participating students and teachers, and all of them were returned, resulting in a 100% response rate. Therefore, all 186 questionnaires were considered to be legitimate for this research. Of the 186 questionnaires, 20 were sent to EFL learners in USA and 120 were sent to EFL learners in China who were identified as EFL participants in a different language environment; 18 questionnaires were sent to CFL learners in Spain and 22 were sent to CFL learners in UK who were identified as CFL participants in a different language environment; 6 questionnaires were sent to all participating teachers who were selected and responsible for all class experiments. See Figure 32 for the distribution of the questionnaires and examined groups.

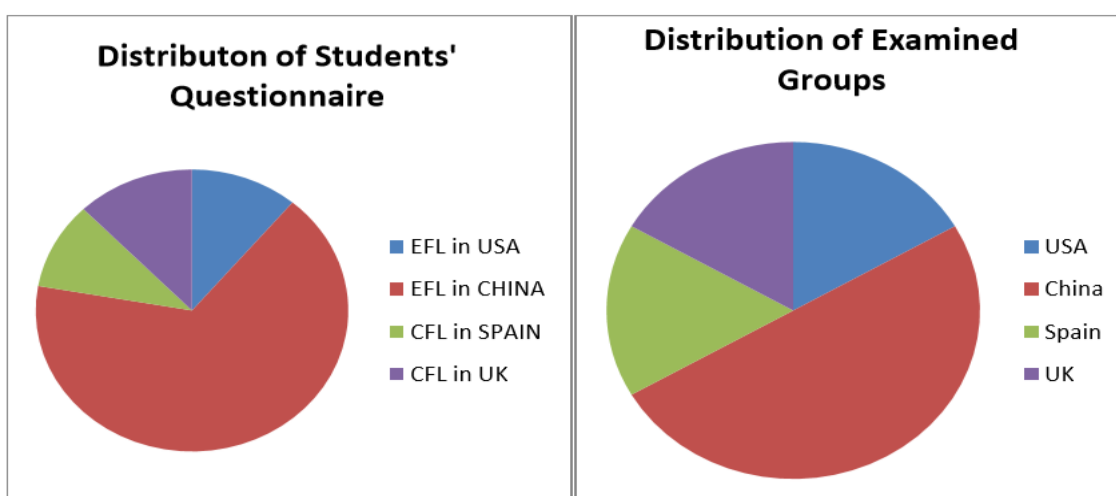


Figure 32. Sampling Distribution. (Source: Guirong Chen)

In order to facilitate the data analysis in the following section, I made a statistical table of each group collected from the participants' questionnaires, including twelve statistical tables of background based on the learners' questionnaire (See Annex XV for all the participating learners' background statistics), and one statistical table based on the teachers' questionnaire (See Appendix XV for the teachers background statistics, and see Table 18 for a short summary).

Table 18: Summary of Each Groups

Groups	Duration of Experiments	Age when data collection	Number of Groups
EFL Groups	2 lessons each, 2 hours per lesson	19-20	8
CFL Groups	1 lesson each, 2 hours per lesson	15-16	4

(Source: Guirong Chen)

As described in chapter 6.4, there are two EFL groups from Lindenwood University, USA. According to the statistics in Appendix XV, in group one, the 10 participants are 6 native speakers of Spanish, 2 native speakers of Chinese, 2 native speakers of Russian with English as their first foreign language, while in group two, there are 6 native speakers of Spanish, 4 native speakers of Chinese. All participants were born and grew up in their own country, and are learning English in the United States as a place of residence. There were 4 female students and 6 male students in group one, 5 female and 5 male students in group two, all, except for one 26-year-old in group one, aged between eighteen and twenty, and in their first undergraduate academic year in the English Major at the time of the study, March 2016. Among them, one spoke Portuguese, one spoke Russian as their second FL apart from mother language and English in group one. In group two, two participants spoke Portuguese, one spoke French as their second FL apart from mother language and English. The rest spoke no other FL. In addition, 90% of participants had spent 5-6 years learning English, and had a B2²⁴ level. Besides the language background, all participants responded that they knew and liked the TBLT method as their FL teaching method in class, but only 70%

²⁴ CEFR standard (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages) is widely accepted as the global standard for grading an individual's language proficiency. English language levels description is below:

A1=Beginner, A2=Elementary English; B1=Intermediate English, B2=Upper-Intermediate English; C1=Advanced English, C2=Proficiency English.

participants said they knew the CLIL approach, and 20% of them expressed their preference for it. The rest of them showed their preference for a traditional or mixed teaching method such as the grammar translation method together with TBLT or communicative language teaching. 90% of participants in both groups wished to increase their spoken language as the most useful skill for the future.

Table 19: Summary of Group 1 and Group 2

		Group 1	Group 2
SEX	Female	4	5
	Male	6	5
Mother Language	Spanish	6	6
	Chinese	2	4
	Russian	2	0
1st Foreign L.	English	10	10
2nd Foreign L.	Portuguese	1	2
	Russian	1	0
	French	0	1
Academic Year	1st Year	√	√
Language Level		B2	B2
Familiar with TM	TBLT	10	10
	CLIL	7	7
Major		English Major	English Major

(Source: Guirong Chen)

Based on the statistics of the second pair of EFL groups from Zhengzhou University, China, some differences were found compared with the first pair of groups. The sample size was doubled, from 10 participants each in the first pair, there were 20 native speakers of Chinese with English as a first foreign language who were born and grew up in China. There were 12 females and 8 males in the third group, 10 females and 10 males in the fourth group, all aged between eighteen and twenty-two, in their second undergraduate academic year of the Economics Major at the time of the study, March 2016. All of the participants were born and raised in an urban environment. All had

completed the six-year English compulsory program required by the Chinese education system, with an upper-intermediate level similar to the first pair of EFL groups. Apart from the language background, all participants responded that they were familiar with the TBLT method or communicative language as their FL teaching method, and half of them said they had heard about the CLIL approach with 80% of them expressing that they would like to try this method in their experiments. The remainder showed their preference for a traditional or mixed teaching method, such as the grammar translation method together with TBLT or communicative language teaching. 90% of participants in both groups wished to increase their speaking and reading language as the most useful skills for their future.

Table 20: Summary of Group 3 and Group 4

		Group 3	Group 4
SEX	Female	12	10
	Male	8	10
Mother Language	Spanish	0	0
	Chinese	20	20
	Russian	0	0
1st Foreign L.	English	20	20
Academic Year	2nd Year	√	√
Language Level		B2	B2
Familiar with TM	TBLT	20	20
	CLIL	10	10
Major		Economics Major	Economics Major

(Source: Guirong Chen)

The third pair of EFL groups is also from Zhengzhou University, China. The sampling size was again 20 native speakers of Chinese with English as their major in university, who were born and grew up in China. There were 11 females and 9 males in the fifth group, 10 females and 10 males in the sixth group, all aged between eighteen and twenty-two, in their third undergraduate academic year in the English Major at the

time of the study, March 2016. 85% of participants were born and raised in the urban environment. All participants in this pair of groups had completed the six-year English compulsory program required by the Chinese education system, with a C1 level of English. Apart from the language background, all participants responded that they were familiar with the TBLT method or communicative language as their preferred FL teaching method in class, and all of them said they had heard about the CLIL approach since most subjects, such as English literature and history were taught in a similar way. Among them, 80% of participants expressed their preference for a mixed teaching method. The remainder showed no preference for FL teaching methods. In addition, based on the statistics in Appendix XV, 70% of participants in both groups wished to increase the four language skills since they are all very important for their future work.

Table 21: Summary of Group 5 and Group 6

		Group 5	Group 6
SEX	Female	11	10
	Male	9	10
Mother Language	Spanish	0	0
	Chinese	20	20
	Russian	0	0
1st Foreign L.	English	20	20
Academic Year	3rd Year	v	v
Language Level		C1	C1
Familiar with TM	TBLT	20	20
	CLIL	20	20
Major		English Major	English Major

(Source: Guirong Chen)

As for the last pair of EFL groups in this study, all were from Hainan University, China, with the same sampling size as the other Chinese EFL groups. Both groups consisted of 10 female and 10 male participants, all aged between eighteen and twenty-

two, in their second undergraduate academic year, majoring in Hotel Management at the time of the study, March 2016. All of the participants were born and raised in an urban environment. As with any other Chinese participants, all in this pair of groups had completed the six-year compulsory English program required by the Chinese education system, with an upper-intermediate level similar to the first/second pair of EFL groups. Apart from the language background, all participants responded that they were familiar with the TBLT method or communicative language since oral English was very important for their college specialty, and 60% of them expressed familiarity with the CLIL approach because of the teaching materials used in their university. 85% of them showed their preference for TBLT or communicative language teaching. All participants in both groups wished to increase their speaking and listening, as the most important skills in their future.

Table 22: Summary of Group 7 and Group 8

		Group 7	Group 8
SEX	Female	10	10
	Male	10	10
Mother Language	Spanish	0	0
	Chinese	20	20
	Russian	0	0
1st Foreign L.	English	20	20
Academic Year	2nd Year	√	√
Language Level		B2	B2
Familiar with TM	TBLT	20	20
	CLIL	12	12
Major		Hotel Management	Hotel Management

(Source: Guirong Chen)

These eight groups formed the sample size of 140 EFL learners as participants in this survey. The number of participants resident in USA studying EFL in an English-

speaking environment was 20, while the number of participants resident in China studying EFL in a Non-English-speaking environment was 120.

In the CFL sampling, there were 40 participants in total, including 18 living in Spain being in a Spanish-speaking environment, and 22 living in UK studying in an English-speaking environment. All CFL participants in this sampling were studying in a Non-Chinese-speaking environment.

The first pair of CFL groups in this study was from Tia Tula International Foreign Language School, Salamanca, Spain. In the ninth group there were 10 native speakers of Spanish with English as their first FL and Chinese as their second/third FL, all were born and grew up in the same city, Salamanca. As recorded in the statistics in Appendix XV, in group nine, there were 4 females and 6 males, all aged between fourteen and eighteen, including 8 from local senior high schools, and 2 enrolled in the first undergraduate academic year in the English-Spanish Translation major in the University of Salamanca at the time of the study, March 2016. Half of them could speak more than two foreign languages, such as Portuguese, French, or German. In group ten, there were 8 participants in total, and the sex ratio was 1:1. Among them, apart from Spanish, English and Chinese, two participants could speak basic Portuguese, two basic French, four basic German and these had had an exchange experience in Germany. In both CFL groups, all participants had spent 2-4 years learning Chinese, and had an A2 level. Besides the language background, all participants responded that they knew and liked the TBLT method as well as the CLIL approach since some subjects in their curriculum were adopting CLIL, and 80% of them expressed their preference for it. The rest showed their preference for a traditional or mixed teaching method such as the direct method together with TBLT or CLIL. 90% of CFL participants in both groups

wished to increase their Chinese speaking and listening as the most useful skill for their future.

Table 23: Summary of Group 9 and Group 10

		Group 9	Group 10
SEX	Female	4	4
	Male	6	4
Mother Language	Spanish	10	8
1st Foreign L.	English	10	20
2nd Foreign L.	Chinese	10	20
Academic Year	Senior High School	8	8
	1st undergraduate Year	2	0
Language Level		A2	A2
Familiar with TM	TBLT	10	8
	CLIL	10	8

(Source: Guirong Chen)

The second pair of CFL participants was composed of full-time senior high school students enrolled in the Chinese program at the Central Foundation Boy's School, London, United Kingdom. In group eleven, there were 12 native speakers of English with Chinese as their first foreign language who were born and grew up in United Kingdom, while in group twelve there were 10 English-speaking participants. In this pair of CFL group, all participants were boys aged between fourteen and sixteen at the time of the survey, March 2016. Based on their language background statistics, all of them had completed a 3-year Chinese compulsory program with an upper-initial to intermediate level of Chinese. Apart from English and Chinese, 4 students in group eleven could speak very basic Spanish, and 5 in group twelve could speak basic French, the rest spoke no other foreign language at the time of the experiment. All participants expressed familiarity with both the TBLT and CLIL teaching methods, and showed their willingness to try combining them in their future FL class. As for the language

skills, 90% of CFL students expressed a desire to have all their four languages skills improved.

Table 24: Summary of Group 11 and Group 12

		Group 11	Group 12
SEX	Female	0	0
	Male	12	10
Mother Language	English	12	10
1st Foreign L.	Chinese	12	10
2nd Foreign L.	Chinese	10	20
Other Foreign L.	Spanish	4	0
	French	0	5
Academic Year	Senior High School	v	v
Language Level		A2-B1	A2-B1
Familiar with TM	TBLT	12	10
	CLIL	12	10

(Source: Guirong Chen)

After detailing the statistics on the participating learners' questionnaire, Appendix XV also includes the data collected from the teachers' questionnaires. As planned before the experiments, each participating teacher was responsible for every pair of EFL/CFL groups in order to avoid unnecessary variables. There were 6 participant FL/subject teachers, of whom four were EFL teachers, 2 females and 2 males, two were female CFL teachers. The first teacher responsible for the first pair of EFL groups is an English native speaker, using English as an intermediate language in class experiments. The remaining three EFL teachers are Chinese native speakers, using Chinese as an intermediate language in class. Of the two TCFL participating teachers, both are Chinese native speakers, one in Spain, using Spanish and English as an intermediate language in class, the other in UK, using English as an intermediate language in class. According to the statistics in Appendix XV, the first teacher is an English female who has 5-years' teaching experience in TEFL, is familiar with TBLT

but not with CLIL. The second teacher is an English male with 7-years' teaching experience, who is more familiar with CLIL than TBLT. The third English teacher is a male with 10-years' teaching experience, and familiar with both TBLT and CLIL; the last participant, a female English teacher has 9-years' teaching experience in TEFL, is familiar with TBLT but not with CLIL. As for the CFL teachers, the one teaching in Spain has had 6-years' rich teaching experience with TBLT, and the other in UK has had 12-years' rich teaching experience with traditional teaching methods, and is familiar with TBLT but not with CLIL.

Table 25: Summary of Participating Teachers

Teachers	Sex	Groups	FL/Subject T.	Experience	Intermediate L.	M. Language
Teacher 1	F	1 & 2	FL	5 years	English	English
Teacher 2	M	3 & 4	Subject	7 years	Chinese	Chinese
Teacher 3	M	5 & 6	FL	10 years	Chinese	Chinese
Teacher 4	F	7 & 8	Subject	9 years	Chinese	Chinese
Teacher 5	F	9 & 10	FL	6 years	Mixed	Chinese
Teacher 6	F	11 & 12	FL	12 years	English	English

(Source: Guirong Chen)

After simplifying the data, they can be both correlated and compared. The relationship between each of the two examined groups will be represented by certain mathematical quantities like average or coefficients etc. in the data analysis section.

8.3 Class Observation Report Statistics

The Class Observation Report describes how the teachers and learners interact in class, reflects on the lesson's organization and the application of the proposed teaching methods. It also records whether the teacher presents his/her classroom lesson's learning objectives clearly to the students, whether the teacher fully explains any assignments

related to the content, and observes how the instructor makes allowances for different learning and performing styles and attention spans among the students in his/her class.

All the Class Observation Reports were recorded by the participating teachers' assistants to evaluate the performance with numbers 1 to 5 indicating their satisfaction with each phase in different TBLT-CLIL combinations. The report also reviews the entire classroom performance, including the teacher's pre-class preparation and task instruction, observes and comments on the clarity of presentation of the lesson plans, the interaction between teachers and learners, and any problems occurring in class. The statistics on the overall assessment of each phase will be detailed in the next section.

The note taking for the Class Observation Report was done during class time by the teacher assistant, and some were completed with the help of the corresponding participating teachers after class. Additionally, some video, voice calls and skype interviews, as well as email communication to all participating teachers were made to ensure the report information was as complete as possible once the Class Observation Report was received. 20 unified Class Observation Report forms were initially sent to all participating teachers for each class experiment. Of the 20 reports, 16 were sent to 8 EFL teachers, 4 were sent to 2 CFL teachers who were responsible for each two groups. Of the 20 reports, 16 were returned, 4 were completed later with the help of emails, and international text messages. Therefore, all 20 reports were considered to be legitimate for this research, resulting in a 100% response rate.

To clarify, in TBLT-CLIL combination 1, I take the topic introduction as phase 1, Content and language teaching section as phase 2, and the task completion section as phase 3. In combination 2, the material preparation is phase 1, the content and language focus is phase 2, and task introduction and completion as phase 3. The respondents were asked to rate each of these phases using a likert-type scale, where 1=unsatisfied,

2=somewhat satisfied, 3=regular, 4=satisfied, and 5=very satisfied. See Table 18 for the statistic on the Class Observation Report. The analysis and interpretation of the data will be done in the section of data analysis. See Table 26 for the average satisfaction rated by each group on different phases with different subjects.

Table 26: Statistics on Class Observation Report in TEFL Experiments

Subject	Phases	G1	G2	G3	G4	G5	G6	G7	G8	A.S.	G9	G10	G11	G12	A.S.
Music	Phase 1	4.5	4	4.4	4	4.5	4	4.5	4	4.24	-	-	-	-	
	Phase 2	3.9	4.2	4	4.5	4	4.5	4	4.3	4.18	-	-	-	-	
	Phase 3	4.5	3.5	4.5	3	4.5	3.5	4.5	3.6	3.95	-	-	-	-	
Economics	Phase 1	4.4	4	4.8	4	4.5	4	4.4	4.2	4.29	-	-	-	-	
	Phase 2	4.1	4.1	4.1	4.5	4.0	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.19	-	-	-	-	
	Phase 3	4.4	3.8	4.4	3.5	4.5	3.8	4.5	3.8	4.09	-	-	-	-	
Chinese Culture	Phase 1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		4.5	4.4	4	4	4.23
	Phase 2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		3.5	3.5	3	3.5	3.38
	Phase 3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		3.5	3	3.5	3	3.25
Teachers		1	1	2	2	3	3	4	4		5	5	6	6	
Combinations		1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2		1	2	1	2	

(Source: Guirong Chen)

8.4 Evaluation Forms and Feedback Statistics

To obtain the most complete possible information and feedback from each experiment, an evaluation form was sent to each participant, including teachers, at the conclusion of each class experiment. 340 evaluation forms in total were initially sent to both participating learners and teachers. Among them, 140 were for EFL experiments on the Music class, 140 were for EFL experiments on the Macroeconomics class, 40 were for CFL experiments on Chinese Culture, and 20 were for participating teachers.

Of the 340 evaluation forms, 330 surveys were returned. Six additional surveys were returned by email with scanned copies that were not considered usable. Of the remaining unusable surveys, 11 were either blank with a note attached explaining why the respondents were unable to complete the evaluation form; in one case the respondent created and revised categories such that the data could not be entered without serious interpretation and alteration. Therefore, 319 surveys were considered to be legitimate for this research. With 319 returned and usable surveys out of 340, the response rate was 93.82%.

According to the evaluation forms collected after each experiment, I made a statistical assessment based on the categorical and numerical variables. In addition, I divided the evaluation statistics into two parts, one for assessing the content and language focus, the other for class performance based on the designed student evaluation forms. As explained in chapter 9, the content-language section has 10 designed choice question cloze tests, including 6 questions about content, and 4 about language knowledge. Table 27 shows the accuracy rate of each participating group after their experimental classes through the corresponding evaluation forms.

Table 27: Mean Accuracy Rate of Each Group

Subject	Mean Errors/AR.	G1	G2	G3	G4	G5	G6	G7	G8	G9	G10	G11	G12
Music	E.N.	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.8	2	2.2	2.0	2.2	-	-	-	-
	A.R.%	76	75	74	72	80	78	80	78	-	-	-	-
Economics	E.N.	2.7	2.7	2.9	3	2.4	2.5	2.2	2.2	-	-	-	-
	A.R.	73	73	71	70	76	75	78	78	-	-	-	-
Chinese Culture	E.N.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.8	4	3.5	3.6
	A.R.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	62	60	65	64
Teachers		1	1	2	2	3	3	4	4	5	5	6	6
Combinations		1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2

(Source: Guirong Chen)

Based on the statistics of Table 26, the second section of the evaluation form was subdivided into content focus and language focus to obtain more detailed data. The

mean accuracy of the subject content was calculated from the total number of correct questions divided by the total questions related to content. For example, in EFL group one with 10 participants on the subject of Music, the total content test questions were: 6 plus 10 participants, the correct answers on subject were 46, therefore the mean content accuracy was 76.67%. For the rest of the groups, accuracy was calculated using the same calculation formula²⁵. If we label the total number of evaluation questions N, with N1 for group 1, N2 for group 2, N3 for group etc., the base number of each group should be representable in the following table.

Table 28: Total Evaluation Question Numbers of Content and Language of EFL Groups²⁶

Groups	TNC	TRAC	MCA %	TNL	TRAL	MLA%	Subject	Combination
1	60	46	76.67	40	30	75	Music	1
	60	45	75	40	28	70	Economics	
2	120	94	78.33	80	56	70	Music	2
	120	92	76.67	80	54	67.5	Economics	
3	120	96	80	80	56	70	Music	1
	120	90	75	80	52	65	Economics	
4	120	92	76.67	80	52	65	Music	2
	120	88	73.33	80	52	65	Economics	
5	120	98	81.67	80	62	77.5	Music	1
	120	94	78.33	80	58	72.5	Economics	
6	120	96	80	80	60	75	Music	2
	120	92	76.67	80	58	72.5	Economics	
7	120	100	83.33	80	60	75	Music	1
	120	96	80	80	60	75	Economics	
8	120	98	81.67	80	58	72.5	Music	2
	120	96	80	80	60	75	Economics	
9	60	40	66.67	40	22	55	CN Culture	1
10	48	30	63.33	32	18	56.25	CN Culture	1
11	60	40	66.67	40	25	62.5	CN Culture	2
12	72	47	65	48	30	62.5	CN Culture	2

(Source: Guirong Chen)

The intention of the third section was to obtain information on the participants' overall assessment of the class. The data obtained from this section were used to

²⁵ The calculation formula for the accuracy rate in this table both on content focus and language focus is:

Divide the accurate answers by the total number of the questions.

²⁶ TNC= Total Number of Content Questions; TRAC=Total Right Answers of Content Questions;

MCA= Mean Content Accuracy; TNL= Total Number of Language Questions; TRAL= Total Right

Answers of Language Questions; MLA=Mean Language Accuracy.

compare the performance of the proposed TBLT-CLIL combinations. In order to facilitate the comparison of the four language skills performed in class, the language skills' statistics from the questionnaire in the previous section were included into the following table. Table 29 not only indicates the anticipated improvement in language skills before the experiments, but also the language skills that were shown to have been practiced more after the class experiments. In addition, the respondents were asked to evaluate the overall assessment of the whole class performance using a likert-type scale, wherein, 1=insufficient, 2=somewhat sufficient, 3=regular, 4=good, and 5=excellent. Since written Chinese was excluded in this study, unlike the experiments involving EFL participants, there is no writing skill displayed in groups 9, 10, 11, or 12.

Table 29: Overall Assessment of Experiments and Language Skills

Language Skills		G1	G2	G3	G4	G5	G6	G7	G8	G9	G10	G11	G12
Speaking	Before	90	90	90	95	90	90	100	100	100	100	100	100
	After	100	95	95	90	95	95	90	85	100	100	100	100
Listening	Before	90	80	85	90	85	80	80	85	90	87.5	90	91.67
	After	90	80	90	90	90	85	85	90	80	87.5	90	83.33
Reading	Before	60	60	60	60	60	60	65	60	50	62.5	60	75
	After	30	50	35	50	30	50	45	50	60	75	70	75
Writing	Before	60	60	55	55	55	60	60	50	-	-	-	-
	After	30	40	40	50	30	40	40	30	-	-	-	-
Mean Assessment		4.35	4.2	4.25	4.15	4.35	4.15	4.4	4.15	3.8	3.8	3.6	3.8
Combinations		1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2

(Source: Guirong Chen)

In addition to the language skill aspects, the following table was created to show the participants' acceptance of and attitude toward each part of the combined teaching method. As discussed earlier, each TBLT-CLIL Combination was divided into three principal phases, but in this section, for greater clarification, TBLT-CLIL combinations

are divided into four aspects: Topic Introduction, Content Teaching, Language Focus, and Task Completion. The evaluation forms asked participants to select the aspect which they liked best, and also the part which most motivated them. In order to remove the effect of subject content on the results, Table 30 below was created to show each group's overall assessment of each class performance on each subject with numbers 1 to 5 to indicate participant's satisfaction as explained above.

Table 30: Participant Satisfaction with Each Combination Aspect

Satisfaction Rate	G1	G2	G3	G4	G5	G6	G7	G8	G9	G10	G11	G12	Subject
Topic Introduction	90	80	95	90	90	85	90	85	100	87.5	90	91.7	
Content Teaching	80	90	80	80	75	85	85	85	90	87.5	80	83.3	
Language Focus	80	80	80	85	85	80	80	85	80	87.5	70	83.3	
Task Completion	80	80	80	75	65	65	80	65	50	75	60	58.3	
Mean Assessment	4.2	4	4	4	4.2	4	4.2	4.1	-	-	-	-	Music
	4.5	4.4	4.5	4.3	4.5	4.3	4.6	4.2	-	-	-	-	Economics
	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.8	3.8	3.6	3.8	CN Culture
Combinations	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	

(Source: Guirong Chen)

In addition to the above statistics, the participating teachers' evaluations of each class were charted in order to observe the effectiveness of the project from an alternate angle. Since the teacher evaluation forms mainly concentrated on the teaching method itself, and how the proposed TBLT-CLIL combinations perform in class compared with their previous teaching methods, data collection of this part also mainly concerns the comparison of each phase's performance and the overall assessment of each class. Table 32 below shows, under the rubrics 'positive', 'neutral' or 'negative', satisfaction, partial satisfaction or dissatisfaction:

Table 31: Teacher Evaluation of Experiments ²⁷

Tea.	Com.	Topic Intro.	C. Tea.	FL. Focus	Task Comp.	Speaking	Listening	Reading	Writing
Tea. 1		+	+	+	+	+	+	0	0
Tea. 2		+	+	0	0	+	+	0	-
Tea. 3	1	+	+	0	0	+	+	0	-
Tea. 4		+	+	+	0	+	+	0	-
Tea. 5		+	+	-	-	+	0	-	×
Tea. 6		+	+	-	-	+	0	-	×
Tea. 1		0	+	+	+	+	+	0	0
Tea. 2		0	0	0	0	+	+	0	-
Tea. 3	2	0	0	0	0	+	+	0	-
Tea. 4		0	+	+	0	+	+	0	-
Tea. 5		0	+	0	-	+	+	0	×
Tea. 6		0	+	0	-	+	+	0	×

(Source: Guirong Chen)

8.5 Statistics of Tasks and Comments

Apart from the statistics indicating the demographic details of participants, and revealing the results of the class observation and satisfaction report, I also produced statistics on the tasks completed in each class experiment as well as the comments from participating teachers and students as a supplemental data for better data analysis. Among them, some comments and suggestions were collected from the last question of the third part of the Evaluation Forms both for students and teachers, some were gathered through emails, communicative applications such as Wechat, Facebook and WhatsApp, as well as voice/videos calls.

Based on the views collected from the participants in the first pair of groups, most interviewed students responded that they had enough time for preparing the tasks as well as for completing the tasks and that they had been guided by the FL teachers during the process of task completion. However, two students in group one with Chinese as a mother language found the given time for task preparation to be

²⁷ “+”=positive, “-”=negative, “0”=neutral, “×”=excluded.

insufficient. In the EFL groups which were studying in Chinese universities, more than half of the participants proposed to prolong the preparation phase in order to comprehend the task and content better before task completion. They also mentioned that if the class size had been smaller, they would have had more time for the task. They also requested an electronic dictionary as a tool to save preparation time. In CFL groups, more problems arose since they had a very limited Chinese level to express their true ideas. Most CFL students commented that it was more motivating to work together to complete the required tasks but finding a suitable expression or vocabulary in the dictionary was really time-consuming in a time-limited phase. Sometimes, they were not confident about their expression, and would translate literally from their mother language to Chinese which led to a failure to express meaning. Moreover, they realized that they relied a lot on the dictionary and FL teachers to complete the task.

Apart from these students' comments, the participating teachers also gave many suggestions and comments from a different perspective. Teacher 1 who was responsible for the first pair of groups in USA regarded the preparation of the subject content as more time-consuming compared with her previous class preparation since she is an English teacher but not a subject teacher. She found that if the students did not relate their language structures well to the subject, they sometimes failed in expressing their ideas fluently during task completion, since they were trying to grasp the new terms or vocabulary they had just learned from the content but not their own language. Teacher 2, who was responsible for the second pair of groups in China, a subject teacher, responded that the preparation of the target language cost more than the content preparation, and he tended to presuppose that his students had mastered the linguistic requirements related to the subject, and therefore he did not know how to prepare the language part though the lesson plans were provided. Teacher 4 had a similar problem

when planning his syllabuses. Teacher 3, who was responsible for groups 5 and 6, suggested that the teaching of content and language in an integrated way together with tasks was possible through her class experiments, though many adaptations were still necessary such as offering more opportunities to work with different curriculum subjects like history, computer studies, literature, art etc. Teachers 5 and 6 had a similar problem when they assigned their tasks to their CFL initial learners since the Chinese character meaning varies with different word combinations, and their students focused too much on the meaning of each word than a whole sentence during their task preparation and completion. Both subject and language teachers proposed greater collaboration between language and subject departments in order to improve this situation. (See Tables 32 and 33 for the summary of participants' comments and suggestions).²⁸

Table 32: Summary of Participants' Comments

Participants	Comments
Students from G. 1/2	Insufficient time for task preparation
Students from G. 3/4/5/6/7/8	Insufficient time for task preparation and completion
	Class size was too big for task completion
	Tools were required for comprehension
Students from G. 9/10/11/12	time-consuming during task preparation
	Could not convey their true ideas during task completion
	rely too much on dictionary and teachers
	not confident enough
Teacher 1	more time-consuming in class preparation, not familiar with subject content

²⁸ Some original comments and suggestions were written in Chinese but translated by the author into English, some were interviewed through a voice call, and recorded by the author in English; some were required to supplement their comments, opinions and suggestions through emails and communicative applications.

Teacher 2	Could not balance the preparations of language , content and tasks
Teacher 3	need more adaptations and more curriculum subjects
Teacher 4	Could not balance the preparations of language , content and tasks
Teacher 5 /6	Students rely too much on them
	Time-consuming for class preparation
	Difficulty in task completions

(Source: Guirong Chen)

Table 33: Summary of Participants' Suggestions

Participants	Suggestions
Students from G. 1/2	to prolong the task preparation time; to be given instant feedback
Students from G. 3/4/5/6/7/8	to prolong the time both for task preparation and completion
	reduce the class size
	More tools should be allowed in task completion
Students from G. 9/10/11/12	should introduce easier topics and easier tasks
	particular vocabulary, grammar in the content should be explicitly taught and learned in previous lessons.
	more tools should be allowed in task completion
	grammar and pronunciation assistance, as well as more task examples should be given during task preparation
Teacher 1	students should be encouraged to create their own questions about the subject content which could be answered by other groups
Teacher 2	to prolong time for the explanation of particular vocabulary, grammar, content
Teacher 3	more adaptations and more curriculum subjects; new computer programs should be introduced in class
Teacher 4	more preparation time and tools such as internet should be given during class
Teacher 5 /6	Be sure that the content is at a level of vocabulary and grammar that is comprehensible to students.
	Find more interesting topics and content to trigger learners' natural spirit of curiosity.

(Source: Guirong Chen)

9. Data Analysis and Findings

This section analyzes and interprets the data collected and processed in order to prove the hypotheses formulated in chapter 6. Statistical tables and figures have been used to formulate and test these hypotheses in the data collection section. The study used two analyses to investigate the two TBLT-CLIL combinations: (1) whether they motivated FL learners more in class; (2) which combination works better in TEFL and TCFL, (3) which combination is more likely to promote the practice of the different language skills, and (4) whether, as hypothesized, different results are obtained after comparison of the EFL and CFL experiment data. The first analysis was a statistical and quantitative analysis of learners' expectations before the experiments, their behavior during the experiments, and their evaluation and feedbacks after the experiments based on the data collected from questionnaires and evaluation forms. The second analysis used qualitative analysis to complete data interpretation of a) the performance of the two different TBLT-CLIL combinations in EFL and CFL classrooms, and b) the difference between EFL and CFL experiments based on the data obtained from classroom observation and evaluation forms.

Regarding the selection of the information for comparisons, Hintze (2000) has argued that researchers should choose the number after which the objective function seems to cease a rapid rate of decrease (p. 247). Upon consideration of the hypothesis associated with the two different combinations, and the target foreign languages taught, two categories emerged: one, comparison of the results between Combinations 1 and 2 (TBLT-CLIL Combination category); the other, comparison of the results of the EFL and CFL experiments (TEFL-TCFL category). In addition, all the data were analyzed from two further perspectives: the results obtained in the language skills, and the performance of each phase of the combinations of these teaching methods.

These objectives were accomplished. The findings presented in this chapter demonstrate the potential for merging different foreign language teaching methods into practice.

9.1 Analysis of Variables of Participants

In Richard Johnstone's paper "*Addressing 'The Age Factor': Some Implications for Languages Policy*" he states that young learners are better at acquiring a foreign language than older learners. It is a common belief among teachers, policy makers, and researchers that "the second language acquisition performance is due to an age-related change in neural plasticity" (Pallier et al., 2003, p. 6). Therefore, in order to avoid the influence of unnecessary factors such as age, gender, target language level on the results, I determined whether there were major differences in each pair of participating groups in TBLT-CLIL combination category.

According to the participants' backgrounds shown in Appendix XV, the ratio of male EFL participants to female participants is nearly 1:1 in every pair of EFL groups; there is a gender imbalance ratio of all CFL participants, females to males of 1:3, but the ratio in every pair of CFL groups is also similar. The average age of all EFL participants is around 20.5 years, since they are all full-time undergraduate students, and the average age of CFL participants in the experiment is around 15.5 since most of them are full-time students of senior high schools. In order to minimize the impact of age, gender, and language level on the experiment results, one figure and one table were established below with the participants' information obtained from the questionnaires: Chart 11 shows the gender ratio in each participating group.

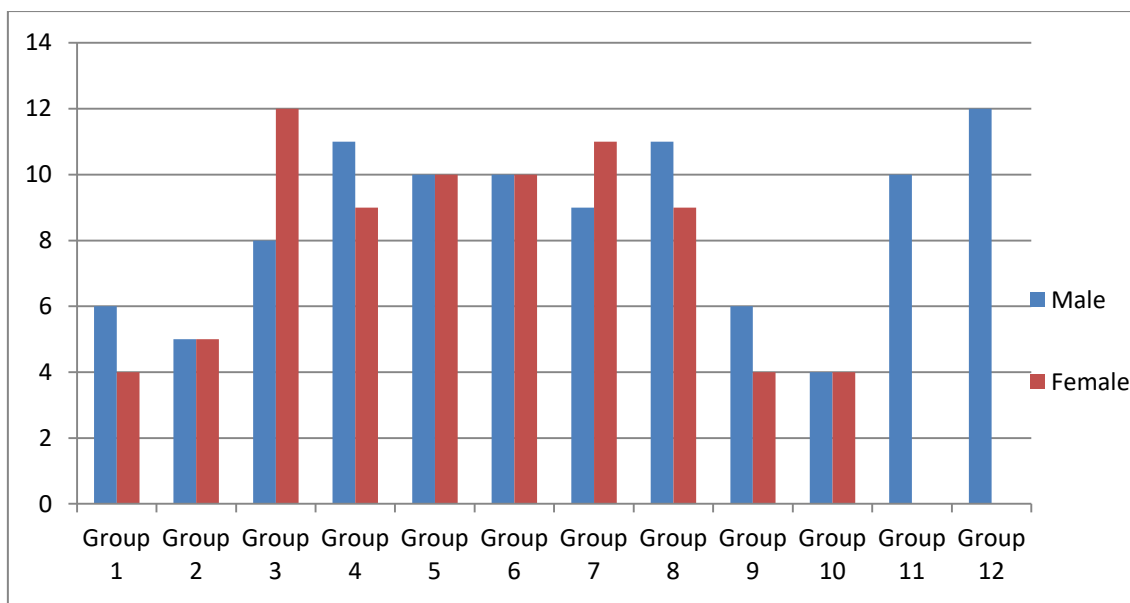


Chart 11. Gender Ratio in Each Participating Groups. (Source: Guirong Chen)

Chart 11 indicates that there are no major differences among the pairs of EFL/CFL groups. Therefore, the influence of gender should not be considered in the data analysis. See Table 34 for the different factors of age, target language level, participant numbers/percentage in each pair of group.

Table 34: Average Age and Language Level in EFL participants

	EFL Groups								CFL Groups			
Characters	G1	G2	G3	G4	G5	G6	G7	G8	G9	G10	G11	G12
No. of TP	10	10	20	20	20	20	20	20	10	8	10	12
% of	7.14	7.14	14.3	14.3	14.3	14.3	14.3	14.3	25	20	25	30
A. Age	19.7	19.5	19.3	19.4	20	20.4	19.7	20	15.4	15.3	15.4	15.3
TL Level	B2	B2	B2	B2	B2-C1	B2-C1	B2	B2	A2	A2	A2-B1	A2-B1
Combination	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2

(Source: Guirong Chen)

The information provided in Table 34 shows that for the TBLT-CLIL combination category, no significant differences of age, gender, language level, participant number were found. While in the TEFL-TCFL category, the EFL sampling size, which is 3.5 times greater than the CFL, all EFL participants are 4.5 years older than CFL learners, and EFL learners have a higher level of the target foreign language

than CFL learners. In addition, some differences exist between gender ratio, and subject content and teaching materials though the procedures of each TBLT-CLIL experiment are the same. However, the influence of age, gender, target foreign language level as foreign language acquisition factors will not be discussed in this research.

9.2. Analysis of Language Skills' Performance

Speaking and listening skills are considered as crucial communicative language skills in all foreign language learning. According to statistics derived from the students' questionnaire in Table 31, using the weighted arithmetic average method²⁹, a comparative statistics of skill expectation and skill into practice was created, as given below.

Table 35: Comparative Statistics of Skill Expectation and Skill into Practice

Language Skills	Combination	EFL		CFL	
		Expectation	Practice	Expectation	Practice
Speaking	Combination1	92.82%	94.96%	100%	100%
	Combination2	90.25%	92.54%	100%	100%
Listening	Combination1	84.25%	88.54%	85.00%	88.0%
	Combination2	84.28%	87.11%	90.0%	87.00%
Reading	Combination1	61.34%	38.70%	55.00%	65.00%
	Combination2	59.98%	50.00%	60.00%	75.00%
Writing	Combination1	57.12%	35.70%	-	-
	Combination2	55.69%	39.99%	-	-

(Source: Guirong Chen)

²⁹ The weighted arithmetic mean is similar to an ordinary arithmetic mean, except that instead of each of the data points contributing equally to the final average, some data points contribute more than others. The notion of weighted mean plays a role in descriptive statistics and also occurs in a more general form

in several other areas of mathematics.
$$X = \frac{W1\%X1+W2\%X2+\dots+Wn\%Xn}{W1\%+W2\%+\dots+Wn\%}$$

As can be seen from the table above, there are no statistically significant differences in the expectations related to improved language skills before the experiments between each pair of participants. The weighted arithmetic method used mean percentage to interpret the comparison: 91.53% of EFL learners and 100% of CFL learners hoped to improve their speaking language skills; 84.25% of EFL learners and 87.5% of CFL learners hoped to improve their listening skills before the experiments. With regard to reading skills, 60.66% of EFL learners and 57.5% CFL learners hoped to see future improvement. Moreover, 56.40% of EFL learners expected to improve their writing skill in the future, though this aspect was excluded from CFL experiments.

To determine if any significant difference existed between the results of EFL and CFL groups in different TBLT-CLIL combination experiments, the statistics were reclassified to make a comparison based on Table 35. The 1st TBLT-CLIL combination experiments were conducted on the odd-numbered groups 1, 3, 5, and 7 of EFL learners on the subjects Music and Economics; groups 9 and 11 of CFL learners on subject Chinese Culture. Using the weighted arithmetic method based on the statistics in Table 35, we can see that 94.96% of EFL participants perceived a greater than expected increase in their speaking skills practice, with a slight increase of 2.14% compared with their expectation rate before the experiments; 88.54% of EFL learners perceived a similar improvement in their listening skill in these class experiments compared with their previous classes, with a slight increase of 4.29% compared with their expectations prior to participating in the experiment. With regard to reading and writing skills, only 38.70% and 35.70%, respectively, of students thought their skills had been sufficiently demonstrated in class, with a 22.64% and 21.42% sudden decrease compared with their expectation rate, an unanticipated result. Combining the information obtained from the

feedbacks in the evaluation forms after the class experiments, this might be influenced by limited class time, subject content and class size.

An analysis of the data collected from CFL participants that comprised 40 students from two different proficiency levels (see more details in Appendix XV) shows an interesting phenomenon. All participants perceived an increase in exposure time to the speaking skills, resulting in 100% satisfaction rate as they expected. As for the listening skills, 88% of CFL learners were satisfied, with a slight increase of 3% compared with their expectation. As for the reading skills, unlike the EFL learners, 65% of CFL participants had met their expectations in Experiment 1, with a 10% sudden increase compared with their expectations. See Chart 12 for the Comparisons of the satisfaction rate on different language skills on the TEFL-TCFL category in the first Experiment.

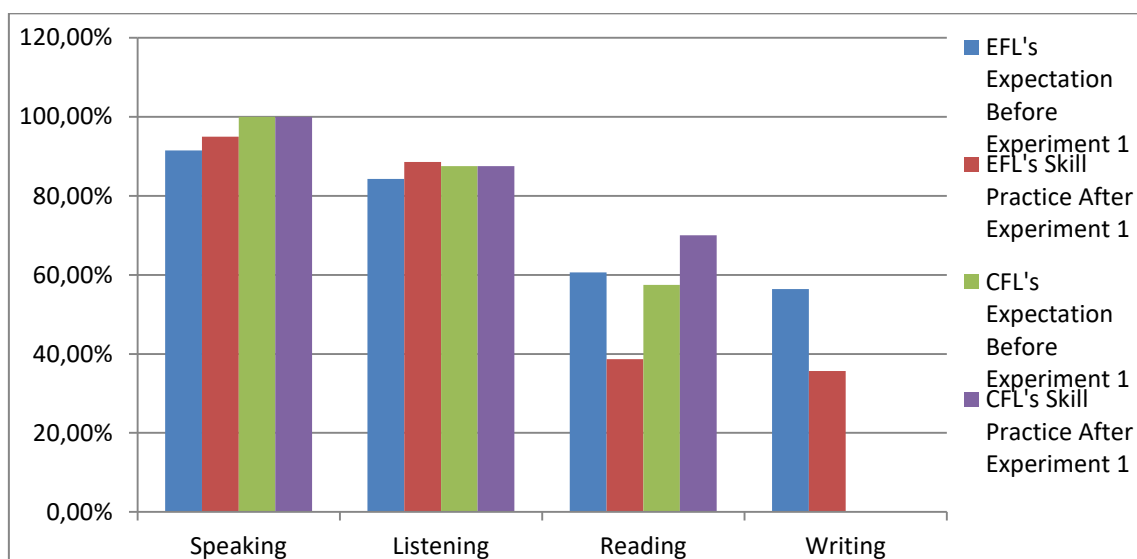


Chart 12. Comparison of Expectation and Practice of L. Skills in Experiment 1. (Source: Guirong Chen)

The 2nd TBLT-CLIL combination experiments were conducted on even groups 2, 4, 6, and 8 of EFL learners in the subjects of Music and Economics; and groups 10 and 12 of CFL learners in the Chinese Culture subject. Using the same ensemble average

algorithm method based on the statistics in Table 35, 92.54% of EFL learners rated their speaking practice as more effective in class compared with their previous experience, with a slight increase of 2.29%; 87.11% of EFL students considered their listening skill to have been sufficiently practiced in class, a slight increase of 2.83% compared with their expectation rate; while 50% of the students complained that they had had less reading skills exposure in class compared with their previous class, a 10% decrease compared with their expectation. As for the writing skill, while it appeared to have a very similar low percentage to Experiment 1, 39.99%, a greater decrease rate, 15.70%, was found.

Interestingly, similar results were found in CFL performance in Experiment 1, where 100% CFL learners felt that their speaking skill had had greater exposure in Experiment 2. However, only 87% of the CFL learners thought that they had practiced their listening skill more than expected, a 3% unexpected decrease was found compared with their expectation. With respect to the reading skill, a higher percentage increase was found, 60% to 75%. See Chart 13 for comparisons of the TEFL-TCFL category in Experiment 2.

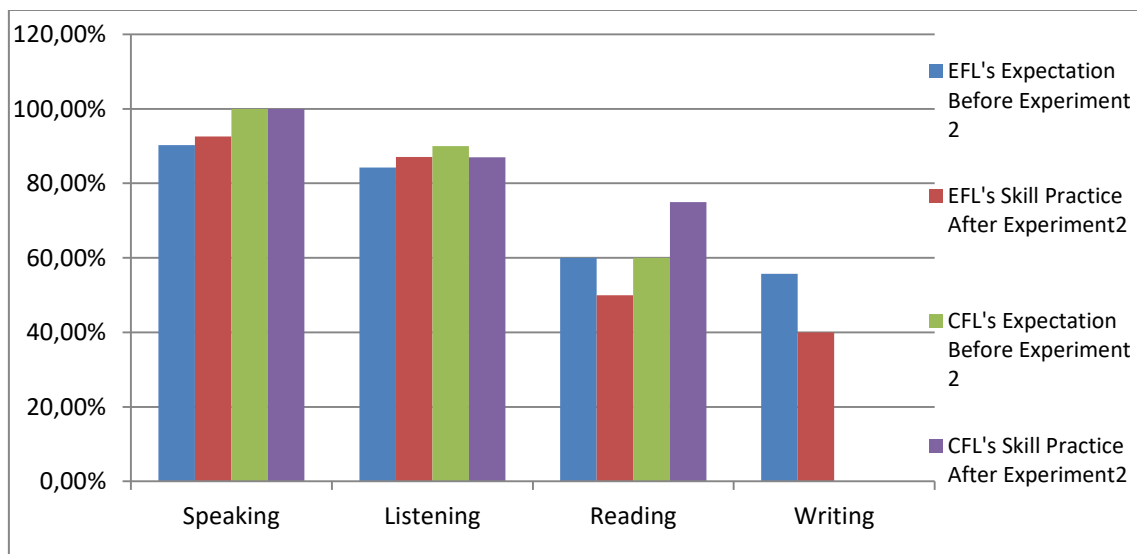


Chart 13. Comparison of Expectation and Practice of L. Skills in Experiment 2. (Source: Guirong Chen)

Together with the information displayed in Tables 29 and 35, two TBLT-CLIL combinations have met both EFL and CFL learners' expectation to increase their time exposure to the target language and the practice of their speaking skills. A very similar result was found concerning the listening skill except for a slight decrease seen in the CFL group in Experiment 2. On the contrary, EFL learners considered that they had not practiced their reading and writing skills enough in both TBLT-CLIL class experiments; while a totally opposite result was found in CFL groups, where a high increase in both experiments was maintained regarding the time devoted to reading in both experiments.

Since the writing skill was excluded in this study, it was necessary to separate the results of EFL-CFL for comparison in the TBLT-CLIL combination category. Chart 14 shows the results of comparisons made related to EFL groups with the two different teaching combinations.

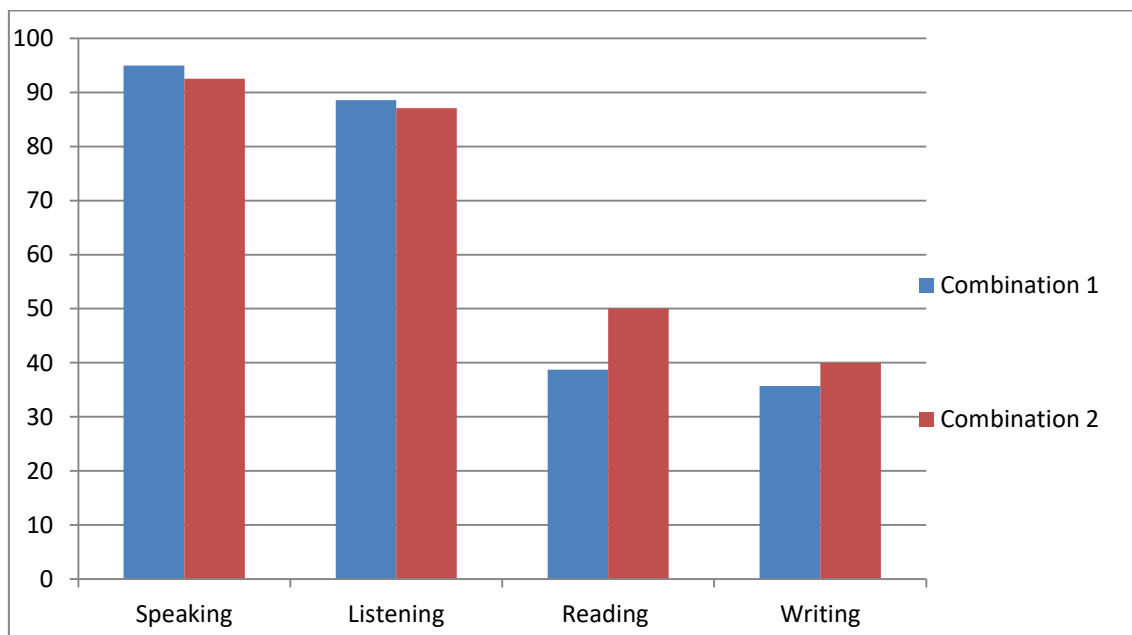


Chart 14. Comparison of the EFL Results on Four Language Skills in Experiment 1 and Experiment 2 (Source: Guirong Chen)

The information provided in Chart 14 demonstrates graphically that a slightly higher percentage of EFL participants in Experiment 1 reported their speaking and

listening skills expectations to have been met than in Experiment 2. With regard to the reading and writing skills, a contrary result was found, a higher percentage was observed in Experiment 2 than in Experiment 1. Together with the information provided by Charts 12 and 13, a higher satisfaction rate regarding the listening skills was found in EFL groups than CFL groups in experiment 1. At the same time, a better performance was found in the reading skills of EFL groups in Experiment 2 which was out of expectation. On the contrary, a worse performance of CFL groups was found in experiment 2 compared with their expectation.

A comparison of the results of CFL experiments on the three language skills is shown in Chart 15.

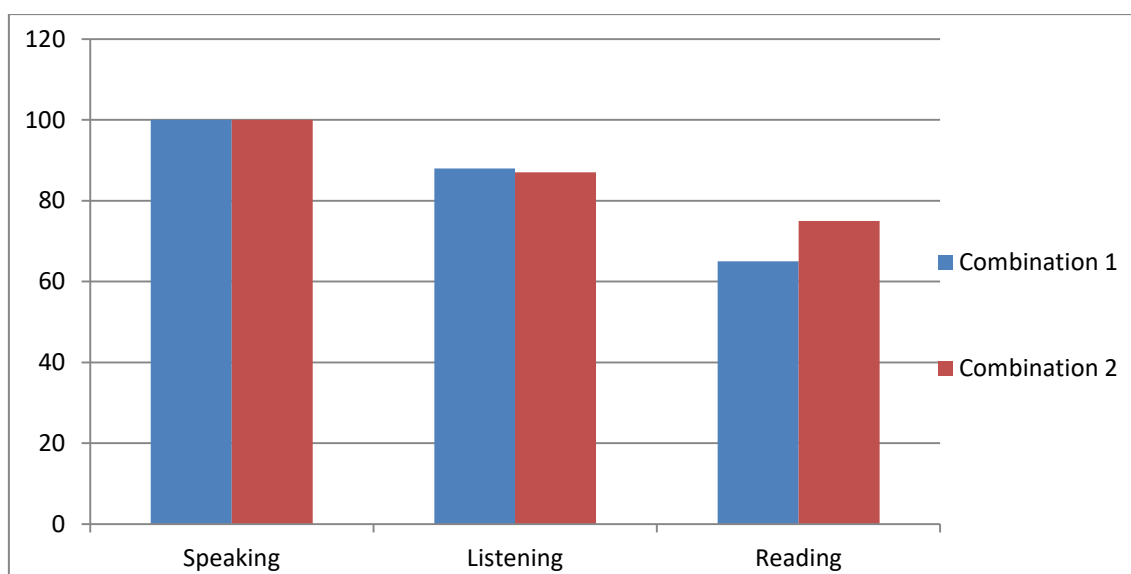


Chart 15. Comparison of the CFL Results on the Three Language Skills in Experiments 1 and 2.
(Source: Guirong Chen)

As can be seen from the figure above, students' expectations to improve their speaking language skills were 100% satisfied in CFL groups. With regard to listening skills, a slight higher percentage was observed in Experiment 1 than in Experiment 2. On the contrary, a greater satisfaction was found in Experiment 2 with respect to the practice of reading skills than in Experiment 1.

Though the results show that students' speaking and listening skills had received greater exposure in all EFL and CFL class experiments, it is not easy to conclude that participants' speaking and listening has improved with the use a combination of TBLT and CLIL teaching methods. However, it is anticipated that FL learners will manage their language skills better through the combination of both methods in the long term. The results are very positive since students' perceptions are crucial for motivation and engagement in tasks. When students perceive that they are more exposed to the target language and that they have been practicing their speaking and listening skills, they become more self-confident when they have to practice those skills.

When comparing the groups of TEFL and TCFL students in Charts 14 and 15, there are three noteworthy aspects. First, the writing skill was excluded in CFL experiments, so it is not possible to know which group works better in this category. Second, there are some significant differences of sampling size, age, gender and language level in this category as explained in the section 9.1, which may lead results to differ from expectation. Third, as would be expected, the subject content may affect FL learners' interest in different phases of TBLT-CLIL combinations since they were conducted in different subjects which need more research in the future to help explain and analyze.

9.3 Analysis of Student Satisfaction with TBLT-CLIL Combinations

After reclassifying the data gathered in Table 31, and using the weighted arithmetic average method, it can be observed that in the 1st combination experiments, 92.5% participants felt more motivated when the topic was introduced as warm-up activities, with the highest percentage of satisfaction compared with the remaining three

stages of the lesson. When comparing the satisfaction rate between content teaching and language focus, a very slightly higher rate was found in content teaching (81.67%) than in language knowledge focus in EFL (79.16%). These results coincide with the accuracy rate obtained in Table 29. With respect to the task completion after the content and language dual focus was implemented, satisfaction rate was observed to be up to 69.16%, a lower percentage than in content teaching, which was beyond my expectation. The satisfaction rate of task completion was expected to be higher than content-language teaching.

In the 2nd combination experiments, using the same calculation method as in Experiment 1, a similar result to the 1st combination experiment was observed: a higher preference rate, 86.52%, was shown in the topic introduction stage, but the task completion stage showed a 69.72% satisfaction rate, which was below expectations. Content teaching had a 85.13% satisfaction rate, and language focus 83.47%. With regard to the content and language knowledge dual teaching, no significant differences were observed in Experiment 2.

Chart 16 shows the comparison of results between the four stages of TBLT-CLIL category.

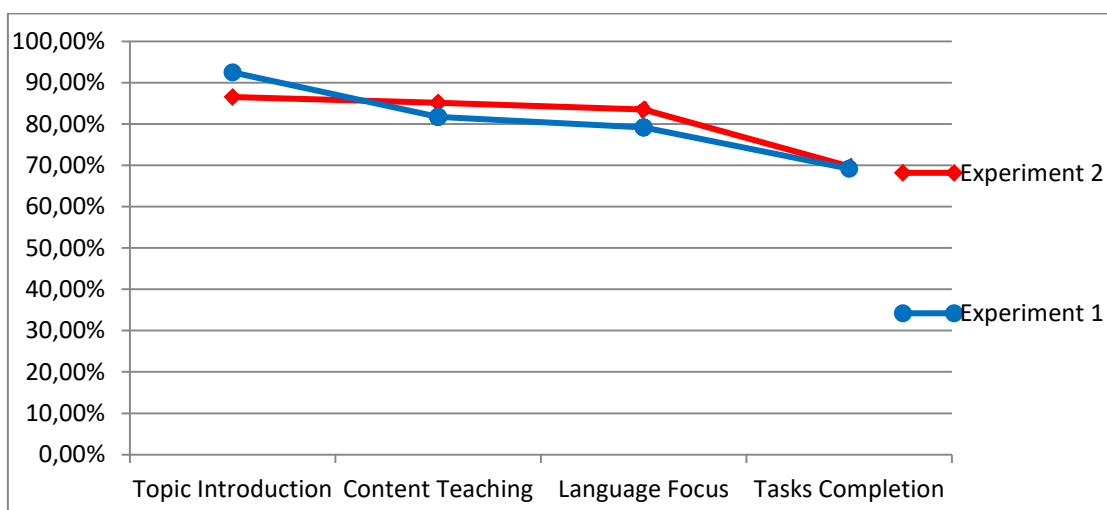


Chart 16. Comparison of Results of TBLT-CLIL Category. (Source: Original)

Three fundamental points are worth noticing in Chart 16. First, as would be expected, a higher satisfaction rate on the stage of Topic Introduction was found in Experiment 1 than in Experiment 2, where a warm-up activity was conducted before content and language dual teaching to activate students' previous knowledge. Second, a very similar preference rate was observed with regard to content and language dual focus in both Experiments. Third, the rate of satisfaction in the task completion stage was slightly higher in Experiment 1 than in Experiment 2, though it ranked last in both experiments compared with the remaining three phases.

In analyzing the TEFL-TCFL category the weighted arithmetic average method was also used, based on a review of the statistics shown in Table 30. To clarify the data a table of weighted average satisfaction percentage is given below.

Table 36: Weighted Average Satisfaction Percentage of EFL and CFL Groups

T.M.Aspects	Combinations	EFL Groups	CFL Groups
Topic Introduction	Combination1	85.71%	89.59%
	Combination2	91.43%	94.00%
	W.A.	88.57%	91.80%
Content Teaching	Combination1	84.28%	85.42%
	Combination2	80.00%	84.00%
	W.A.	82.14%	84.70%
Language Focus	Combination1	82.85%	85.42%
	Combination2	81.43%	74.00%
	W.A.	82.14%	79.71%
Task Completion	Combination1	70.00%	66.67%
	Combination2	75.71%	56.00%
	W.A.	72.86%	61.33%

(Source: Guirong Chen)

This figure should be read in relation to Chart 17.

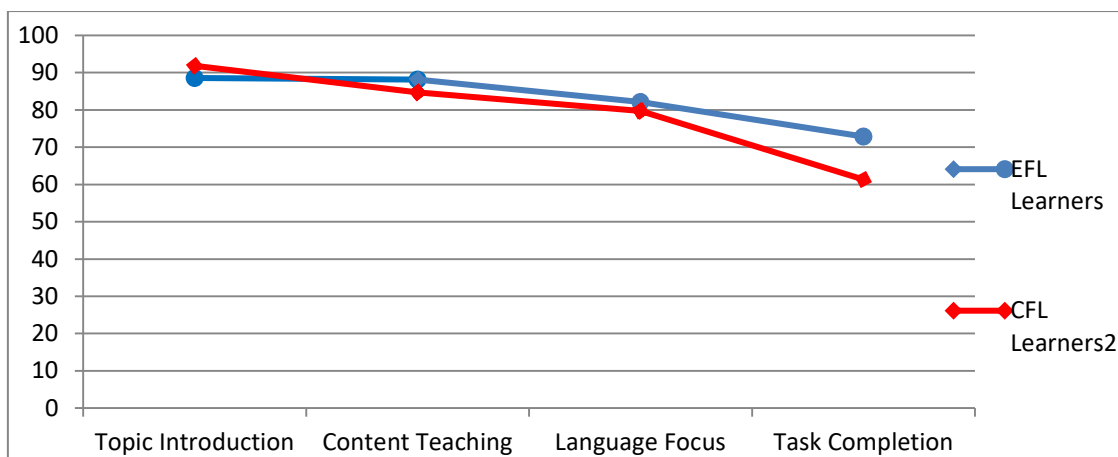


Chart 17. Comparison of EFL-CFL Category in the Results of the Fours Aspects. (Source: Guirong Chen)

Chart 17 reveals an unexpected higher satisfaction rate among CFL learners than among EFL learners in the stage of topic introduction, though in the content and language dual teaching and learning stages, no significant difference was observed between CFL and EFL students. With respect to the task completion stage, it was interesting to find that EFL learners showed a higher preference than CFL learners: 72.86% versus 61.33%, a result that coincides with the accuracy rate obtained in Table 29. The low satisfaction rate of CFL groups regarding the task completion stage may have been due to the fact that most of the CFL participants have a very limited spoken Chinese language level, which limits their ability to express their ideas fluently, though dictionaries and other tools were allowed in class. However, although the language level and subject factor may have an impact on the effectiveness of the teaching method, this variable was not investigated in the present study.

9.4. Supplemental Interpretation of Results

In order to evaluate the effectiveness of the different combinations of these teaching methods from a different angle, the data obtained from the Class Observation

Report was added to the data set gathered from the participating teachers' evaluation forms. The following section of data interpretation is based on the information obtained from Class Observation Reports and Teachers' Evaluation Forms.

After reclassifying the statistics provided in Figures 17 and 18, the assessment of each phase of the TBLT-CLIL combinations is as follows: in Experiment 1, Phases 1, 2 and 3 represent 'topic introduction', 'content and language teaching', and 'tasks' respectively; in Experiment 2, Phases 1, 2 and 3 represent 'material preparation', 'content and language teaching' and 'topic introduction and tasks', respectively. Tables 22 and 23 provide an assessment of the overall performance on the four language skills and four aspects of the teaching method: Speaking, Listening, Reading, Writing, Topic Introduction, Content Teaching, Language Focus and Task Completion. Two categories of variables were established as in previous sections: TEFL-TCFL and TBLT-CLIL. Each category was sorted into two spheres: one focused on the language skills, the other on the combination of the different stages of the lesson.

In the TBLT-CLIL category, Table 36 shows the mean score of the satisfaction of each group of students which collected data both from students' evaluation forms (data based on Table 26) and the Class Observation Report that was completed by the participated teachers or their assistants (data based on Table 27). The options available on the Class Observation Report and Evaluation Forms were 1= unsatisfied, 2 = partly satisfied, 3 = regular, 4 = satisfied, and 5 = very satisfied. For ease of interpretation, using the weighted mean method, the data of Table 26 were reclassified and the mean score of the overall assessment on each phase was grouped into two categories according to the three different subjects as shown in Table 37 below.

Table 37: Mean Score of Overall Assessment on Combinations' Each Phase

Subject	Group	Phases	Mean Score in Experi. 1	Mean Score in Experi. 2
Music	EFL	Phase 1	4.18	4.00
		Phase 2	4.09	3.85
		Phase 3	4.01	3.79
Economics	EFL	Phase 1	4.17	4.12
		Phase 2	3.95	3.88
		Phase 3	3.9	3.83
Chinese Culture	CFL	Phase 1	4.45	4.16
		Phase 2	3.45	3.5
		Phase 3	3.5	3.25

(Source: Guirong Chen)

An inspection of the mean score on the three topics used reveals that phases 1, 2, and 3 in Experiment 1 obtained mean scores of 4.175, 3.735, and 3.727 respectively; while in Experiment 2, the mean scores of phase 1, 2, and 3 were 4.11, 3.683 and 3.53 respectively. Compared to the mean scores of different phases in Experiment 1, the participant teachers and their assistants each rated the performance of Experiment 2 marginally lower after they did the experiments in every two similar groups. In addition, they assigned the highest rating to phase 1 in both Experiments, and the lowest rating to phase 3. That is, in phase 1, the participating teachers were satisfied or very satisfied in both Experiments; in phases 2 and 3, their rating was between regular and satisfied. Apart from this, the differences found between the phase means in Experiment 2 were more significant than in Experiment 1. Therefore, the performance of TBLT-CLIL combinations was generally considered better in Experiment 1 than in Experiment 2. These evaluations appear in a comparative chart below.

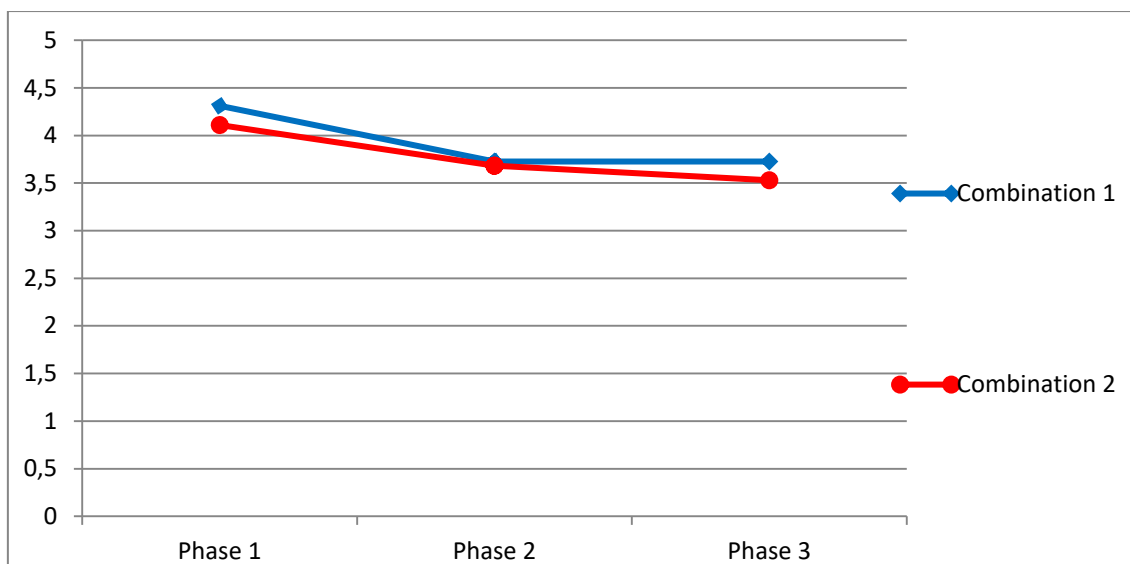


Chart 18. Comparison of Performance on TBLT-CLIL Combinations. (Source: Guirong Chen)

The language skills assessments completed by the six participating teachers through their evaluation forms and feedbacks were further reclassified and reviewed. It was particularly interesting to find that all participating teachers rated their satisfaction with the practice of the speaking skills very favorably. These skills received more attention and focus in topic introduction and tasks completion phases. With regard to listening and reading skills, which received more emphasis during the content and language dual teaching phases, five participating teachers considered that they had devoted the same time to teaching those skills than when they used traditional teaching methods. As for the writing skill, all of them considered they had devoted less time to it in class, and suggested that this would be improved by assigning tasks after class as homework.

To determine if any significant difference existed between the results obtained after implementing these combinations in TEFL and TCFL, a comparison of the TEFL-TCFL category was made after the analysis on the TBLT-CLIL combination category. Unlike in the case of the TBLT-CLIL category, the writing skill was excluded from comparison in this section since it was not designed in the TCFL experiments. The

review of the data obtained in Table 31 shows that the teachers' expectations regarding the speaking skill were satisfied in both experiments. However, after comparing the data about listening, it is insightful that all EFL teachers gave a higher rate to listening than CFL teachers, half of whom reported that the practice of this skill with this methodology had met their expectation. As for the reading skills, 100% of the EFL teachers considered that their expectations had been partly satisfied, while only 50% of the CFL teachers considered the practice of reading to be partly satisfied.

For comparison of performance in EFL and CFL groups, Phase 2 was divided into content teaching and language focus. The comparative chart below is based on the data collected in Table 30 and the reclassified statistics in Table 31.

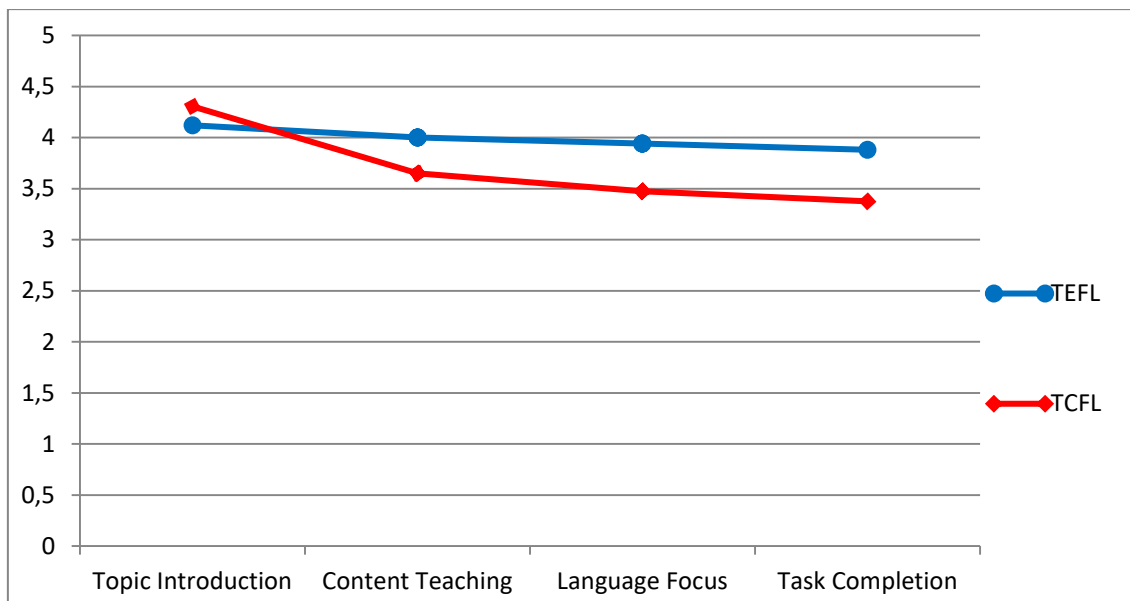


Chart 19. Comparison of Results Analysis TEFL-TCFL Category after Reclassification. (Source: Guirong Chen)

With the aid of Figure 22, it can be observed that the mean score obtained in the Content Teaching, Language Focus and Task Completion stages of the lesson was higher in the EFL groups than in the CFL groups. However, it is enlightening to observe that the teachers of the CFL groups rated higher the Topic Introduction stage than the teachers of the EFL groups, which corroborates the results obtained from the students'

evaluation. This might be influenced by the fact that the topics related to the content may have affected the performance of the activity in class which need more research in the future.

Specifically, the mean score for the Topic Introduction stage, using the weighted average method, was 4.125 in the EFL groups, indicating that the participating EFL teachers considered themselves satisfied or very satisfied in this stage of the lesson. Compared to the mean score of the Content Teaching and Language Focus stages in the EFL groups, the participating CFL teachers rated the performance of their groups much lower, 3.65 vs 4, and 3.475 vs 3.94 respectively, indicating that the CFL teachers considered Content and Language Teaching to be between regular and good, while EFL teachers rated themselves as satisfied. With regard to the task completion section, the lowest rating was given by the CFL teachers, with a mean score at an unexpected 3.375, while the EFL teachers considered the task completion stage as nearly satisfied with a mean score at 3.88.

9.5. Summary and Findings

From these analyses, we can see that the hypotheses formulated in Chapter 6 and reviewed below, were tested and no significant contradictions were found:

Hypothesis 1: As a whole, both proposed combinations of TBLT-CLIL work better in TEFL than in TCFL.

Hypothesis 2: As a whole, the 1st TBLT-CLIL combination motivates EFL and CFL learners more than the 2nd TBLT-CLIL combination.

Hypothesis 3: EFL groups outperform CFL groups at all tested language skills in both TBLT-CLIL combinations.

Hypothesis 4: Both EFL and CFL learners show a higher satisfaction and motivation in the 1st TBLT-CLIL combination than the 2nd TBLT-CLIL combination.

Hypothesis 5: Both EFL and CFL teachers show a preference for the 1st TBLT-CLIL combination.

Hypothesis 6: Some restrictions, such as lack of relative syllabus teaching materials in the target language, time limit in class, etc., will affect the results of TBLT-CLIL combinations trials.

In considering Hypothesis 1, based on the analysis of the TEFL-TCFL category, there are three points worth noting: first, taken as a whole, the performance of both TBLT-CLIL combinations seem to work better in TEFL than in TCFL; second, in some aspects of language skills or teaching method phases, such as speaking and topic introduction, the CFL groups outperformed the EFL groups. As for the third point, some significant differences, such as participants' age, gender, language environment, language level and subject content between EFL and CFL groups, which might influence the results of the research, were not discussed in this thesis.

As far as the analysis for Hypothesis 2, taken as a whole, a marginally higher mean rating was observed in the first TBLT-CLIL combination than in the second. However, there is no clear conclusion that the ^{first} TBLT-CLIL combination was more effective than the second since no significant differences were found in this category, but taken as a whole, the data show a marginally better performance on the 1st TBLT-CLIL combination. It is worth mentioning that, as can be seen from the data collection statistics, there are no statistically significant differences between the means of the sexes, ages, teachings, subject content in each pair of participating groups. Therefore, it needs more research in a long term.

With respect to Hypothesis 3, since the writing skill was excluded in the CFL groups, the remaining three language skills were compared in the TEFL-TCFL category, while in the TBLT-CLIL category, all language skills were tested in EFL groups. The results shown in Table 30 indicate a higher satisfaction regarding the practice of both speaking and reading language skills was shown in the CFL groups than in the EFL groups, while in the practice of listening, no significant differences were found in the TEFL-TCFL category. In other words, taken as a whole, the CFL groups outperformed the EFL groups in tested language skills which made the third hypothesis unsupported.

Concerning Hypothesis 4, based on the analysis of satisfaction with the TBLT-CLIL combinations in section 9.3, a higher satisfaction was found in the topic introduction and task completion stages, and a very similar satisfaction rate was given in the content and language teaching phase both in the EFL and CFL groups. Together with the statistics based on learners' assessment of each stage of the TBLT-CLIL combination in different subjects, and supplemental feedback gathered through emails, voice calls, return interviews etc., as well as the interpretation of the mean score of overall assessment on each phase of TBLT-CLIL category explained in section 8.3, both the EFL and the CFL learners showed a higher satisfaction with the 1st TBLT-CLIL combination as hypothesized.

As for Hypothesis 5, an analysis of the data obtained on the performance of each phase of the TBLT-CLIL category, gathered from the class observation reports and teachers' evaluation sheets of each experiment, as well as the supplemental statistics of the participating teachers' comments, both EFL and CFL teachers showed a preference for the 1st TBLT-CLIL combination as hypothesized, especially for the topic introduction phase, a significant higher satisfaction was observed both in EFL and CFL groups than the 2nd TBLT-CLIL combination based on the results of Table 26.

Since the teaching material redesign and preparation, differences in subject selection, education system, culture, language environment, time exposure to the target foreign language, etc., between groups were not investigated in the present study, hypothesis 6 could not be tested. However, these are also important factors in foreign language acquisition worthy of more research, given the results and observations discussed so far.

In addition, if these abovementioned factors did not influence the experiment results, there remains a powerful argument that foreign language acquisition is related to our experience with our native language and/or our proficiency in other languages. As we grow up and acquire the sound system of our native language, our ability to learn patterns that differ from native ones inevitably declines. Therefore, participants' linguistic experience might also be one of the important factors to affect the results of TBLT-CLIL experiment trails.

10. Conclusions and Discussions

This final chapter begins with a re-statement of the research questions and a summary of the dissertation. This is followed by the empirical findings derived from data collected in response to the research questions. I shall then discuss both the pedagogical implications and the limitations of the study, and will offer recommendations for future research in the concluding remarks.

The aim of this research was to assess the impact of combining TBLT and CLIL to Teach English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) and Teach Chinese as a Foreign Language (TCFL), in such a way as to increase the time available for the natural practice of language skills in class. The study has also tested whether different combinations of accepted FL teaching methods can result in more effective learning in TEFL or TCFL classrooms. In this research, two prevalent foreign language teaching methods were selected to be combined: Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), which are two of the most effective FL teaching methods. They were selected after reviewing the current applied methodologies of TEFL and TCFL in foreign language classrooms. Another purpose of this exploratory and descriptive study was to seek empirical evidence of the extent to which a combination of these methods could improve motivation to learn the target foreign language naturally. This evidence was sought through class experiments. The study tested all hypotheses except Hypothesis 3:

1. Both proposed combinations of TBLT-CLIL work better in TEFL than in TCFL.
2. The first TBLT-CLIL combination motivates EFL and CFL learners more than the second TBLT-CLIL combination.

3. EFL groups did not outperform CFL groups at all tested language skills in both TBLT-CLIL combinations. Conversely, CFL groups rated a higher score both in speaking and reading language skills.
4. Both EFL and CFL learners show a higher satisfaction and motivation of the 1st TBLT-CLIL combination than the 2nd TBLT-CLIL combination.
5. Both EFL and CFL teachers show a preference for the 1st TBLT-CLIL combination.
6. Some restrictions, such as lack of relative syllabus teaching materials in the target language, or time limit in class, will affect the results of TBLT-CLIL combinations trials.

The thesis was organized in two parts: theoretical and empirical, comprising a total of ten chapters. The first chapter reviewed the background, theories of English and Chinese, since these are treated as two of the most important and most studied foreign languages. English is the official language most spoken in the world, and Chinese tops the list of the ten most widely spoken languages. In chapter 2, a description of the status of TEFL and TCFL in different countries provided a basis for the comparisons of many traditional and modern teaching methodologies in the TEFL and TCFL fields in following chapters. Furthermore, chapter 3 addressed the various language aspects of English and Chinese, especially in regard to the main similarities and differences in the common methodologies applied in FL classrooms. The differences between English and Chinese, and the characteristics of the Asian-Western education system are also discussed briefly. Chapter 4 offered an overview of current research in the field to language educators and technology researchers. Some new and widely used teaching approaches such as Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) Approach, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), and Technology Integrating FL Teaching

Method, both for TEFL and TCFL were discussed; the advantages and disadvantages of each were analyzed. Chapter 4 also directly addressed the use of technology in FL classrooms, an important resource in providing a broad picture of second or foreign language acquisition research.

The remaining chapters were devoted to the empirical study, the aim of which was to prove the viability of combining TBLT and CLIL to teach English and Chinese in foreign language contexts. After the detailed introduction of the TBLT and CLIL teaching methods, two different combinations of TBLT-CLIL were tested through several experiments to determine whether they would foster TEFL and TCFL within foreign language settings. The empirical part also includes the theoretical basis: a detailed introduction of TBLT and CLIL was followed as a basis for theories and standards for a potential combination. Chapter 6 provided possible combinations of TBLT and CLIL, suggested potential problems in their implementation, and described the redesigned teaching materials for the class experiments, and the selection of participants. Chapter 7 also provided the unified questionnaires, lesson plans, observation reports and evaluation forms to be used to conduct the class experiments based on the two proposed TBLT-CLIL combinations. The materials were sent to twelve groups from six different universities and language schools distributed over four different countries. Once completed, chapters 8 and 9 reported the data collection and interpretation, both comparatively and in detail. It also tested the hypotheses stated in chapter 6. Chapter 10 provided the conclusions and discussions, it also included the empirical findings, pedagogical implications, limitations of the study as well as the recommendations for future work.

10.1 Empirical Findings

The main empirical findings were summarized in chapters 6, 7 and 8. All experiments were conducted with eight EFL groups and four CFL groups. Two categories were established for data interpretation: EFL-CFL category, and the TBLT-CLIL combination category; each was further analyzed taking into account the language skills that had been practiced and the teaching method. The following section will synthesize the empirical findings to answer the study's five research questions based on the data collected and analyzed from the experiments.

1. EFL groups were expected to work better than CFL groups in both combinations of TBLT-CLIL.
 - a. An analysis of the results obtained from the students' questionnaires and teachers' observation reports corroborates that both TBLT-CLIL combinations worked better in the EFL groups than in the CFL groups.
 - b. Regarding the language skills, the data obtained from the EFL groups suggest that reading comprehension instruction received less emphasis in both TBLT-CLIL class experiments, while in the CFL groups, a totally opposite result was found, since the time devoted to reading comprehension in both experiments increased exponentially. With respect to speaking and listening skills, a slight increase in satisfaction rate was observed in both EFL groups, whereas, in the CFL groups, a marginal decrease was seen in Combination 2. However, in Combination 1, no difference was found.
2. In the content teaching phase, a higher satisfaction rate was found in CFL learners than in EFL learners in topic introduction, which contradicted expectations. For the remaining aspects, a higher satisfaction rate was observed in the EFL groups than in the CFL groups. In the content and

language dual teaching phases, a marginally higher rate of satisfaction was found in the EFL groups, while in the task completion stage, a marked decrease in satisfaction rate was observed in the CFL groups, which might be influenced by the limited spoken Chinese language level of most of the CFL participants.

3. Will the first TBLT-CLIL combination motivate EFL and CFL learners more than the second?
 - a. After analyzing the data obtained from the students, a marginally higher mean was observed in the first TBLT-CLIL combination than in the second.
 - b. Based on the collected data from the evaluation forms and the satisfaction rate, there is no clear conclusion that the 1st TBLT-CLIL combination works better than the second, since no significant differences were found either in language skill acquisition or in the teaching method. However, after comments and feedback collection through emails, voice-calls, Wechat and video-interviews, a higher satisfaction with the first TBLT-CLIL combination was observed.
4. Will the EFL groups outperform the CFL groups at all tested language skills in both TBLT-CLIL combinations?
 - a. Taken as a whole, the CFL groups outperformed the EFL groups in the language skills tested in the experiments and hence did not support this study question.
 - b. Based on the statistics gathered both from the questionnaires and evaluation forms, the data showed better performance in speaking and reading skills in CFL groups than in EFL groups; while in the listening

skills' performance, no significant difference was found. Since writing skills were excluded in the CFL experiments, no comparison of writing skills was made between EFL and CFL groups.

5. Will all participants be more satisfied with the 1st TBLT-CLIL combination than the second?
 - a. The data obtained in the TBLT-CLIL category and the results of analyzing CFL and EFL participants' satisfaction rate on each phase, a higher satisfaction with the 1st TBLT-CLIL combination was observed in the class experiments.
 - b. The data obtained from the class observation reports and the evaluation forms, and the supplemental statistics derived from comments and suggestions, we can infer that both the EFL and CFL teachers showed a preference for the 1st TBLT-CLIL combination.
6. Will some restrictions, such as lack of relative syllabus teaching materials in the target language, time limit in class, etc. affect the results of TBLT-CLIL combinations trials?
 - a. The first restriction is available teaching material. Though materials were redesigned taking into account many selected syllabi, it did not mean they were suitable for all participating groups' language level or their curricular system. This may have affected participants' comprehension and interest in the class experiments. The second restriction is the dual requirement for the participating teachers to be competent in both target foreign language and pedagogical subject, which might influence the lesson procedure and outcome.

- b. The differences in education system, culture, language environment, time exposure to the target foreign language, or any other variables between groups are also likely to be important factors, but they were not investigated in the present study.

10.2. Pedagogical Implications of Findings

The main contribution of this study is the proposal for integrating different teaching approaches to improve foreign language teaching naturally. The research results reported in this thesis have significance for teachers, school leaders, teacher training institutions, teacher development experts and policy makers, researchers and other stakeholders in the development of teacher expertise.

Given the ambitious linguistic and cognitive objectives of TBLT-CLIL classes, teachers are forced to face the difficulties inherent in this twofold mode of teaching. Subject teachers and language teachers are not trained in the same way and do not share the same goals, which require language teachers to learn more about subject content and subject teachers to learn about the language needed for their subjects.

The findings of the study presented above, while by no means exhaustive, have pedagogical implications which will be discussed below. They are intended to stimulate thinking on how the insights from this study might broadly impact Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) and Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language (TCFL), or any other foreign language teaching fields. The first pedagogical implication indicates a need to provide more professional training for TBLT-CLIL teachers. Professional development both on subject content and language teaching is considered as a context-specific and long-term process in which teachers are trusted, respected and empowered

as professionals. Teacher development activities are sought in the field of more collaborative activities, portraying the social nature of learning. Universities and schools that facilitate teacher learning and development exhibit characteristics of a learning organization culture where professional collaboration, collegiality and shared leadership are practiced.

The second pedagogical implication is the necessary increase in qualification requirements for CLIL teachers. If subject teachers want to become involved in CLIL teaching, they must necessarily be certified in the relevant subject and be proficient in the target foreign language.

The third implication regarding the implementation of a combination of TBLT-CLIL concerns the provision of an optional oral exam to EFL and CFL learners. The students could take the CLIL exam in the content subject and in the language in which they follow a CLIL course. The precise form of the oral exam and the tasks that the students will have to carry out should depend on the content subject, such as Biology, Physics, Mathematics, History or any other subject which the universities or schools are offering. The students' final score on the subject should be composed of both the score obtained in class and the score on the oral exam calculated by a certain percentage.

Another undeniable concern raised is the lack of relevant teaching materials available for CLIL, especially in the TCFL field. Publishing houses have not yet met the demand for CLIL teaching materials since they have to adapt them for each country and each subject according to their curricula, education system and culture. This demand suggests the need for a new pedagogical policy from related education departments and institutions.

10.3 Limitations of the Study

I have offered an evaluative perspective on the exploration of new foreign language methods to improve FL learners' language skills in a natural way, and to motivate FL learners' interaction in class. As a direct consequence of methodologies used in the experiments, the study encountered a number of limitations which need to be considered and overcome in future research.

The first limitation of this study might be the difference between EFL and CFL convenience sampling. Compared with the EFL sample size, 140 participants, the CFL sample size is too small, only 40 participants were recruited. The sampling imbalance may influence the results in the TEFL-TCFL category. A small sample size leads to obstacles to finding significant inferences from the data, as statistical tests normally require a larger sample size to ensure a representative distribution of the population and to be considered representative of groups of people to whom results will be generalized or transferred. In addition, differences in sampling age and language level might also influence results. In order to overcome these differences, future research should ensure similar group size, age and language level selection.

The second limitation of this study concerns the lack of relevant teaching materials for the CFL groups. The design of personalized teaching material provided in this study was very time-consuming, another barrier to the experiment process. In order to overcome this limitation, the CFL teaching materials should be selected directly from Chinese curricular subject materials used by ordinary students, and a higher Chinese language level of CFL learners might be required for future research.

The third limitation is the lack of a longitudinal investigation in this study; the experiments were conducted during a short period of time: two classes in total, one subject each (Music and Economics) were conducted in EFL groups, and only one class

each (Chinese Culture) in CFL groups. The limited experiment might also impact the results. Furthermore, a limited time exposure was also encountered in the task completion phase, which also obviously affected the assessment of the TBLT-CLIL combinations. Therefore, more experiments in the same subject content teaching experiments should be required in future research.

The fourth limitation of this study is access to the universities and language schools for class experiments, since it may interrupt their own teaching plans. Of the twelve experiment requests sent out to more than ten universities, half were denied. The main reason was that the class experiments would affect their academic teaching process since each university has their own pedagogical tasks planned within an academic calendar.

The fifth limitation is the lack of available and reliable data for supporting Hypothesis 3. The lack of data related to the topics and subject contents selected, which were not designed in the evaluation forms. Apart from these, the information from participating teachers as to their required knowledge level for subject content and language dual teaching was also missing in this study. The missing data limited the scope of the analysis and it could be a significant obstacle in finding a meaningful outcome. This limitation generates a need for future research to test this hypothesis.

The sixth limitation of this study is the lack of prior research studies on this topic—combining TBLT and CLIL both for TEFL and TCFL. Only one study was conducted with French speakers by Tardieu and Doltisky (2012) in Paris to integrate the task-based approach into CLIL English teaching, while it is still a blank field for TCFL. This limitation will offer more opportunities for educational pioneers to do more exploratory research in the near future, and stimulate more researchers to improve foreign language teaching approaches.

A final limitation of this study was cultural and other bias, such as the differences between FL learners' ages, sexes, language level, environment, and educational background. The information collected was not all that useful other than in indicating that different sampling was selected in different countries. Collecting more information on the cultural and pedagogical aspects, FL learners' language environment etc., would have allowed a deeper analysis of the different combination patterns and their viability for certain ages, language level, or cultural background. Given that this research did find connections between the effectiveness of combining these teaching methods and FL learners' age based on Richard's theory, it is likely to find a different result in long term practice. This limitation needs further clarification.

10.4 Recommendations for Future Research

As with many studies, this thesis raises many more questions than answers. This is due to some of the limitations mentioned in the previous section, which are intended to aid in setting a research agenda for improving the teaching methods currently used for teaching EFL and CFL through follow-up research.

The first recommendation is to test the TBLT-CLIL combinations proposed here to determine whether they can serve other foreign language teaching settings apart from TEFL and TCFL, such as Teaching Spanish as a Foreign Language (TSFL). Studying abroad has become a trend for college students; for most international students on study abroad, the method they use for learning in major courses or any other professional courses is Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). Undergraduate Chinese students of the University of Salamanca, for example, are studying their major courses mostly in Spanish, which might be their first or second foreign language and can be

selected as TSFL (Teaching Spanish as a Foreign Language) for sampling. Recruiting more SFL participants and conducting more TBLT-CLIL combination experiments on TSFL groups as future research strategies can facilitate the attainment of this goal.

The second recommendation is to explore more combinations of FL teaching approaches both for TEFL and TCFL in the course of time, such as to integrate a traditional teaching method with a technology-based or internet-based approach, such as TICS for improving the TBLT, CLIL or TBLT-CLIL integrated teaching methods. Various innovations, including Google-assisted language learning and concordances have revolutionized approaches to teaching foreign languages with the rapid development of smart technology. Students increasingly rely on mobile-assisted, independent language learning, since new technologies and applications allow them to become autonomous learners in target languages, as well as gaining more intercultural literacy. The integration of a technology-based teaching method into commonly used FL teaching approaches will be an interesting field both for educational practitioners and pioneers in the near future.

The third recommendation is related to the Information Communications Technology (ICT) in foreign language teaching. As discussed in chapter 6, FL teaching needs to adapt and renew itself to be compatible with the globalized world. Undoubtedly, the development of ICT such as electronic mail, Internet, multimedia, possibilities to use collaborative platforms, influences the process of using ICT in everyday classroom teaching and learning. Apart from integrating TBLT and CLIL for a natural innovative teaching approach, ICT also provides new possibilities for integration into any other FL teaching methods in modernizing the process and with its help to increase the quality of education and meet the requirements set by contemporary knowledge society.

10.5 Concluding Remarks

This descriptive-exploratory study has achieved its research aims by performing the experiments of the TBLT-CLIL combining methodology in EFL and CFL classes. One of its goals was to analyze the data as they are rather than to compare them to other data to see their similarities. Therefore, neither its findings nor conclusions are necessarily generalizable to other contexts and should only be viewed as tentative recommendations that can be taken into account when teaching EFL or CFL or any other foreign languages.

This study does not claim to be a comprehensive examination of TBLT-CLIL combining teaching methods as a solution for TEFL and TCFL, but to view it as a provisional recommendation that can be taken into account when teaching EFL or CFL or any foreign language. Nevertheless, it provides a basis for more FLT researchers and teachers to think of the possibilities of a compatible methodology in foreign language classrooms, and to seek them through further research. Although such research is still scarce, it is to be hoped that future empirical studies will make use of integrating other different foreign language teaching methods to enhance all FL learners' initiatives and awareness in FL learning.

Declaration of Academic Honesty

I hereby affirm that I wrote this thesis independently and that I did not use any literature source and aids other than those quoted. All thoughts taken directly or indirectly from external sources are properly denoted as such.

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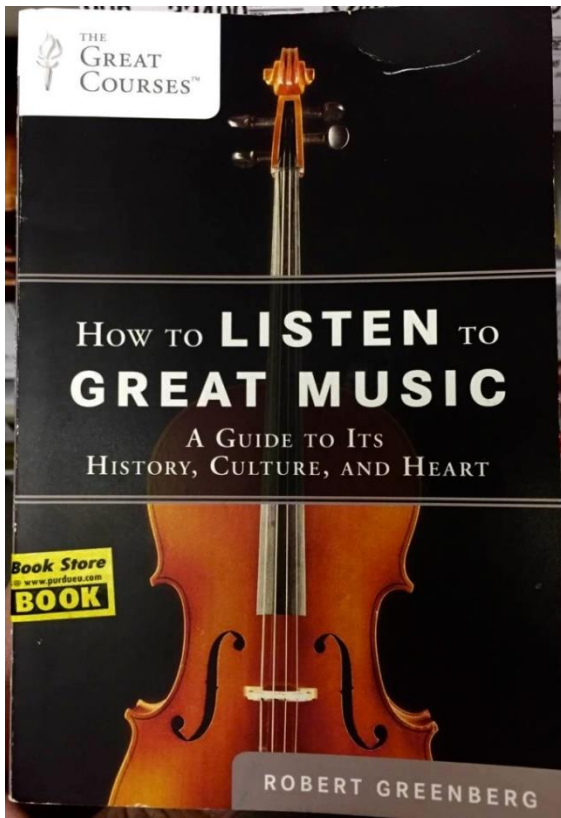
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Appendix I: Scan Copy of Reference Material 1



HOW TO LISTEN TO GREAT MUSIC 187

string quartets, his fourth and fifth piano concertos, the Violin Concerto in D, and the opera *Fidelio*.

Beethoven's "late" compositional period is understood as running from 1816 to his death in 1827, when he was clinically deaf, physically isolated, emotionally alienated, and not in the best of health. It was a period during which he once again reinvented himself, and having done so, composed music that confused the living daylights out of most of his contemporaries. Beethoven's late-period music includes his last five piano sonatas, the Ninth Symphony, the *Missa Solemnis*, the *Diabelli Variations* for piano, and his last six works for string quartet. These late works redefined their genres entirely. We stand humbled and awed by them.

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All of Beethoven's mature compositional innovations are arrayed around a single, central belief: that music composition is a form of self-expression.

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Take, in equal parts, one, the Enlightenment's emphasis on the individual and the right of individuals to pursue happiness, meaning, to do their thing; two, the French Revolution and the spirit of accelerated, revolutionary change it provoked; and three, the social and economic upheavals engendered by Napoleon. Mix these societal events all together and sooner or later an artist (or a group of artists)

CHAPTER 21

Beethoven's Compositional Innovations

When the Going Gets Tough, the Tough Innovate

Beethoven's formative musical environment may have been dominated by the rituals and niceties of the Viennese Classical style, but his social and political inheritance was the age of revolution and Napoleon. Beethoven harnessed the grandiose, heroic, and turbulent spirit of this time even as he harnessed his own inner demons and in doing so, he changed both the role of the composer and the language of Western music.

Beethoven's compositional life falls into four periods. The first saw the creation of his juvenilia, the music he composed in Bonn before moving to Vienna in November of 1792.

The period between late 1792 and 1802 is referred to as his Viennese period, during which, we are told, he absorbed completely the Classical style of Haydn and Mozart. This is a half-truth because, even as he absorbed and mastered Viennese classicism, Beethoven was already his own man, often going uncomfortably beyond the Classical era envelopes of melodic grace, emotional restraint, and formal ritual. Beethoven's symphonies number one and two, his first six string quartets, and his first three piano concertos date from this period.

What is referred to as Beethoven's heroic compositional period runs from 1803 to 1815. It's a period that saw his expressive revolution in full swing, during which he composed, among many other works, his symphonies three through eight; the five so-called middle

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was going to say something along the lines of "My art is for me, not for you. What I feel, see, and hear is *important*, and I/my art will express what I feel, what I see, what I hear. Take it or leave it."

Beethoven was not alone in his self-expressive attitude. In English literature, William Wordsworth, Samuel Taylor Coleridge, and Lord George Gordon Byron experienced the same environmental influences and put the same self-expressive ideal at the forefront of their work. In painting, it was the Spaniard Francisco Goya.

Beethoven's mature compositional innovations are five in number.

1. Contextual use of form: The mature Beethoven will use the Classical era forms only to the point where they serve his expressive needs. Beyond that, he will do what he pleases. For him, expressive context will determine the degree to which he adheres—or doesn't adhere—to preexisting form.
2. Pervasive motivic development: The manipulation, combination, and metamorphosis of motives lie at the heart of Beethoven's melodic language.
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4. The use of rhythm as a narrative element unto itself.
5. The ongoing pursuit of originality: Later in his life, Beethoven famously said that "Art demands of us that we never stand still." To that end, he placed a premium on continual artistic growth and development, something that strikes us, today, as being very modern.

Beethoven, Symphony No. 5 in C Minor, Op. 67

We are about to indulge in the most detailed musical analysis in this book.

Appendix II: Scan Copy of Reference Material 2

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6A Music and emotion

gerunds and infinitives
music
words that come from other languages

1 VOCABULARY & PRONUNCIATION

music, words from other languages

a 29 Listen and match what you hear with a word in the list.

a bass guitar a cello a choir a conductor drums an orchestra
 a soprano a flute a violin a keyboard a saxophone

b 30 Listen and check. Practise saying the words. What other words do you know for instruments and musicians?

c Read the information box below. Then, in pairs, look at **Borrowed words related to music** and try to pronounce them as they are pronounced in English. Underline the stressed syllable.

Foreign words that are used in English

English has 'borrowed' many words from other languages, for example in the field of music from Italian, Greek, and French. The English pronunciation is often similar to their pronunciation in their original language, e.g. *ch* in words which come from Greek is *ki*, e.g. *orchestra*.

Borrowed words related to music

From Italian	cello /ˈtʃeləʊ/ concerto /kənˈtʃɜːtʃəʊ/ mezzo-soprano /ˈmeɪzəʊˈsɒprənəʊ/ orchestra /ˈɔːrkestrə/
From Greek	orchestra /ˈɔːrkestrə/ choir /ˈkɔɪər/ chorus /ˈkɒrəs/ microphone /ˈmaɪkrəfoʊn/ rhythm /ˈrɪðm/ symphony /ˈsɪmfəni/
From French	ballet /ˈbælət/ encore /ˈɒŋkɔːr/ genre /ˈʒɑːnrə/

d 31 Listen and check. How are the pink letters pronounced?

e With a partner, try to work out which language these words come from, and put them in the right columns. Do you know what they all mean?

architecture	barista	bouquet	cappuccino	chauffeur	chef	chic
croissant	fancé	graffiti	hypochondriac	macchiato	paparazzi	philosophy
photograph	psychic	psychologist	villa			

From Italian: _____
From Greek: _____
From French: _____

f 32 Listen and check. Practise saying the words.

2 SPEAKING

Ask and answer the questions with a partner.

Your music

Do you have a favourite...?

- kind of music
- song
- piece of classical music (symphony, sonata, etc.)
- band
- solo artist
- composer
- conductor

Do you play a musical instrument?

YES

- What instrument, or instruments, do you play?
- How long have you been playing it?
- Have you had or are you having lessons?
- Can you read music?
- Have you ever played in a band / orchestra?

NO

- Have you ever tried to learn to play an instrument? Why did you stop learning?
- Is there an instrument you would like to learn to play?

Have you ever...?

- sung in a choir
- performed in front of a lot of people
- taken part in a musical talent contest

Concerts

- Have you been to a good concert recently?
- Which artist or band would you most like to see in concert?
- What's the best live concert you've ever been to?

3 READING

What music would you play to an alien?

'I can hear music for the first time ever,' wrote Austin Chapman, a 23-year-old film-maker from California. 'What should I listen to?'

Austin, you see, was born profoundly deaf. For his whole life, music has been a mystery. 'I had seen people make a fool of themselves, singing or moving wildly on the dance floor,' he says. 'I had also seen people moved to tears by a song, which was probably the hardest thing for me to understand.' Then, just a few weeks ago, his parents suggested that he try a newly developed hearing aid that they had heard about. He went to the doctor's with no great expectations. But when the doctor switched on the hearing aid, he was stunned. 'I sat in the doctor's office, frozen as a cacophony of sounds attacked me. The whirr of the computer, the hum of the air conditioning, the clacking of the keyboard, the sound of my friend's voice. Austin could hear. And for the first time ever the world of music was open to him.

It didn't take him long to decide what to do: he was going to listen to music non-stop. Later that day, he heard his first piece, Mozart's beautiful *Locmoo* (from his Requiem), in a friend's car. He wept. So did everybody else in the car. The experience, he says, was 'like the first time you kiss a girl.' His friends went on to play him the Rolling Stones, Michael Jackson, Sigur Rós, Radiohead, Elvis, and Pink Floyd. But Austin knew that there was a vast universe of music to explore, so he decided to seek further help. He described his situation on reddit.com and so far, he's received more than 14,000 suggestions. As a strategy, he has decided to follow the advice of someone who posted this message on the site: 'This is like introducing an alien to the music of Earth. Once you've tired of classical, you could start with music from the fifties and progress through each decade. That way you can really see the growth of modern music.'

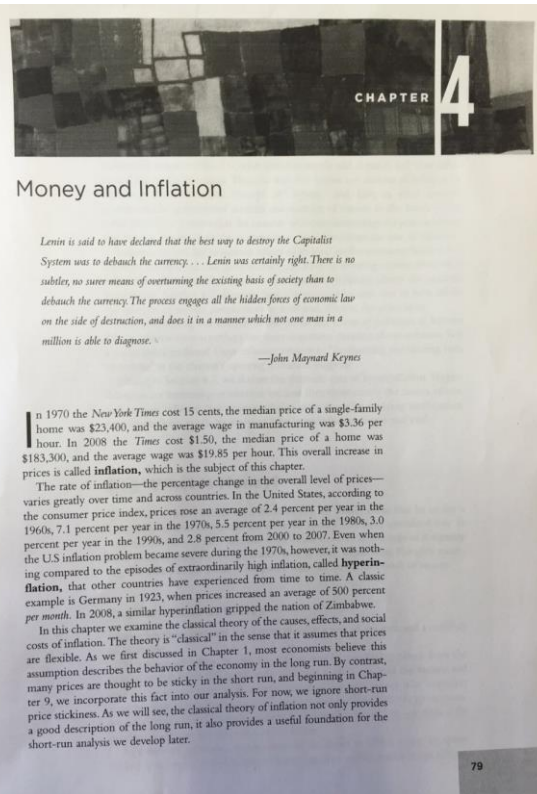
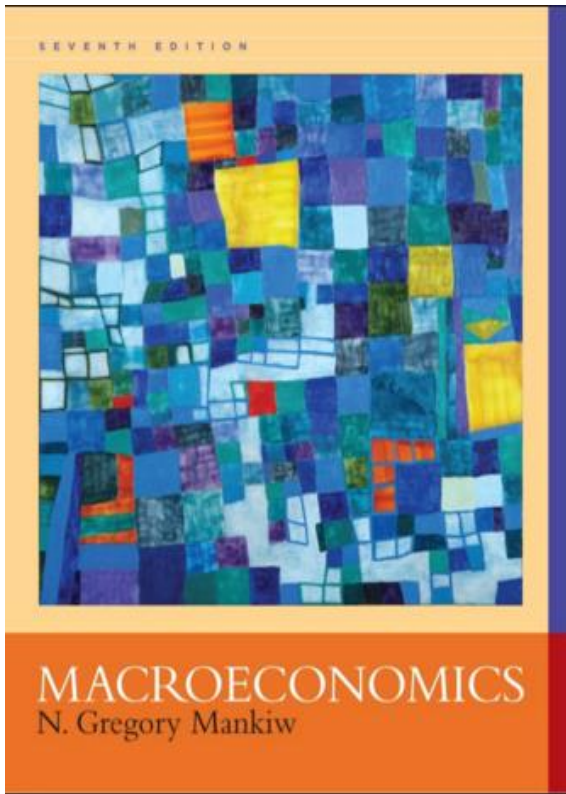
Austin adopted that system, but chose to start much earlier, with a piece by Guillaume de Machaut called *Agnus Dei*, from the 14th century. Currently, he's listening to four or five hours of music a day. As he had never heard music before Austin isn't influenced by nostalgia and, via the internet, he can listen to just about anything ever composed. Consequently his experience may help us to understand more about musical taste. So what has he been listening to? It seems that no one genre dominates (although he says he's not very keen on country music – too depressing). His favourite piece – for now – is Queen's *Bohemian Rhapsody*. He's also keen on Beethoven's Ninth Symphony and Frank Sinatra's *Fly Me to the Moon*. But so far he has not listened to the most recommended band, the Beatles. 'I'm waiting for a special occasion,' he says.

Austin is also learning how to hear. When we met at a café in West Hollywood, we took a table far from the street to avoid the background noise of traffic. The ability to ignore unwanted noise is something that will take him time. This may help explain why Austin says that 'silence is still my favourite sound. When I turn my hearing aid off, my thoughts become clearer; it's absolutely peaceful.'

Austin Chapman

Adapted from The Times

Appendix III: Scan Copy of Reference Material 3



80 | PART II Classical Theory: The Economy in the Long Run

The “hidden forces of economic law” that lead to inflation are not as mysterious as Keynes claims in the quotation that opens this chapter. Inflation is simply an increase in the average level of prices, and a price is the rate at which money is exchanged for a good or a service. To understand inflation, therefore, we must understand money—what it is, what affects its supply and demand, and what influence it has on the economy. Thus, Section 4-1 begins our analysis of inflation by discussing the economist’s concept of “money” and how, in most modern economies, the government controls the quantity of money in the hands of the public. Section 4-2 shows that the quantity of money determines the price level and that the rate of growth in the quantity of money determines the rate of inflation.

Inflation in turn has numerous effects of its own on the economy. Section 4-3 discusses the revenue that governments can raise by printing money, sometimes called the *inflation tax*. Section 4-4 examines how inflation affects the nominal interest rate. Section 4-5 discusses how the nominal interest rate in turn affects the quantity of money people wish to hold and, thereby, the price level.

After completing our analysis of the causes and effects of inflation, in Section 4-6 we address what is perhaps the most important question about inflation: Is it a major social problem? Does inflation amount to “overturning the existing basis of society,” as the chapter’s opening quotation suggests?

Finally, in Section 4-7, we discuss the dramatic case of hyperinflation. Hyperinflation is interesting to examine because they show clearly the causes, effects, and costs of inflation. Just as seismologists learn much by studying earthquakes, economists learn much by studying how hyperinflations begin and end.

4-1 What Is Money?

When we say that a person has a lot of money, we usually mean that he or she is wealthy. By contrast, economists use the term “money” in a more specialized way. To an economist, money does not refer to all wealth but only to one type of it: **money** is the stock of assets that can be readily used to make transactions. Roughly speaking, the dollars in the hands of the public make up the nation’s stock of money.

The Functions of Money

Money has three purposes: it is a store of value, a unit of account, and a medium of exchange.

As a **store of value**, money is a way to transfer purchasing power from the present to the future. If I work today and earn \$100, I can hold the money and spend it tomorrow, next week, or next month. Of course, money is an imperfect store of value: if prices are rising, the amount you can buy with any given quantity of money is falling. Even so, people hold money because they can trade it for goods and services at some time in the future.

As a **unit of account**, money provides the terms in which prices are quoted and debts are recorded. Microeconomics teaches us that resources are allocat-

CHAPTER 4 Money and Inflation | 81

ed according to relative prices—the prices of goods relative to other goods—yet stores post their prices in dollars and cents. A car dealer tells you that a car costs \$20,000, not 400 shirts (even though it may amount to the same thing). Similarly, most debts require the debtor to deliver a specified number of dollars in the future, not a specified amount of some commodity. Money is the yardstick with which we measure economic transactions.

As a **medium of exchange**, money is what we use to buy goods and services. “This note is legal tender for all debts, public and private” is printed on the U.S. dollar. When we walk into stores, we are confident that the shopkeepers will accept our money in exchange for the items they are selling. The ease with which an asset can be converted into the medium of exchange and used to buy other things—goods and services—is sometimes called the asset’s **liquidity**. Because money is the medium of exchange, it is the economy’s most liquid asset.

To better understand the functions of money, try to imagine an economy without it: a barter economy. In such a world, trade requires the *double coincidence of wants*—the unlikely happenstance of two people each having a good that the other wants at the right time and place to make an exchange. A barter economy permits only simple transactions.

Money makes more indirect transactions possible. A professor uses her salary to buy books; the book publisher uses its revenue from the sale of books to buy paper; the paper company uses its revenue from the sale of paper to pay the lumberjack; the lumberjack uses his income to send his child to college; and the college uses its tuition receipts to pay the salary of the professor. In a complex, modern economy, trade is usually indirect and requires the use of money.

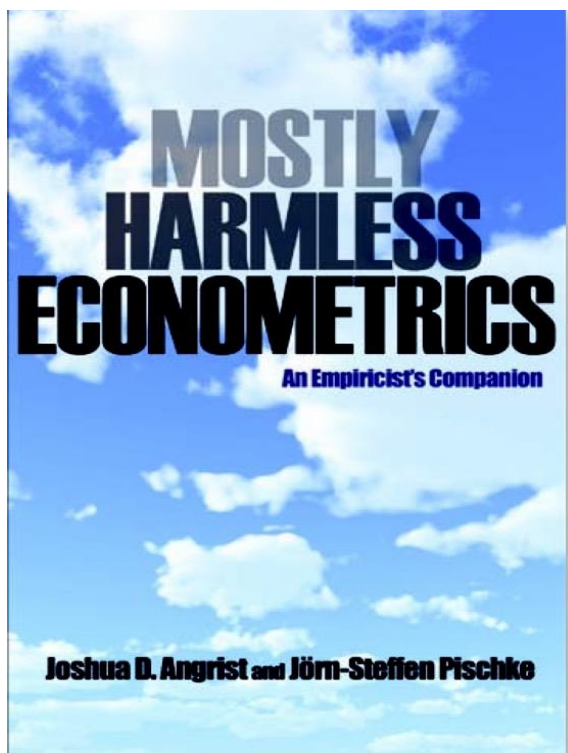
The Types of Money

Money takes many forms. In the U.S. economy we make transactions with an item whose sole function is to act as money: dollar bills. These pieces of green paper with small portraits of famous Americans would have little value if they were not widely accepted as money. Money that has no intrinsic value is called **fiat money** because it is established as money by government decree, or fiat.

Fiat money is the norm in most economies today, but most societies in the past have used a commodity with some intrinsic value for money. This type of money is called **commodity money**. The most widespread example is gold. When people use gold as money (or use paper money that is redeemable for gold), the economy is said to be on a **gold standard**. Gold is a form of commodity money because it can be used for various purposes—jewelry, dental fillings, and so on—as well as for transactions. The gold standard was common throughout the world during the late nineteenth century.

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Appendix IV: Scan Copy of Reference Material 4



Questions about Questions 5

asking you to picture yourself as a researcher with no budget constraint and no Human Subjects Committee policing your inquiry for social correctness: something like a well-funded Stanley Milgram, the psychologist who did pathbreaking work on the response to authority in the 1960s using highly controversial experimental designs that would likely cost him his job today.

Seeking to understand the response to authority, Milgram (1963) showed he could convince experimental subjects to administer painful electric shocks to pitifully protesting victims (the shocks were fake and the victims were actors). This turned out to be controversial as well as clever: some psychologists claimed that the subjects who administered shocks were psychologically harmed by the experiment. Still, Milgram's study illustrates the point that there are many experiments we can think about, even if some are better left on the drawing board.¹ If you can't devise an experiment that answers your question in a world where anything goes, then the odds of generating useful results with a modest budget and nonexperimental survey data seem pretty slim. The description of an ideal experiment also helps you formulate causal questions precisely. The mechanics of an ideal experiment highlight the forces you'd like to manipulate and the factors you'd like to hold constant.

Research questions that cannot be answered by any experiment are FUQs: fundamentally unidentified questions. What exactly does a FUQ look like? At first blush, questions about the causal effect of race or gender seem good candidates because these things are hard to manipulate in isolation ("imagine your chromosomes were switched at birth"). On the other hand, the issue economists care most about in the realm of race and sex, labor market discrimination, turns on whether someone treats you differently because they *believe* you to be black or white, male or female. The notion of a counterfactual world where men are perceived as women or vice versa has a long history and does not require Douglas Adams-style outlandishness to entertain (Rosalind disguised

¹Milgram was later played by the actor William Shatner in a TV special, an honor that no economist has yet received, though Angrist is still hopeful.

4 Chapter 1

effect of schooling on wages is useful for predicting the earnings consequences of, say, changing the costs of attending college, or strengthening compulsory attendance laws. This relation is also of theoretical interest since it can be derived from an economic model.

As labor economists, we're most likely to study causal effects in samples of workers, but the unit of observation in causal research need not be an individual human being. Causal questions can be asked about firms or, for that matter, countries. Take, for example, Acemoglu, Johnson, and Robinson's (2001) research on the effect of colonial institutions on economic growth. This study is concerned with whether countries that inherited more democratic institutions from their colonial rulers later enjoyed higher economic growth as a consequence. The answer to this question has implications for our understanding of history and for the consequences of contemporary development policy. Today, we might wonder whether newly forming democratic institutions are important for economic development in Iraq and Afghanistan. The case for democracy is far from clear-cut; at the moment, China is enjoying robust economic growth without the benefit of complete political freedom, while much of Latin America has democratized without a big growth payoff.

The second research FAQ is concerned with *the experiment that could ideally be used to capture the causal effect of interest*. In the case of schooling and wages, for example, we can imagine offering potential dropouts a reward for finishing school, and then studying the consequences. In fact, Angrist and Lavy (2008) have run just such an experiment. Although their study looked at short-term effects such as college enrollment, a longer-term follow-up might well look at wages. In the case of political institutions, we might like to go back in time and randomly assign different government structures in former colonies on their independence day (an experiment that is more likely to be made into a movie than to get funded by the National Science Foundation).

Ideal experiments are most often hypothetical. Still, hypothetical experiments are worth contemplating because they help us pick fruitful research topics. We'll support this claim by

6 Chapter 1

as Ganymede fools everyone in Shakespeare's *As You Like It*). The idea of changing race is similarly near-fetched: in *The Human Stain*, Philip Roth imagines the world of Coleman Silk, a black literature professor who passes as white in professional life. Labor economists imagine this sort of thing all the time. Sometimes we even construct such scenarios for the advancement of science, as in audit studies involving fake job applicants and résumés.²

A little imagination goes a long way when it comes to research design, but imagination cannot solve every problem. Suppose that we are interested in whether children do better in school by virtue of having started school a little older. Maybe the 7-year-old brain is better prepared for learning than the 6-year-old brain. This question has a policy angle coming from the fact that, in an effort to boost test scores, some school districts are now imposing older start ages (Deming and Dynarski, 2008). To assess the effects of delayed school entry on learning, we could randomly select some kids to start first grade at age 7, while others start at age 6, as is still typical. We are interested in whether those held back learn more in school, as evidenced by their elementary school test scores. To be concrete, let's look at test scores in first grade.

The problem with this question—the effects of start age on first grade test scores—is that the group that started school at age 7 is . . . older. And older kids tend to do better on tests, a pure maturation effect. Now, it might seem we can fix this by holding age constant instead of grade. Suppose we wait to test those who started at age 6 until second grade and test those who started at age 7 in first grade, so that everybody is tested at age 7. But the first group has spent more time in school, a fact that raises achievement if school is worth anything. There is no way to disentangle the effect of start age on learning from maturation and time-in-school effects as long as kids are still in school. The problem here is that for students, start age

²A recent example is Bertrand and Mullainathan (2004), who compared employers' responses to résumés with blacker-sounding and whiter-sounding first names, such as Lakisha and Emily (though Fryer and Levitt, 2004, note that names may carry information about socioeconomic status as well as race.)

Appendix V: Teaching Material 1 for EFL Groups

Beethoven's Compositional Innovations

When the Going Gets Tough, the Tough Innovate

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The Types of Money

Money takes many forms. In the U.S. economy we make transactions with an item whose sole function is to act as money: dollar bills. These pieces of green paper with small portraits of famous Americans would have little value if they were not widely accepted as money. Money that has no intrinsic value is called fiat money because it is established as money by government decree, or fiat.

Fiat money is the norm in most economies today, but most societies in the past have used a commodity with some intrinsic value for money. This type of money is called commodity money. The most widespread example is gold. When people use gold as money (or use paper money that is redeemable for gold), the economy is said to be on a gold standard. Gold is a form of commodity money because it can be used for various purposes—jewelry, dental fillings, and so on—as well as for transactions. The gold standard was common throughout the world during the late nineteenth century.

Appendix VII: Teaching Material for CFL Groups

chūn jié

春 节

chūn jié shì zhōng guó rén mín zuì lóng zhòng de chuán tǒng jié rì , yě xiàng zhēng
春节是中国人民最隆重的传统节日，也象征
tuán yuán、xīng wàng , duì wèi lái jì tuō xīn de xī wàng de jiā jié。 jù jì zǎi , zhōng guó
团圆、兴旺，对未来寄托新的希望的佳节。据记载，中国
rén mín guò chūn jié yǐ yǒu 4000 duō nián de lì shǐ。
人民过春节已有4000多年的历史。

chūn jié shì gè huān lè xiáng hé de jié rì , yě shì qīn rén tuán jù de rì zi , lí jiā zài
春节是个欢乐祥和的节日，也是亲人团聚的日子，离家在
wài de hái zi zài guò chūn jié shí dōu yào huí jiā tuán jù。 guò nián de qián yí yè , jiù shì
外的孩子在过春节时都要回家团聚。过年的前一夜，就是
jiù nián de là yuè sān shí yè , yě jiào chú xī , yòu jiào tuán yuán yè , zài zhè xīn jiù jiāo
旧年的腊月三十夜，也叫除夕，又叫团圆夜，在这新旧交
tì de shí hòu , shǒu suì shì zuì zhòng yào de nián sú huó dòng zhī yī。
替的时候，守岁是最重要的年俗活动之一。

chú xī wǎn shàng , quán jiā lǎo xiǎo dōu yì qǐ áo nián shǒu suì , huān jù hān yǐn,
除夕晚上，全家老小都一起熬年守岁，欢聚酣饮，
gòng xiǎng tiān lún zhī lè。 běi fāng dì qū zài chú xī yǒu chī jiǎo zi de xí sú , ér zài nán
共享天伦之乐。北方地区在除夕有吃饺子的习俗，而在南
fāng yǒu guò nián chī nián gāo de xí guàn , tián tián de nián nián de nián gāo , xiàng
方有过年吃年糕的习惯，甜甜的粘粘的年糕，象
zhēng xīn yì nián shēng huó tián mì mì , bù bù gāo。
征新一年生活甜蜜蜜，步步高。

děng chú xī yè de wǔ yè zhōng shēng yì xiǎng , xīn de yì nián kāi shǐ le , nán nǚ lǎo
等除夕夜的午夜钟声一响，新的一年开始了，男女老
shào dōu chuān zhe jié rì shèng zhuāng , xiān gěi jiā zú zhōng de zhǎng zhě bài nián zhù
少都穿着节日盛装，先给家族中的长者拜年祝
shòu , jié zhōng hái yǒu gěi ér tóng yā suì qián , chī tuán nián fàn , chū èr、sān jiù kāi shǐ
寿，节中还有给儿童压岁钱，吃团圆饭，初二、三就开始
zou qīn qī kàn péng yǒu , xiāng hù bài nián , dào hè zhù fú , shuō xiē gōng hè xīn xǐ。
走亲戚看朋友，相互拜年，道贺祝福，说些恭贺新喜、



gōng xǐ fā cái、 guo nian hao deng hua , ji zu deng huo dong 。

恭 喜 发 财、 过 年 好 等 话 ， 祭 祖 等 活 动 。

chūn jié de lìng yì míng chēng jiào guò nián。 chuán shuō zhōng , nián shì yì zhǒng
春 节 的 另 一 名 称 叫 过 年。 传 说 中 ， 年 是 一 种
wèi rén men dài lái huài yùn qì de xiǎng xiàng zhōng de dòng wù。 nián hài pà hóng sè、
为 人 们 带 来 坏 运 气 的 想 象 中 的 动 物。 年 害 怕 红 色、
huǒ guāng hé bào zhà shēng,ér qiě tōng cháng zài zhēng yuè chū yì chū mò, suǒ yǐ měi
火 光 和 爆 炸 声,而 且 通 常 在 正 月 初 一 出 没,所 以 每
dào zhēng yuè chū yī zhè tiān , rén men biàn yǒu le fàng bào zhú、 fā hóng bāo、 chuān
到 正 月 初 一 这 天,人 们 便 有 了 放 爆 竹、 发 红 包、 穿
yī、 chī jiǎo zi、 shǒu suì、 bài nián、 tiē chūn lián、 tiē chuāng huā děng huó dòng hé xí
衣、 吃 饺 子、 守 岁、 拜 年、 贴 春 联、 贴 窗 花 等 活 动 和 习
sú
俗。

zài xiàn dài , rén men bǎ chūn jié dìng yú nóng lì zhēng yuè chū yī , dàn yì bān zhì
在 现 代,人 们 把 春 节 定 于 农 历 正 月 初 一,但 一 般 至
shǎo yào dào zhēng yuè shí wǔ , yě jiù shì yuán xiāo jié , chūn jié cái suàn jié shù。 zài
少 要 到 正 月 十 五,也 就 是 元 宵 节,春 节 才 算 结 束。 在
yuán xiāo jié , rén men yì bān dōu chī yuán xiāo。 zài zhōng guó nán fāng , yuán xiāo yě
元 宵 节,人 们 一 般 都 吃 元 宵。 在 中 国 南 方,元 宵 也
jiào tāng yuán , shì “tuán tuán rú yuè” de jí xiáng zhī yì。
叫 汤 圆,是 “团 团 如 月” 的 吉 祥 之 意。

Appendix VIII: Questionnaire for Students



Questionnaire for Students

Instructions: Please put a tick in the box next to the answer of your choice or write in the space provided as the case may be.

Section I:

1. Sex : Male Female
2. Age: 12-14 15-17 18-20 21-23 others_____
3. Your Country: Spain UK USA China others_____
4. Place of Residence: Spain UK USA China others_____
5. Your educational background:
Senior High School Undergraduate Postgraduate others_____

Section II:

6. Your mother tongue:
English Spanish French Chinese others_____
7. Your home language(the language you speak with your family at home):
English Spanish French Chinese Dialect others _____
8. Your first foreign language:
English Spanish French Chinese others_____
9. How long have you been learning your first foreign language?
1-2 years 3-4 years 5-6 years 7-8 years others_____
10. Your second foreign language:
English Spanish French Chinese others_____
11. How long have you been learning your second foreign language?
1-2 years 3-4 years 5-6 years 7-8 years others_____
12. What other languages do you speak:
English Spanish French Chinese others_____

Section III:

13. Have you ever heard of Task-based Language Teaching (focuses on the use of

authentic language and on asking students to do meaningful tasks using the target language)?

Yes No

14. Have you ever heard of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL, an approach for learning content through a foreign language, thus teaching both the subject and the language)?

Yes No

15. Do you have any preferred foreign language teaching/learning method? If yes, what are they?

The Grammar Translation Method (students learn grammatical rules and then apply those rules by translating sentences between the target language and the native language)

The Direct Method (a method of teaching language directly establishing a direct or immediate association between experience and expression)

Total Physical Response Method (instructors give commands to students in the target language, and students respond with whole-body actions)

Communicative Language Teaching (emphasizes interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of study)

Task-based Language Teaching(TBLT)

Content and Language Integrated Learning(CLIL)

others_____

None

16. Which foreign language skill are you good at by comparison?

Reading Listening Speaking Writing None All of them

17. Which foreign language skill is most useful in your daily life?

Reading Listening Speaking Writing None All of them

18. Which foreign language skill are you expecting to improve in the future?

Reading Listening Speaking Writing None All of them


19. Which foreign language skill do you think more important for you?

Reading Listening Speaking Writing None All of them

20. Which foreign language skill do you think less important?

Reading Listening Speaking Writing None All of them

Appendix IX: Questionnaire for Teachers



Questionnaire for Teachers

Instructions: Please put a tick in the box next to the answer of your choice or write in the space provided as the case may be.

Section I:

- Are you a foreign language teacher or a subject teacher? :
 Foreign language teacher Subject teacher Both
- If you are a foreign language teacher, what foreign language do you teach?
 English Chinese Spanish others_____
- If you are a subject teacher, what subject do you teach?

- How many years have you been in teaching field?
 1-3 years 3-6 years 6-10 years 10-15 years more than 15 years
- What language are you using as a medium language in class:
 English Chinese Spanish mixed others_____
- Your mother tongue:
 English Spanish French Chinese others_____
- What other languages do you speak:
 English Spanish French Chinese _____
- Which language skill do you emphasize most during your teaching?
 Listening Speaking Reading Writing _____

9. Which language skill do you emphasize less during your teaching?

Listening Speaking Reading Writing _____

Section II:

10. Have you ever used the Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) as a teaching method for your classes?

Yes No Not often Never heard

11. Have you ever used the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)?

Yes No Not often Never heard

12. Which teaching method do you prefer in class: (multiple choices)

The Grammar Translation Method The Direct Method

The Audio-lingual Method Total Physical Response Method

Communicative Language Teaching

Task-based Language Teaching(TBLT)



Principled Eclecticism Approach Dogme Language Teaching

Content and Language Integrated Learning(CLIL)

Technology Based Language Teaching

others _____

Appendix X: Class Observation Report

 	
<h3>Classroom Observation Report</h3>	
Teacher Name: _____ Title: _____	
Grade: _____ No. of students: _____	
length of observation: _____ Date of Observation: _____	
Observer: _____ Combination Type: _____	
Observations	Comments and Recommendations
<input type="checkbox"/> Teacher appears prepared & organized <input type="checkbox"/> Materials appear ready & accessible <input type="checkbox"/> Purpose of instruction is stated & clear <input type="checkbox"/> Teacher links prior instruction to new <input type="checkbox"/> Skills taught appear appropriate <input type="checkbox"/> Pacing is appropriate <input type="checkbox"/> Opportunities for students to participate <input type="checkbox"/> Teacher modifies instruction as needed <input type="checkbox"/> Teacher questions to check understanding <input type="checkbox"/> Teacher summarizes to review & close	Instruction:
<input type="checkbox"/> Classroom appears orderly & clean <input type="checkbox"/> Expectations appear to be clear <input type="checkbox"/> Management system appears effective <input type="checkbox"/> Students' work is displayed <input type="checkbox"/> Materials are stored appropriately <input type="checkbox"/> Environment feels managed & in control <input type="checkbox"/> Atmosphere is friendly & caring	Environment

___ Students appear engaged & learning	
___ Order is maintained ___ Student behaviors are positive, interactive ___ Noise level is appropriate ___ Behaviors are appropriate ___ Positive rapport shared in classroom ___ Personal needs of students addressed ___ Students receive assistance as needed ___ Students encouraged to make choices ___ Students encouraged to act responsibly ___ Teacher responds respectfully ___ Teacher honors students in classroom ___ Time used efficiently & effectively	Management
Phases of Combination	Overall Assessment of Performance (0-5)
Phase 1:	
Phase 2:	
Phase 3:	
Additional Comments and Suggestions:	

Appendix XI: Evaluation Form on Subject Music for EFL Learners.



Evaluation Form for Students (Music)

Instructions: Please put a tick in the box next to the answer of your choice or write in the space provided as the case may be.

Part I: Basic Information

Subject: _____ Language in Class: _____

Grade: _____ Major: _____

Part II: Evaluation of Content and Language

1. What style of music has dominated Beethoven's formative musical environment?
 Rituals of the Viennese Classical Style Niceties of the Viennese Classical Style
 Viennese Country Music The Classical Style of Haydn and Mozart
2. How many periods can Beethoven's compositional life be divided into?
 Two Three Four Five Not mentioned
3. The central belief of Beethoven's mature compositional innovations is that music composition is a form of self-expression.
 Correct Incorrect Not mentioned
4. Beethoven was alone among his contemporaries in his self-expressive attitude?
 Correct Incorrect Not mentioned
5. Beethoven's mature compositional innovations are reflected in five aspects:
1. Contextual use of form, 2. Pervasive motivic development ,
3. Ongoing dramatic narrative, 4. The use of rhythm as a narrative element in itself
And 5. _____

6. What are the societal reasons for Beethoven's egocentric attitude toward his music?
- The Enlightenment The French Revolution
- the Social and Economic upheavals All those mentioned above.
7. Which of the following is a synonym for "harness"?
- Rein Learn Compose Change
8. Which "stand" can be substitute for "remain, stay" in the following sentences?
- We stand humbled and awed by them.
- Of all Beethoven's works, three particular sets stand out as musical diaries.
9. What is the meaning of "be ripe for...."
- Be ready for mature enough be developed as completed
10. What is the meaning of "along the lines of"
- In the queue In the line According to Along the cable of

Section III: The Evaluation of Class Performance (in English, Chinese or Spanish)

1. What is your overall assessment of today's class (1 = insufficient - 5 = excellent)
- 1 2 3 4 5
2. Which part or aspect of today's class did you like best?
- None Topic introduction Content Teaching Foreign Language Focus
- Tasks Completion Others_____
3. Which part or aspect of today's class don't you like?
- All None Topic introduction Content Teaching
- Foreign Language Focus Tasks Completion Others_____
4. Did today's class achieve the subject content and language learning objectives?
- Yes Mostly Somewhat No
5. Would you like to have this kind of teaching method used in your future classes?

Yes No Neutral

6. Which part of today's class could be improved?

All None Topic introduction Content Teaching Foreign Language

Focus

Tasks Completion Others _____

7. Compared with previous classes, which language skills have been more exposed in today's class?

Listening Speaking Reading Writing None All of them

8. Compared with previous classes, which language skills have been less exposed in today's class?

Listening Speaking Reading Writing None All of them

9. Which aspects of today's class made you feel more motivated?

All None Topic introduction Content Teaching Foreign Language

Focus

Tasks Completion Others _____

10. Further Comments and suggestions (including activities or initiatives you think would be useful, or more interesting or more motivating for Foreign Language classes)

THANK YOU!

Appendix XII: Evaluation Form on Economics for EFL Learners.



Evaluation Form for Students (Economics)

Instructions: Please put a tick in the box next to the answer of your choice or write in the space provided as the case may be.

Part I: Basic Information

Subject: _____ Language in Class: _____

Grade: _____ Major: _____

Part II: Evaluation of Content and Language

1. For economists, money means all wealth.
 Yes No Not mentioned
2. What functions does money have?
 A store of value A unit of account Quoting Prices and recording debts
 A medium of exchange All of the above Other
3. What does “a barter economy” require in trading?
 Demand Supply A double coincidence of wants
 Money All of the above
4. What is the meaning of “Asset’s liquidity”?
 The ease of exchange of goods and services as a medium of exchange.
 The ease of trading of goods and services at some time in the future.
 The ease of quoting prices and recording debts as a yardstick.
 The ease of storing value.
5. Which type of money has intrinsic value?

Fiat money Commodity money Dollar Bills None of them

6. When people use gold as money or use paper money that is redeemable for gold, we can say the economy is on a _____.

7. When someone has a lot of money, we always say she/he is _____.

8. Money provides the terms _____ which prices are quoted and debts are recorded.

of in through with

9. Money is the yardstick _____ which we measure economic transactions.

of in through with

10. Which of the words below is not the synonym of "decree"?

Fiat Law Statute Direction

Section III: The Evaluation of Class Performance (in English, Chinese or Spanish)

11. What is your overall assessment of today's class (1 = insufficient - 5 = excellent)

1 2 3 4 5

12. Which part or aspect of today's class did you like best?

All None Topic introduction Content Teaching Foreign Language

Focus

Tasks Completion Others _____

13. Which part or aspect of today's class don't you like?

All None Topics introduction Content Teaching Foreign Language

Focus

Tasks Completion Others _____

14. Did today's class achieve the subject content and language learning objectives?

Yes Mostly Somehow No

15. Would you like to have this kind of teaching method used in your future classes?

Yes No Neutral

16. Which part of today's class could be improved?

All None Topic introduction Content Teaching Foreign Language

Focus

Tasks Completion Others_____

17. Compared with previous classes, which language skills have been more exposed in today's class?

Listening Speaking Reading Writing None All of them

18. Compared with previous classes, which language skills have been less exposed in today's class?

Listening Speaking Reading Writing None All of them

19. Which aspects of today's class made you feel more motivated?

All None Topics introduction Content Teaching Foreign Language

Focus

Tasks Completion Others_____

20. Further Comments and suggestions (including activities or initiatives you think would be useful, or more interesting or more motivating for Foreign Language classes)

THANK YOU!

Appendix XIII: Evaluation Form on Subject Chinese Culture for CFL Learners



Evaluation Form for Students (Chinese Culture)

Instructions: Please put a tick in the box next to the answer of your choice or write in the space provided as the case may be.

Part I: Basic Information

Subject: _____ Language in Class: _____

Grade: _____ Major: _____

Part II: Evaluation of Content and Language

1. 除夕夜(chú xī yè) 又叫做_____

团圆(tuán yuán)夜 春节 过(guò)年 元宵(yuán xiāo)节

2. 春节的时候, 中国人民一般(yī bān--normally)不会做什么?

发红包 穿(chuān)新衣服 吃月饼(yuè bǐng) 走亲(qīn)访(fáng)友

3. “年”在传说(chuán shuō---legend)中是动物吗?

对 错 文中没有提到

4. 元宵(yuán xiāo)节是几月几日?

农历一月一日 阳历一月一日

正月十五 八月十五

5. 元宵(yuán xiāo)跟以下哪种食物相似(xiāngsì)?

饺子 年糕 汤圆 月饼

6. 哪些话不会在春节的时候说?

恭喜发财(gōng xǐ fā cái) 新年好 春节快乐 圣诞快乐

7. 春节_____中国人民最隆重(lóng zhòng--grand)的传统_____

是...节日 不是...节日 是...新年 不是...新年

8. 春节_____叫中国新年, _____叫过年。

因为....所以 不仅....而且.... 也.又.... 又...但是...

9. 在春节里, 孩子们_____给长辈拜年祝寿, 然后长辈会给孩子们压岁钱/红包。

先 不仅 因为 都

10. 以下哪个词语是“团聚(tuán jù)”的近义词

回家 团圆(tuán yuán) 分开 团结(tuán jié)

Section III: The Evaluation of Class Performance (in English, Chinese or Spanish)

11. What is your overall assessment of today's class (1 = insufficient - 5 = excellent)

1 2 3 4 5

12. Which part or aspect of today's class do you like best?

All None Topics introduction Content Teaching

Foreign Language Focus Tasks Completion Others_____

13. Which part or aspect of today's class don't you like?

All None Topics introduction Content Teaching

Foreign Language Focus Tasks Completion Others_____

14. Did today's class achieve the subject content and language learning objectives?

Yes Mostly Somehow No

15. Would you like to have this kind of teaching method used in your future classes?

Yes No Neutral

16. Which parts of today's class could be improved?

All None Topics introduction Content Teaching

Foreign Language Focus Tasks Completion Others_____

17. Compared with previous classes, which language skills have been more exposed in today's class?

- Listening Speaking Reading Writing None All of them

18. Compared with previous classes, which language skills have been less exposed in today's class?

- Listening Speaking Reading Writing None All of them

19. Which aspects of today's class made you feel more motivated?


- All None Topics introduction Content Teaching Foreign Language Focus

- Tasks Completion Others _____

20. Further Comments and suggestions (including activities or initiatives you think would be useful, or more interesting or more motivating for Foreign Language classes)

THANK YOU!

Appendix XIV: Evaluation Form for Participated Teachers



**UNIVERSIDAD
D SALAMANCA**
CAMPUS DE EXCELENCIA INTERNACIONAL

Evaluation Form for Teachers

Instructions: Please put a tick in the box next to the answer of your choice or write in the space provided as the case may be.

Part I: Basic Information

Subject: _____ Languages Used in Class: _____

Grade: _____ Date: _____

Section II: Evaluation of Class Performance (in English, Chinese or Spanish)

1. What is your overall assessment of today's class (1 = insufficient - 5 = excellent)
 1 2 3 4 5
2. Which part or aspect of today's class did you find most interesting or useful compared with your previous teaching?
 All None Topic introduction Content Teaching Foreign Language Focus
 Tasks Completion Others _____
3. Which part or aspect of today's class did you find less interesting or useful compared with your previous teaching?
 All None Topics introduction Content Teaching
 Foreign Language Focus Tasks Completion Others _____
4. Did today's class achieve the subject content and language teaching objectives?
 Yes Mostly Somewhat No
5. Compared with your previous teaching method, which language skills were more

exposed in today's class?

Listening Speaking Reading Writing None All of them

6. Did the students' performance in class meet your expectations ?

Yes No Somewhat

7. Will this teaching method be useful and applicable in your future work?

Definitely Mostly Somewhat Not at all

8. Which part of today's class could be improved?

All None Subject Content Teaching Foreign Language Focus

Tasks Completion Others _____

Section III: Class Observation and Comments (in English, Chinese or Spanish)

9. Class observation (just record how the students behaved during class, such as more/less motivated in speaking, more/less participation in task completion etc.).

10. Comments and suggestions (including activities or initiatives you think would be useful, or more interesting or more motivating for foreign language and subject content teaching)

11. Further comments or suggestions.

Thank you!

Appendix XV: Participants' Background Statistics

Participants	Age	Gender	Residence	H. Language	M. Tongue	Other FL	Edu. Background
Group 1: EFL learners from Lindenwood University, U.S.A							
Participant 1	18	male	USA	Spanish	Spanish	Portuguese	Undergraduate 1
Participant 2	20	male	USA	Spanish	Spanish	Russian	Undergraduate 1
Participant 3	19	female	USA	Spanish	Spanish	None	Undergraduate 1
Participant 4	19	male	USA	Chinese	Chinese	None	Undergraduate 1
Participant 5	26	male	USA	Spanish	Spanish	None	Undergraduate 1
Participant 6	18	female	USA	Chinese	Chinese	None	Undergraduate 1
Participant 7	19	female	USA	Russian	Russian	None	Undergraduate 1
Participant 8	20	female	USA	Russian	Russian	None	Undergraduate 1
Participant 9	19	male	USA	Spanish	Spanish	None	Undergraduate 1
Participant 10	19	male	USA	Spanish	Spanish	None	Undergraduate 1
Group 2: EFL learners from Lindenwood University, U.S.A							
Participants	Age	Gender	Residence	H. Language	M. Tongue	Other FL	Edu. Background
Participant 1	20	female	USA	Spanish	Spanish	Portuguese	Undergraduate 1
Participant 2	20	male	USA	Spanish	Spanish	Russian	Undergraduate 1
Participant 3	19	female	USA	Spanish	Spanish	None	Undergraduate 1
Participant 4	19	male	USA	Chinese	Chinese	None	Undergraduate 1
Participant 5	22	male	USA	Spanish	Spanish	None	Undergraduate 1
Participant 6	18	female	USA	Chinese	Chinese	None	Undergraduate 1
Participant 7	19	female	USA	Chinese	Chinese	None	Undergraduate 1
Participant 8	20	female	USA	Chinese	Chinese	None	Undergraduate 1
Participant 9	19	male	USA	Spanish	Spanish	None	Undergraduate 1
Participant 10	19	male	USA	Spanish	Spanish	None	Undergraduate 1
Group 3: EFL learners from Zhengzhou University, China							
Participants	Age	Gender	Residence	H. Language	M. Tongue	Other FL	Edu. Background
Participant 1	19	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 2	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 3	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 4	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 5	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 6	18	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 7	20	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 8	19	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 9	20	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 10	20	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 11	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 12	19	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 13	19	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 14	19	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 15	18	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2

Participant 16	18	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 17	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 18	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 19	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 20	19	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Group 4: EFL Learners from Zhengzhou University, China							
Participants	Age	Gender	Residence	H. Language	M. Tongue	Other FL	Edu. Background
Participant 1	19	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 2	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 3	19	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 4	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 5	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 6	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 7	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 8	19	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 9	18	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 10	18	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 11	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 12	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 13	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 14	18	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 15	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 16	21	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 17	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 18	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 19	22	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 20	19	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Group 5: EFL Learners from Zhengzhou University, China							
Participants	Age	Gender	Residence	H. Language	M. Tongue	Other FL	Edu. Background
Participant 1	21	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 2	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 3	21	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 4	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 5	22	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 6	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 7	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 8	19	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 9	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 10	22	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 11	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 12	19	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 13	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 14	22	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3

Participant 15	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 16	21	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 17	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 18	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 19	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 20	19	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Group 6: EFL Learners from Zhengzhou University, China							
Participants	Age	Gender	Residence	H. Language	M. Tongue	Other FL	Edu. Background
Participant 1	21	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 2	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 3	19	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 4	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 5	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 6	21	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 7	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 8	22	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 9	22	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 10	18	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 11	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 12	22	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 13	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 14	22	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 15	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 16	21	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 17	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 18	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 19	22	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Participant 20	21	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 3
Group 7: EFL Learners from Hainan University, China							
Participants	Age	Gender	Residence	H. Language	M. Tongue	Other FL	Edu. Background
Participant 1	19	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 2	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 3	19	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 4	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 5	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 6	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 7	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 8	19	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 9	20	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 10	18	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 11	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 12	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 13	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2

Participant 14	20	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 15	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 16	21	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 17	20	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 18	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 19	21	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 20	21	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Group 8: EFL Learners from Hainan University, China							
Participants	Age	Gender	Residence	H. Language	M. Tongue	Other FL	Edu. Background
Participant 1	22	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 2	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 3	21	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 4	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 5	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 6	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 7	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 8	19	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 9	21	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 10	18	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 11	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 12	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 13	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 14	21	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 15	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 16	21	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 17	19	male	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 18	20	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 19	22	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Participant 20	19	female	China	Chinese	Chinese	dialect	Undergraduate 2
Group 9: CFL Learners from Tia Tula, Salamanca, Spain							
Participants	Age	Gender	Residence	H. Language	M. Tongue	Other FL	Edu. Background
Participant 1	15	female	Spain	Spanish	Spanish	German	Senior High School
Participant 2	14	male	Spain	Spanish	Spanish	French	Senior High School
Participant 3	15	male	Spain	Spanish	Spanish	Greek	Senior High School
Participant 4	16	female	Spain	Spanish	Spanish	French	Senior High School
Participant 5	15	male	Spain	Spanish	Spanish	English	Senior High School
Participant 6	18	male	Spain	Spanish	Spanish	German	Undergraduate 1
Participant 7	17	female	Spain	Spanish	Spanish	English	Undergraduate 2
Participant 8	15	male	Spain	Spanish	Spanish	English	Senior High School
Participant 9	14	male	Spain	Spanish	Spanish	English	Senior High School
Participant 10	15	female	Spain	Spanish	Spanish	English	Senior High School
Group 10: CFL Learners from Tia Tula, Salamanca, Spain							
Participants	Age	Gender	Residence	H. Language	M. Tongue	Other FL	Edu. Background

Participant 1	16	male	Spain	Spanish	Spanish	German	Senior High School	
Participant 2	15	male	Spain	Spanish	Spanish	French	Senior High School	
Participant 3	15	female	Spain	Spanish	Spanish	Greek	Senior High School	
Participant 4	16	female	Spain	Spanish	Spanish	French	Senior High School	
Participant 5	15	male	Spain	Spanish	Spanish	English	Senior High School	
Participant 6	15	female	Spain	Spanish	Spanish	English	Senior High School	
Participant 7	14	male	Spain	Spanish	Spanish	English	Senior High School	
Participant 8	15	female	Spain	Spanish	Spanish	English	Senior High School	
Group 11: CFL Learners from Central Foundation Boys' School								
Participants	Age	Gender	Residence	H. Language	M. Tongue	Other FL	Edu. Background	
Participant 1	15	male	UK	English	English	French	Senior High School	
Participant 2	14	male	UK	English	English	Spanish	Senior High School	
Participant 3	16	male	UK	English	English	Spanish	Senior High School	
Participant 4	16	male	UK	English	English	French	Senior High School	
Participant 5	15	male	UK	English	English	German	Senior High School	
Participant 6	16	male	UK	English	English	French	Senior High School	
Participant 7	15	male	UK	English	English	French	Senior High School	
Participant 8	15	male	UK	English	English	Spanish	Senior High School	
Participant 9	16	male	UK	English	English	Spanish	Senior High School	
Participant 10	16	male	UK	English	English	Spanish	Senior High School	
Group 12: CFL Learners from Central Foundation Boys' School								
Participants	Age	Gender	Residence	H. Language	M. Tongue	Other FL	Edu. Background	
Participant 1	15	male	UK	English	English	French	Senior High School	
Participant 2	15	male	UK	English	English	Spanish	Senior High School	
Participant 3	16	male	UK	English	English	Spanish	Senior High School	
Participant 4	16	male	UK	English	English	French	Senior High School	
Participant 5	15	male	UK	English	English	German	Senior High School	
Participant 6	16	male	UK	English	English	French	Senior High School	
Participant 7	15	male	UK	English	English	French	Senior High School	
Participant 8	15	male	UK	English	English	Spanish	Senior High School	
Participant 9	16	male	UK	English	English	Spanish	Senior High School	
Participant 10	16	male	UK	English	English	Spanish	Senior High School	
Participant 11	15	male	UK	English	English	Spanish	Senior High School	
Participant 12	16	male	UK	English	English	Spanish	Senior High School	
The Teachers' Background Statistics								
Participant	Gender	Residence	Experience	T. Language	M. Tongue	Intermediate L.	Preferred T. M.	Groups
Teacher 1	Female	USA	5 years	TEFL	English	English	CLT	Group 1 & 2
Teacher 2	Male	CHINA	7 years	TEFL	Chinese	Chinese	GTM	Group 3 & 4
Teacher 3	Male	CHINA	10 years	TEFL	Chinese	Chinese	Mixed	Group 5 & 6
Teacher 4	Female	CHINA	9 years	TEFL	Chinese	Chinese	TBLT	Group 7 & 8
Teacher 5	Female	SPAIN	6 years	TCFL	Chinese	Mixed	Mixed	Group 9 & 10
Teacher 6	Female	UK	12 years	TCFL	English	English	GTM	Group 11 & 12

