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Pour ma famille

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List of abbreviations

CBS – City-based school
CEFR – Common European Framework of Reference
CHS – Competitive high school
CLIL – Content and Language Integrated Learning
DWP – Dynamic, Weighted, Politomic
EFL – English as a foreign language
EMI – English as a medium of instruction
EMILE – Enseignement d’une Matière Intégré à une Langue Etrangère
ESL – English as a second language
ESP – English for Specific Purposes
FL – Foreign Language
L1 – First language
L2 – Second language
MOET – Ministry of Education and Training
T – Teacher
UBS – University-based school

INTRODUCTION

1. The CLIL project in Vietnam

In 2008, the Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) launched the implementation of CLIL through the National Foreign Language 2020 Project (hereafter Project 2020). The general goal of the project was to enable Vietnamese youth to be able to communicate confidently in a foreign language in an integrated, multicultural environment, serving the cause of the industrialisation and modernisation of the country (MOET, 2008). This project was presented as an attempt to remedy the "English crisis" experienced by the country since 1986. CLIL implementation is one specific task among others of the project, such as: writing a new set of English textbooks, retraining teachers of English, renovating English tests, etc. The project was supposed to last until 2020, but owing to what seemed to be "poor results", it has been revised again and again. I myself got involved in Project 2020 as a trainer of English teachers and found myself interested in the CLIL implementation aspect of the project.

2. My own journey from a language learner to the CLIL project

Being raised and educated in a very traditional way, I can describe myself as a typical Vietnamese student. My parents value education highly and always did everything possible to provide me with a good education. I remember that every book in my house needed to be wrapped and stored very carefully. As a little child, I was obedient – a very positive word to describe a child in Vietnam. I listened attentively to the teachers and never questioned them. I worked hard and was a high-achieving student at all levels. As a result, I was always selected for the schools or classes for high-achieving students. When I entered high school, I was oriented to choose English as a major by my parents because "English is the key to opening the door to the world", as they said. At high school, I was taught all the very difficult grammatical rules. The teacher explained them in Vietnamese. Hardly ever did we practice speaking or listening. Our main learning activities were memorising rules, learning new words, and even memorising English texts in the textbooks. As a result, I could not speak a word of English and could not understand spoken English. Still, I got high results in the entrance exam to the university because the exam only tested English grammar and reading skills. When I entered university, with that family tradition which values education highly, I chose a pedagogical school to become a teacher.

It was not until university that I learned the communicative skills. This was the first time I had listened to English recordings and learned to speak English. I was excited about language activities like role-plays, and information-gap activities. Despite that, the class had students of different levels, i.e. students coming from rural areas who had low English ability were placed in the same class as students who had better English ability. In 2007, I graduated from

University of Languages and International Studies, Hanoi with good results in comparison with my peers. Then, I was recruited by the same university to be a teacher of English. I did my Master's degree in English linguistics at the same university and, while still teaching there, I completed my Master's degree in 2011.

In 2011 and 2012, I participated in the Project 2020 mentioned above as a teacher-trainer. I travelled around the country to deliver short training courses for school teachers of English. I was very interested in the CLIL implementation aspect of the project. On the one hand, I was very excited by this CLIL implementation because teaching scientific subjects in English would mean better enabling students to access knowledge, as they would not have to confine themselves to the materials written in Vietnamese. On the other hand, with my experience as a teacher-trainer, I wondered how students and teachers would appropriate the project. I wanted to discover what was going on in these CLIL classrooms. Then, in 2014, I obtained a scholarship from MOET to do a PhD abroad. As a matter of fact, I chose CLIL as the topic for my PhD. Fortunately, CLIL was also an area of research of LAIRDIL and I was lucky to be accepted in the laboratory by Professor Raby. The experience in a new country, a new culture, and a new learning environment greatly changed my perspective.

3. Purpose of the study

Although this CLIL project has received a lot of public attention in Vietnam, very little research on CLIL has been carried out in the country. The scanty literature on the subject comes from pedagogues or institutions, rarely from researchers. This means that they are centred on the characteristics of CLIL courses/textbooks, or institutional features (number of hours of content teaching in CLIL, qualifications of teachers, origins of students, colleges catering for CLIL courses, etc.), rarely as a teaching process implying social, cognitive and cultural interactions. Therefore, we have decided to study CLIL as a *dispositif*[1] (Raby, 2015), i.e. a user-centred model. The teaching system becomes a *dispositif* once it functions, once it is being used. The question is, then, how do CLIL actors appropriate the learning system (or not)?

4. Limitations

I must admit that working at LAIRDIL in Toulouse while investigating CLIL in Vietnam was much harder than I had initially thought. Personally, my French was not very good. Also, while carrying out the research, my family was expanded by the birth of a second child for whom I was able to find a place in a kindergarten only one year later. Furthermore, we had some difficulty in the data collection process, as the Vietnamese in general are very kind and warm-hearted, but not very open when it comes to "investigation". Scientifically, we could not borrow from previous research articulating learning and motivational theories or models of CLIL, especially in Vietnam. Therefore, our study can only be seen as a pilot study laying the ground for further scientific inquiries. Last but not least, I had to acquire a new Language for Specific Purpose culture from the French language papers, even though I could hardly speak French on arriving. Therefore, I am aware that the French literature on the subject has not received the place it deserved in this document. Fortunately, CLIL/EMILE had received a lot of attention among LAIRDIL researchers (Gail Taillefer, Claire Chaplier, Anne-Marie O'Connell, Nolwenna Monnier, etc.) and we were able to get strong support from my colleagues.

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[1] Unable to find an accurate translation of the term "*dispositif*" (apparatus, artifact, device), we decided to keep the French term.

Our project was designed to use Coyle's (2006) CLIL 4Cs model and Raby's motivation model in order to carry out our research. Coyle's CLIL model, which calls for an analysis of the interactions between content, language, cognition and culture, will be detailed later on in Chapter 4. Raby's motivation model will be detailed in Chapter 3. In order to implement this analysis, we needed to be able to elaborate a triangular methodology, illustrated by Raby's (2007) study on motivation in a language centre. With such a methodology, the kinds of data required are: observations of CLIL courses, comparisons of students' performances between CLIL and non-CLIL students, and comparisons across CLIL classes. However, despite our efforts, we could only carry out questionnaires and interviews, focused on students' and teachers' motivations and evaluations of CLIL. Therefore, we had to lay the ground for further scientific studies on CLIL and limit the focus of my study. We concentrated on CLIL representation and cross-check students' and teachers' perceptions. The analysis shed light on the question of the CLIL crisis and the reasons why the general perception of CLIL efficiency is so low. Therefore, in the conclusion of this pilot field work, we were able to make some suggestions in order to improve the CLIL pedagogical system.

5. The presentation of the document

The thesis is divided into eight chapters. Each chapter is intended to be read independently, so there may be some repetition.

In Chapter 1, we describe the educational context of Vietnam. Firstly, an introduction of Vietnamese education is given. Some historical factors that had strong impacts on the current situation of the education system are mentioned. A detailed description of the system and its characteristics are given. The second part of the chapter is devoted to the description of English language teaching and learning in Vietnam. In this part, the current situation of English teaching at schools, at universities and in the language centres is described.

In the next chapter, the institutional background of CLIL all over the world is reviewed. Firstly, the concept of CLIL is examined. Secondly, CLIL policies and practices all over the world are considered, followed by a description of CLIL policies and practice in France and in Vietnam.

Chapter 3 reviews the theories of motivation in language learning. In the first part of the chapter, we review the main theories of motivation. In the second part, research on motivation in the Asian contexts is reviewed. Finally, we present Raby's theory of motivation, which serves as the theoretical framework for the present study.

Chapter 4 deals with the theoretical background of CLIL. Firstly, different CLIL models and its core features are reviewed. Considering that the goal of this study is to confront the virtual assets of CLIL to the actual teaching practices of CLIL in Vietnam, a review of CLIL didactics is necessary. On the one hand, we wish to help improve CLIL models from a scientific and not a purely pedagogical perspective. From that, we wish to elaborate on some recommendations addressed to the national and local authorities in Vietnam with a view to helping to improve CLIL courses and organisation. On the other hand, as the dissertation will be available to CLIL teachers, we hope that the dissertation will call forth some self-reflection on their own CLIL teaching. Secondly, the research studies in CLIL and motivation in a variety of contexts will be reviewed. The chapter ends with a discussion on CLIL debates, possibilities and difficulties.

Chapter 5 presents the research design of the study. The setting of the three schools chosen for the study and the participants is described. The data collection instruments, and data collection and analysis procedures are presented in detail.

In Chapter 6, we present and comment upon the results of the first students' questionnaire carried out in the school year 2015-2016 when the students had experienced the CLIL *dispositif* for several months.

In Chapter 7, we present the results of the second students' questionnaire carried out in the school year 2016-2017 when the students had experienced the *dispositif* for one and a half years, and we discuss the evolution of their perceptions.

In Chapter 8, we present and comment upon the results of the teachers' interviews conducted at the first stage of data collection.

In the conclusion, we summarise the most important results and make some suggestions to improve the *dispositif*.

1.

THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

An understanding of the context where teachers and students work is necessary in order to understand their behaviours, perceptions, and motivations (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011; Dörnyei, 2007; Borg, 2006). Thus, this chapter sets the study in its context. In the first section, an overview of the Vietnamese public education system is presented. In the second section, the teaching of English in public schools is reviewed.

1.1. VIETNAMESE EDUCATION THROUGHOUT HISTORY

Vietnam is an S-shaped country in Southeast Asia. It borders China to the north, Laos and Cambodia to the west, the Pacific Ocean to the east and the Gulf of Thailand to the southeast. Its surface area is approximately 310,000 square kilometres. The country is divided into 63 centrally managed provinces. There are four major cities: Hanoi (the capital) and Hai Phong in the north, Da Nang in the centre, and Ho Chi Minh City in the south. The total population was about 95 million inhabitants in 2016. There are 54 ethnic groups, with the Kinh group accounting for nearly 90% of the population. The official language is Vietnamese.

1.1.1. The feudal period

1.1.1.1. The purpose of education and the curriculum

During the feudal period (up to the late 19th century), Vietnam was continually under the domination of the Chinese. Therefore, Chinese culture has had a great influence on Vietnamese education. The main objective of education in this period was to train the children of the rich or the bureaucrats to become 'gentlemen'. Regarding the content, learners first studied philosophical doctrines, then literature along with morals throughout all of their studies. Later on, public administration and simple mathematics were taught. The three major philosophical doctrines to be learned were Confucianism, Taoism, and Buddhism; Confucianism was the dominant one.[2] At that time, Vietnam used adapted Chinese written characters. With regard to the teaching methods, learners were made to rote memorise what was written in the books.

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[2] Confucianism is a philosophical system of ethics, values, and moral precepts that provide the foundations for a stable and orderly society and guidance for the ways of life for most people in Sinic society. Confucinism as a philosophy and ideology is predominantly humanist, collectivist and hierarchical in nature (Pang, 2011).

1.1.1.2. The organisation of schools and universities

The first university was built in 1076 by King Ly Nhan Tong. At first, it was the place of study for the prince, and then for the children of the functionaries. The first examination was administered in the same year. Its purpose was to recruit loyal civil servants. According to Le (2011), the desire to pass the examination was so strong that a family would do their best to support a learner in the hope that he would bring glory and pride to the family, clan and community at some future date. This explains why teaching and learning at all levels of education, from elementary through to higher levels, has always been and remains examination-oriented.

1.1.2. French colonisation

At the end of the 19th century and in the first half of the 20th century, the French colonised Vietnam and the whole of Indochina. Traditional Confucian-oriented education was replaced by French-Vietnamese education, which was aimed mainly at training people to serve the colonial apparatus. The new educational system emphasised scientific and vocational education. Students were taught sciences such as physics, chemistry, law, geography, and biology in addition to French literature. The French promoted what was called '*Chu quoc ngu*' – a new script based on the simpler phonetically-based Latin alphabet. This system was first developed by a French missionary, Alexandre de Rhodes, in the 17th century in order to translate and write Catholic religious material in Vietnamese. The French-style educational system seemed to have more merits in comparison with the Confucian one. However, it was only accessible to a small number of children of French colonists who were trained to become functionaries in the colonial administration. As a result, under the French-Vietnamese education system, 95% of Vietnamese were illiterate.

1.1.3. After French colonisation

After the end of French colonialism in 1954, Vietnam was divided into North Vietnam and South Vietnam. Then, the country was reunified, marking the end of the war against the Americans in 1975. During that period, North

Vietnam followed the Soviet model of education, which emphasised narrow specialisations. South Vietnam adopted the American model of education, which stressed greater access to education, and a broader and more practical form of education. It can be said that the system of Competitive High Schools in Vietnam, which will be discussed later in this chapter, is one of the 'heritages' of the Soviet model of education.

1.2. THE CURRENT NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

1.2.1. Vietnamese educational system

Since 1975, the educational system has been unified throughout the country. Education in Vietnam falls into five levels: pre-school, primary school, secondary school, high school, and higher education (see Figure 1). Formal education lasts 12 years from primary school to high school.

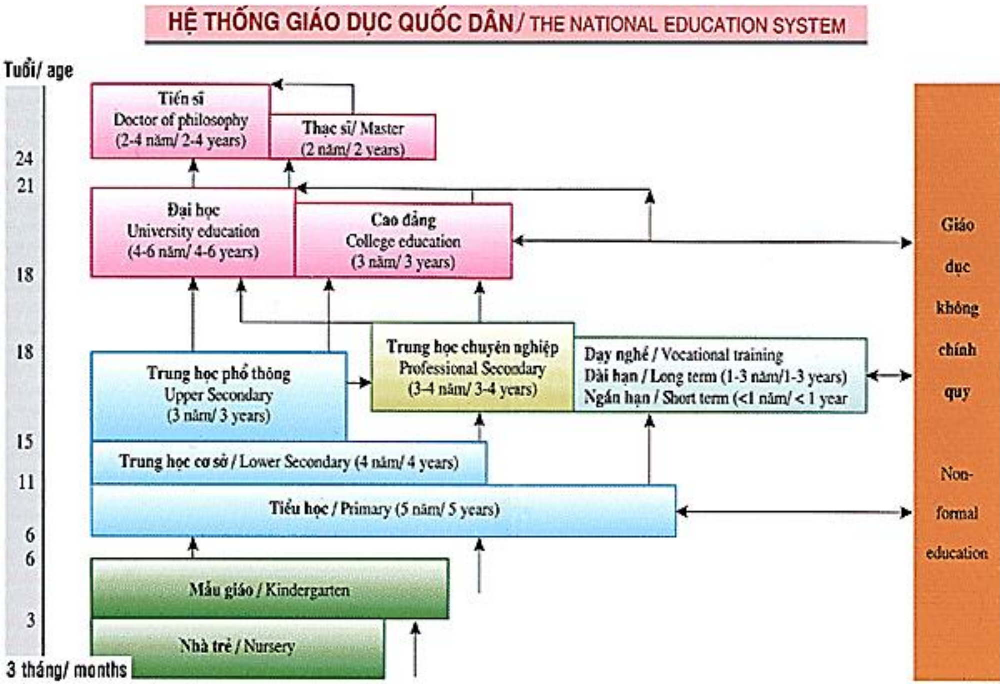

HỆ THỐNG GIÁO DỤC QUỐC DÂN/ THE NATIONAL EDUCATION SYSTEM
Tuổi/ age
24
21
18
18
15
11
6
6
3
3 tháng/ months
Tiến sĩ
Doctor of philosophy
(2-4 năm/ 2-4 years)
Thạc sĩ/ Master
(2 năm/ 2 years)
Đại học
University education
(4-6 năm/ 4-6 years)
Cao đẳng
College education
(3 năm/ 3 years)
Trung học chuyên nghiệp
Professional Secondary
(3-4 năm/ 3-4 years)
Dạy nghề / Vocational training
Dài hạn / Long term (1-3 năm/1-3 years)
Ngắn hạn / Short term (<1 năm/ < 1 year
Trung học phổ thông
Upper Secondary
(3 năm/ 3 years)
Trung học cơ sở / Lower Secondary (4 năm/ 4 years)
Tiểu học / Primary (5 năm/ 5 years)
Mẫu giáo / Kindergarten
Nhà trẻ / Nursery
Giáo dục không chính quy
Non-formal education

Figure 1 – The Vietnamese education system (MOET, 2015, p.7)

1.2.1.1. Primary school

Children normally start primary education at the age of six. Education at this level lasts for five years (grades 1-5) and is compulsory for all children. The country's literacy rate is over 90%. Some primary schools, especially in the big cities, propose a foreign language in the curriculum.

1.2.1.2. Secondary school

After finishing primary school, learners go directly to secondary school without the need to pass any formal examination. However, certain secondary schools implement a selection process for pupils based on the results of their final tests in grade 5. These schools are often 'notorious'. Secondary school or intermediate education lasts for four years (grades 6-9) and is not compulsory. Students start to study a foreign language from grade 6 at school, most often English or French.

After finishing secondary school (grade 9), students need to pass the Intermediate Graduation Examination organised by the local Department of Education and Training before entering high school. The higher the score the student gets, the more prestigious the school he/she can attend.

1.2.1.3. High school and Competitive High Schools

High school education consists of grades 10-12. At this level, Vietnam has created Competitive High Schools (CHSs) for high achieving students, as mentioned earlier. Moreover, selective classes have been set up in 'normal schools' to cater for the needs of high achieving students. Each province and centrally-managed city has one or more CHS. There are 64 centrally managed provinces and four major cities in Vietnam. There are also 76 CHSs, of which nine are in fact based in universities and are managed by the universities. According to the Ministry of Education and Training (hereafter referred to as the MOET), in 2003, there were about 50,000 students in CHSs, who represented 1.74% of the overall student population. In order to register at a CHS, students have to pass a competitive examination. They are placed in different subject-streams according to their choice. The students have more study time for their specialist subject. The teachers and students in a CHS are under pressure to maintain the highest success rates and receive awards in national and international competitions. They are more academically competent and more motivated than those in normal schools. However, the teaching and learning styles are not significantly different.

1.2.1.4. Examination after finishing high schools

Before 2015, upon finishing their 12 years of formal education, students needed to take a graduation examination and another entrance examination in order to enrol in a university. The entrance exam was considered to be the most important examination in one's life. If he/she failed, he/she would retake the examination the following year. The entrance examination was organised in several groups, with different examinations depending on what academic field the students chose to study. The major groups included:

Group A: mathematics, physics, chemistry
Group A1: mathematics, physics, english
Group B: mathematics, biology, chemistry
Group C: literature, history, geography
Group D: literature, mathematics, foreign language (English, French, Mandarin, Japanese, German, and Russian)

Besides these groups, there were also other groups for artistic and cultural education.

In 2015, the MOET decided to merge the two examinations into one, which was called the National High School Graduation Examination. In the 2015 and 2016 examinations, each student sat at least four tests, among which were three compulsory tests for mathematics, literature, and a foreign language and one optional test for physics, chemistry, geography, biology or history. Students could choose to take more than four tests. After their results were given to them, the student could use the scores of the three tests from the group chosen to go to their desired college.

Since 2017, five tests have been included in the graduation examination: mathematics, literature, a foreign language, natural sciences, and social sciences. Three of them are obligatory: mathematics, literature, and a foreign language. In addition to these tests, students can choose to take either natural sciences or social sciences, or both, as extra ones. However, the MOET is still planning further changes to the educational programmes and examinations for the coming years.

1.2.2. The characteristics of Vietnamese education

1.2.2.1. The curriculum

The Vietnamese educational system is highly centralised. The MOET is the most important educational policy maker. Most important decisions such as curriculum design, textbooks' development, timetables, and assessment are controlled by the MOET. Schools and teachers are given little autonomy. At the primary and the secondary school levels, textbooks are commissioned and mandated by the MOET, which specifies what is taught, what is to be learned, what is assessed, and even how much time teachers should spend on the delivery of instruction. Le (2007) remarked that the instruction was largely, if not completely, textbook-driven. Teachers were reluctant to adapt textbooks to the classroom situation in order to avoid criticism from their colleagues and the authorities. The MOET has admitted that the curriculum was too rigid, lacked flexibility, too theory-focused and not practical enough (MOET, 2006). In addition, the important examinations administered by the MOET were still designed in a very traditional way, with the aim of checking that students had acquired the declarative knowledge provided by teachers or by the textbooks (Tran, 2013a).

1.2.2.2. The teachers

Regarding teachers, a number of studies suggest that Vietnamese teachers have low levels of qualification and outdated teaching methods (Le, 2011; Tran, 2013a; Nguyen, 2015). This is understandable because although teaching is considered to be a noble job in Vietnam, it is not a well-paid one. Admission to pedagogical universities is not very difficult. The majority of teachers have more than one working commitment with more than one employer in order to make ends meet. Most of them are overworked and thus lack the time necessary for teaching preparations. Moreover, promotions and salary increases are based on age, not on merit or performance. Therefore, the most enthusiastic teachers who are keen to apply new teaching methods sooner or later become disheartened.

1.2.2.3. The students

Considering the above characteristics of the educational system, it is understandable that Vietnamese learners adopt a passive learning style (Tran, 2013a; Van Canh and Barnard, 2009; Le Ha, 2004). Vietnamese learners emphasise repetition and the memorisation of factual information from textbooks.

Students often seek to obey their teachers rather than challenge or criticise them. Rote memorisation is the core learning strategy. Huyen describes the Vietnamese teaching and learning strategies in the old days as follows:

> *Very little attention was given to developing the critical spirit which was of no avail in a system based on the absolute respect of books... [As a result,] the philosopher, the scholar, are not men who are deep thinkers and with vast observation, but those who have read many books and retained many things. This exaggerated respect of books inevitably made old teachers transform their students into veritable receptacles. Committing to memory was an absolute priority ... Written exercises were only aimed at consolidating the memorising of the formulas of the book. The students, due to being constantly in this passive role, became incapable of reflection and personal judgement. (Huyen, 2002, p.293)*

Canh (2002) remarked that Vietnamese students are very traditional in their learning styles in the way that they are quiet and attentive in the classroom. Vietnamese students are very good at memorising and following instructions, but they are reluctant to participate (despite knowing the answers). They shy away from oral skills and from group interaction; they are meticulous in their note-taking; they go 'by the book' and rely on information pointed out to them; and they regard the teacher as the complete source of knowledge. As a result, Vietnamese students do not have the skills that allow them to comprehend new ideas and to cope with changes and difficulties quickly and successfully. Nor do they have the analytical skills that will help them to understand the essence of academic issues (Hoang, 2009).

Vietnamese educators largely agree on the passive learning style of Vietnamese learners. However, they do not agree on the causes of their passiveness. Some authors attribute the passive learning style of Asian students to the Confucian heritage culture, the ethics of which are characterised as equality over freedom, sympathy over rationality, civility over law, duty over rights, and human-relatedness over individualism. Others disagree; they argue that the passive learning style of Vietnamese students is likely to be a consequence of the educational contexts that have been provided for them, rather than of any inherent dispositions of the students themselves (Littlewood, 2000; Tran, 2013b). Tran remarked that:

> *[T]he outdated educational management system, heavy learning curriculum, "rote" teaching, learning and testing styles, limited access to other academic resources apart from textbooks and lecturers, family traditional thoughts, the study condition of university students, and common perception of student learning all lead students to be less active in their learning. (Tran, 2013b, p.80)*

1.2.2.4. Parental involvement

Another important aspect of the Vietnamese educational system is the high level of parental involvement in the learning process. On the one hand, the parents value education highly, and have high academic expectations for their children. Education is considered to be 'a mechanism for upward social mobility'. Therefore, not only the parents, but the students, the teachers, and the authorities alike are examination-oriented and 'achievement-obsessed'. They make students try as hard as they can to be admitted to a university and get a 'good job'. As noted by Le (2007), Vietnamese learners still expect education to provide them with access to power, rather than to ameliorate the nature and social conditions of their existence. According to him, their fondness of learning is attributed to their strong motivation to learn to pass their exams in order to become government officials or civil servants.

On the other hand, the parents are often the ones who make the most of the important decisions affecting school matters, such as which group of subjects the students should focus on, which university the students should apply for, whether they should go to big cities to study or not, etc. As a result, Vietnamese students have little incentive to plan their own future.

1.3. ENGLISH TEACHING AND LEARNING IN VIETNAM

The period from 1986 up to the present has witnessed the rapid growth and expansion of English language teaching and learning in Vietnam since the country declared its 'open-door' policy. The 'open-door' policy paved the way for foreign investors to set up businesses in Vietnam, resulting in a rapidly increasing demand for English language learning. English has become the most important language learned in Vietnam. It is taught in schools, universities, and foreign language centres all over the country. The ability to communicate in English has become a passport to better jobs not only in the tourism and hospitality industry but in many other enterprises as well. Numerous private English centres have been established to meet the new demand.

This 'English boom' caused a serious problem of a shortage of English teachers. Foreign language colleges have been recruiting hundreds of students of English every year. However, these graduates seem to prefer working in joint-stock or foreign companies to becoming teachers of English. To solve this demand and supply imbalance problem, numerous off-campus (*tai chuc)* English language courses were offered to those who failed to pass their national university entrance examinations. Many of these courses are not properly delivered, resulting in the teachers of English in Vietnam being of low quality, as regards both their language competence and teaching methodologies. Also, there is a disparity in English teaching between different educational institutions and different regions.

1.3.1. English teaching in state schools

1.3.1.1. English curriculum

At school level, English has been a selective subject in primary schools since 2008. It is a compulsory subject in both secondary schools and high schools. At the primary level, most schools in the cities introduce English from grade 3. Pupils study English for 90 minutes per week. The total number of hours studying English at primary school is 157.5 hours. At the secondary level, students study English from 90 to 135 minutes per week. The total number of hours studying English at this level is about 289 hours. At high school level, students study English for 135 minutes per week. The total number of hours studying English at this level is about 236 hours.

The table below summarises the number of lessons of English taught per week, and the total number of lessons for each level of education. It should be noted that each lesson lasts for 45 minutes.

Table 1 – Number of school hours allocated to English

Level of education (Grade)	**Number of lessons taught in each week**	**Total lessons**	**Total hours**
Primary (Grade 3-5)	2/week/35 weeks	210	157.5
Secondary (Grade 6-8) Secondary (Grade 9)	3/week/35 weeks 2/week/35 weeks	315 70	236.25 52.5
High school (Grade 10-12)	3/week/35 weeks	315	236.25
	Total	910	682.5

The objectives of Vietnam's English language teaching at the general education level that are expressed in the curriculum are as follows:

- *To use English as a means of communication at a certain level of proficiency in four macro-skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and to be able to read materials at the same level of their textbook, using a dictionary;*
- *To have mastered basic English phonetics and grammar, to have acquired the minimum of around 2500 vocabulary items of English;*
- *To attain a certain level of understanding of English and American cultures, to become aware of cross-cultural differences in order to be better overall communicators, to better inform the world of the Vietnamese people, their history and culture, and to take pride in Vietnam, its language and culture. (Van Van, 2010, p.11)*

The curriculum is operationalised in a set of textbooks (students' books and teachers' books) for each grade. The textbooks' structure follows a standard format. Each unit is divided into five lessons (with each lesson being prescribed to be delivered in one period), viz. listening, speaking, reading, writing, and language focus, with the last one concentrating on pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. However, the national examinations designed in accordance with the national framework are in written form only, comprising reading comprehension, grammar, and translation.

1.3.1.2. English teachers

The first contributory factor to what has been called the English language teaching 'crisis' in Vietnam is the lack of well-trained teaching staff. As mentioned in the previous sub-section, the rapidly increasing demand for English language learning caused a serious problem of a severe shortage of teachers of English. According to the MOET (cited in Yen-Anh, 2016), about 7,770 more teachers of English were needed in order for the new curriculum to be properly implemented. The teacher-student ratio was too low. Each teacher had to teach 5-10 classes of 40-50 students (Yen-Anh, 2016). The quality of the existing teachers is low in terms of both language competence and teaching methodology (Le, 2007; Hiep, 2000). A review was carried out in the 2011-2012 academic year that evaluated the teachers' proficiency in English. As can be seen from Table 2, 83% of primary school teachers, 87% of secondary school teachers and 92% of high school teachers are under-qualified to teach English.

Table 2 – Review of teacher proficiency in English (Nguyen, 2013)

	A1	**A2**	**B1**	**B2**	**C1**	**C2**
Primary school English teachers	21.1%	30.6%	30.3%	8.9%	0.3%	0%
Secondary school English teachers	14.5%	33.9%	38.7%	7.7%	0.4%	0%
High school English teachers	3.6%	17%	47.7%	23.5%	5.2%	0.1%

The teaching of English at school level has been largely conducted using teacher-centred, book-centred, and grammar-translation methods (Liu and Littlewood, 1997). Pedagogy in English language classrooms in Vietnam consists of listening to the teacher, repeating the teacher, then copying the linguistic models provided by the teacher (Kennett and Knight, 1999; Hiep, 2000).

There are some reasons behind this way of teaching and learning English. The first reason, mentioned above, is the teachers' low proficiency in English. According to Canh (2002), the teachers were generally incapable of teaching English communicatively in their real-world classrooms. Instead, they spent most of their lesson time explaining abstract grammar rules and guiding their students in choral readings. Another reason is that teachers refuse to believe in the learners' willingness to participate and their potential to express themselves fluently in English (Tomlinson and Dat, 2004). Furthermore, Vietnamese teachers in general and teachers of English in particular do not have much autonomy. They often rigidly follow the textbooks and the prescribed curriculum to be on the safe side. They hardly ever adjust the textbook to suit their students' levels and their needs. According to Le:

> *In fact, teachers experience tremendous pressure to finish the entire syllabus within the prescribed classroom time. A common phrase used by Vietnamese teachers of all subjects is 'fear of the lesson plan burnt' or 'cháy giáo án', meaning leaving the syllabus unfinished when the bell goes. Such pressure prevents teachers from being flexible in adapting the textbook to the classroom situation (Duggan, 2001), thereby making them 'considerably reluctant to reorganise the curriculum and prefer to systematically follow the textbooks in order to avoid any criticism by colleagues and authorities'. (Le, 2011, p.19)*

In addition, the classes are always large (over 40 students), the students' levels are varied, and basic facilities, like CD players and a constant power supply, are not always available. All these factors help to prevent the development of a communicative approach.

1.3.1.3. English students

It is widely accepted that the quality of teaching and learning English at the general educational level in Vietnam is very low. Yet evaluating the quality of education is by no means simple. To my knowledge, to date there has not been any previous research evaluating the quality of teaching and learning English at the school level. However, there have been some studies on the quality of English teaching and learning in higher education (Lewis and McCook, 2002; Howe, 1993; Phan, 2005; Pham, 1999; Hong, 2006; Oanh and Hien, 2006; Tran, 2007; Trang and Baldauf Jr., 2007). A common conclusion was that, after 10 years of learning, students could not use the language. According to Tran (2007), Vietnamese students had a limited vocabulary. They did not grasp basic grammar. They have poor pronunciation. Their production skills (writing and listening) were not satisfactory, and they were worse at listening skills. This was partially reflected in the results of the 2016 national examinations: over 90% of the students were below average (Vnexpress, 2016).

This low level of proficiency can be explained by different reasons. As mentioned earlier, Vietnamese students generally adopt passive learning styles in all subjects, but that passive attitude is all the more harmful in the case of language learning. Some researchers attribute this learning style to cultural heritage. For example, Le remarked that "influenced by Confucianism, students feel rude if they interrupt, question or argue with their teachers. Language activities like role plays, problem-solving tasks, or information-gap activities are strange to their culture of learning" (1999, p.75). However, some studies later challenged this view. Tomlison and Dat (2004) found a mismatch between teachers' beliefs and students' expectations. While the teachers believe their students to be passive, uninterested in classroom activities, and seldom speak English in the classroom, students complain that the teachers keep lecturing and do not give them opportunities to talk or practise interaction skills in the classroom and that the teacher-learner interaction is error-focused with little authentic dialogue.

Moreover, the students' attitudes and motivations in learning English also need to be considered. Although the students consider learning English important, they do not have an immediate need to use English. Students are more interested in passing the examination than in developing language competence, meaning that language certificates are more important than language proficiency. In a survey of 446 Vietnamese high school students, Canh (2009) found that the majority of students studied English in order to pass the examination, or simply because it was an obligatory subject at school. He also found that although about two thirds of the students surveyed were interested in learning English, they would like more grammar exercises. Besides this, the teachers also pay more attention to the 'pass rate' than to the quality of the teaching because they consider that the 'pass rate' reflects their teaching ability. Examinations are in written form only, comprising reading comprehension, grammar and translation. In addition, what is tested must be included in the textbooks and the curricula. Therefore, both the teachers and the students emphasise the memorisation of grammatical rules, grammatical accuracy, mechanical drills, and repetition (Bernat, 2004; Tomlinson and Dat, 2004; Oanh and Hien, 2006; Hiep, 2000).

1.3.2. English teaching at university level

At the university level, the teaching and learning of English is no better. Although English is one of the obligatory subjects at universities, the focus of English teaching is on the ability to read texts related to students' majors or disciplines (Nguyen, 2003). General English is taught in the first two years of university for a couple of hours a week. In most universities, students who have already learned English for three or seven years at school are placed in a class with students who have not studied English before entering university. They all learn English from the beginning with the same textbook chosen by the university. In a mixed class of 40 students, or even more than 100 students, the students who have to relearn English feel bored, while the others feel nervous and unconfident. The teaching method is again teacher-centred, book-centred, and grammar-centred. During their last two years, students start reading specialised materials, depending on the university and their major. Therefore, university students are not trained to be able to communicate in English. Many students rush to private English language centres where they believe they will be able to improve their communicative skills.

1.3.3. English teaching at private language centres

As mentioned above, private English centres are proliferating in Vietnam, particularly in the cities. The quality of teaching and learning English in these centres is quite mixed, and probably depends on the amount of money students are willing to pay. The teachers in these centres may be local teachers who have to do extra work outside school (which was mentioned earlier), native speakers from Australia, America, and the United Kingdom, or teachers from expanding circle countries such as the Philippines, Malaysia, and Singapore. The teaching materials are also diverse. They may be foreign-produced materials, ready preparations from the internet, or materials prepared by the teachers themselves. In general, the English language learning environment at private English centres is likely to be better than at public schools, with better motivated students and teachers as well as better facilities and learning resources.

1.4. SUMMARY

The educational actors' perceptions, attitudes, motivations and practice cannot be understood thoroughly and accurately without an awareness of the general historical and educational landscape of the country. This chapter has provided a contextual analysis of the Vietnamese educational system, English language education, and foreign language policies in Vietnam. It is evident that Vietnamese learners have passive learning styles, Vietnamese teachers have little autonomy in the teaching process, and the educational practice is examination-driven, book-centred, and teacher-centred. All these characteristics partly shape teachers' and students' perceptions, motivation and practice, and need to be considered in the implementation of CLIL. In the next chapter, an overview of CLIL will be given, comprising the origin and concept of CLIL, how it has been promoted and practiced around the world, and the theories underlying it.

2.

CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: AN INSTITUTIONAL BACKGROUND

This chapter gives the institutional background of CLIL. We will start with a general presentation of the CLIL system. Then, CLIL organisation, evaluation, and CLIL teachers around the world will be described. Lastly, CLIL practice in France and in Vietnam will be presented.

2.1. INTRODUCING CLIL

The term Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) was introduced in Europe in 1994 (Mehisto et al., 2008); however, CLIL practice has a longer history. Mehisto et al. (ibid) even cited the history of the Akkadians, who militarily conquered the Sumerians 5,000 years ago, and yet ended up being culturally dominated by them since they learned from them law, theology, botany, and zoology. They did so by learning the Sumerian language, thus mastering a new content while acquiring a new language.

It was not until the 1970s, with the success of the immersion programmes in Canada, that bilingual education became more easily accessible to children coming from a range of backgrounds. Immersion curricula already implied that some subjects – such as sports, maths, and geography – were taught in the target language, foreshadowing CLIL. Since the 1990s, with the advent of globalisation, CLIL has been promoted in mainstream education at all levels and all over the world (ibid).

A number of definitions of CLIL have been put forward, since the concept seems 'vague' or 'fuzzy' even to CLIL experts (e.g. Gierlinger, 2012). Marsh (2002) defined CLIL as follows:

> *CLIL can be thought of as a generic "umbrella term" which encompasses a wide range of initiatives in which the learning of second/foreign languages and other subjects has a joint curricular role in education. Usage of this term allows us to consider the myriad variations of such education without imposing restrictions which might fail to account of school or region-specific implementation characteristics...It does not give emphasis either to language teaching or learning, or to content teaching and learning, but sees both as integral parts of the whole. (Marsh, 2002, p.52)*

In the European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education, Marsh et al. define CLIL 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 predefined levels" (Marsh et al., 2012, p.11). Coyle et al. (2010) further explain that, in the CLIL teaching and learning process, the focus is not only on content, nor only on language. Each is interwoven, even if the emphasis is greater on one or the other at a given time.

CLIL can sometimes be seen as an umbrella term for a variety of approaches, methods, and programmes whose unifying hallmark is the teaching of subject content through one or more additional language(s), such as bilingual language programmes, content-based instruction, foreign languages across the curriculum, foreign languages as academic languages, dual language programmes, immersion programmes, plurilingual programmes, modular CLIL, etc. According to Garcia (2011), there are at least 33 different names to call any educational situation in which the learning of a second/foreign language(s) and other subjects has a joint curricular role in education. The website www.content-english.org lists over 40 terms that are used to refer to this focal area. According to Gierlinger (2012), one gets the feeling that trying to pinpoint CLIL is like trying to build a sandcastle out of quicksand.

Undoubtedly, there are many characteristics that CLIL shares with other types of bilingual education such as content-based instruction (CBI) and immersion education, which has been widely adopted in North American contexts (Dalton-Puffer, 2011). Ohmori (2014) placed CLIL and CBI in the same place on the continuum of English language teaching methodologies (see Figure 2).

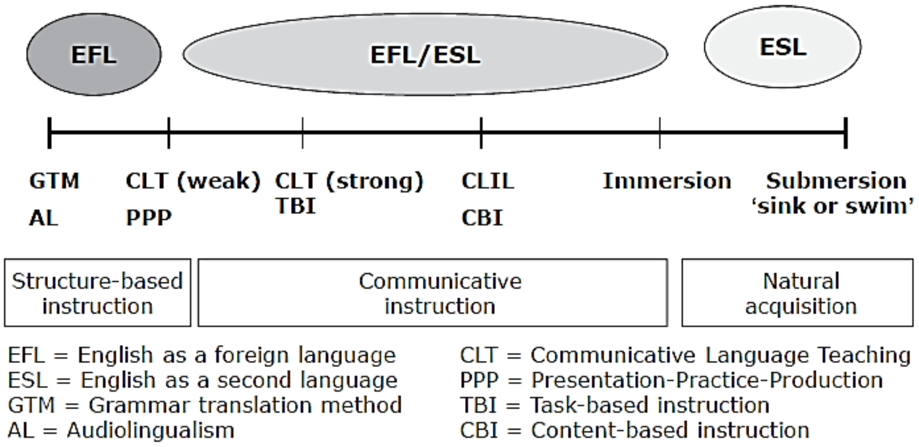

EFL
EFL/ESL
ESL
GTM
AL
CLT (weak)
PPP
CLT (strong)
TBI
CLIL
CBI
Immersion
Submersion
'sink or swim'
Structure-based instruction
Communicative instruction
Natural acquisition
EFL = English as a foreign language
ESL = English as a second language
GTM = Grammar translation method
AL = Audiolingualism
CLT = Communicative Language Teaching
PPP = Presentation-Practice-Production
TBI = Task-based instruction
CBI = Content-based instruction

Figure 2 – The position of CLIL in language teaching methodology (Ohmori, 2014, p.43)

However, according to some authors, CLIL is different from content-based language learning and immersion in a number of ways. CLIL is "a special approach to teaching in that the non-language subject is not taught *in* a foreign but *with* and *through* a foreign language" (Eurydice Report, 2006, p.7). Coyle further explains:

> *This broad definition serves to differentiate CLIL from bilingual or immersion education and a host of alternatives and variations such as content-based language teaching, English for Specific Purposes, plurilingual education; in two distinct ways: it is based on integrated approach, where both language and content are conceptualised on a continuum without an implied preference for either; it has its roots in European contexts where socio-linguistic political settings are very rich and diverse. (Coyle, 2008, p.97)*

Similarly, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009) listed some differences between CLIL and immersion as follows:

- Language of instruction: in CLIL programmes, the language of instruction is a foreign language, whereas in immersion contexts the second language (L2) is present in the students' local communities.
- Teachers: CLIL teachers, unlike most immersion teachers, are non-native speakers of the L2 used as a medium of instruction.
- Starting age: CLIL learners often start studying content in the L2 later than their immersion counterparts, with resulting differences in their amounts of exposure.
- Materials: the materials used in immersion programmes are aimed at native speakers, whereas CLIL teachers often use abridged materials.
- Language objectives: in immersion programmes the learners are expected to approach the level of native speaker competence, while in CLIL the expectations are significantly lower.
- Research: there have been longstanding research efforts in immersion programmes, whereas CLIL is still relatively under-researched.

Shaw (2013) differentiates CLIL from second-language medium instruction and Language for Specific Purposes by their aims.

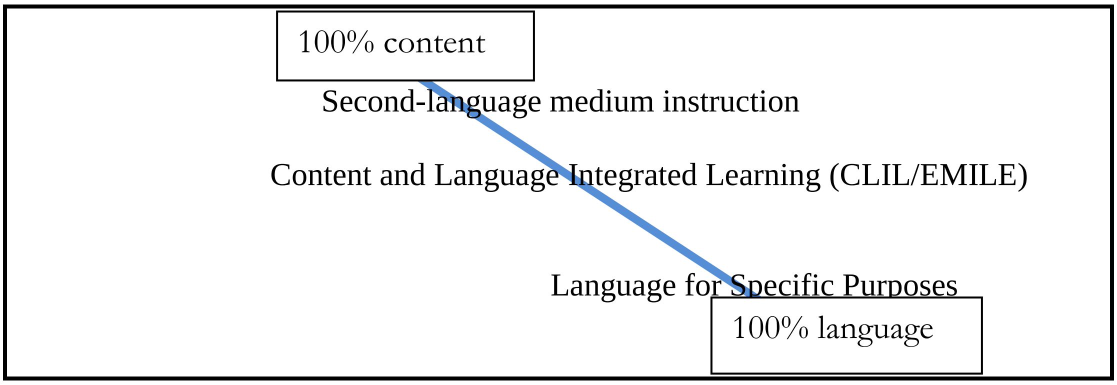

100% content
Second-language medium instruction
Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL/EMILE)
Language for Specific Purposes
100% language

Figure 3 – The EMI-LSP continuum (Shaw, 2013)

According to Shaw:

> *A course whose aims (explicit and implicit) are entirely related to acquisition of content could be called 'second-language medium instruction'. Here the second language is being used for external practical reasons, or possibly because (as has been claimed for Information Technology) it is the default language for the discipline. In such cases the instructor and students need only to consider how ELF attitudes and practices can be adopted to maximize the efficiency of communication. […] At the opposite extreme, courses whose aims are entirely linguistic are LSP courses of a limited type, which focus on the language forms and rhetoric needed by the learners. Somewhere in between the two extremes are courses which have implicit or explicit language-improvement aims alongside content-mastery aims, and consequently practices (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010). These courses are called CLIL (Content and language Integrated Learning) or* EMILE *(Marsh and Nikula 1999).* (Shaw, 2013)

In our view, the notion of a continuum is relevant but the extremes are wrong, since in all cases both of the two – content subject and language – are called for.

Due to the flexible nature of CLIL, there is a huge variety of CLIL programmes. Grin (2005) remarked that there were 216 types of CLIL programmes, based on language intensity, level, age, compulsory status, and duration. Mehisto et al. (2008) described 13 CLIL programmes from short-term, low-intensity exposure to high-intensity, long-term programmes: language showers, CLIL camps, student exchanges, local projects, international projects, family stays, modules, working-studying abroad, one or more subjects, partial immersion, total immersion, two-way immersion, and double immersion. As mentioned earlier, some authors listed immersion as a type of CLIL, while others saw them as two different approaches. Ohmori (2014) offered four criteria for describing CLIL, comprising purpose, frequency, ratio, and medium of instruction.

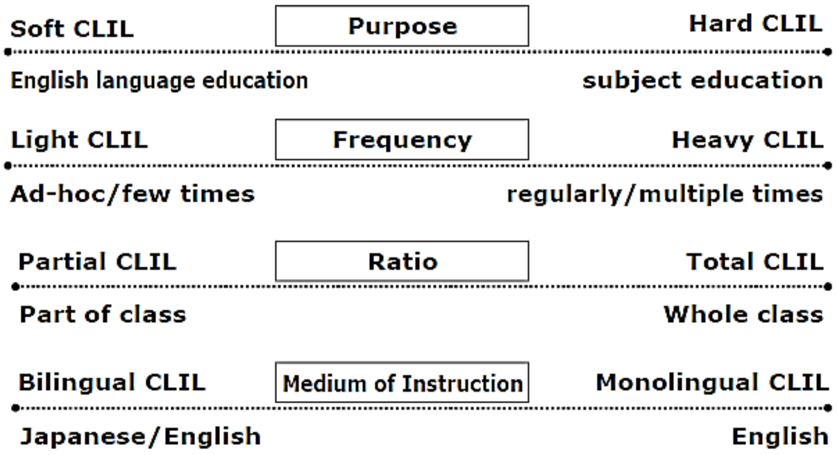

Soft CLIL
Purpose
Hard CLIL
English language education
subject education
Light CLIL
Frequency
Heavy CLIL
Ad-hoc/few times
regularly/multiple times
Partial CLIL
Ratio
Total CLIL
Part of class
Whole class
Bilingual CLIL
Medium of Instruction
Monolingual CLIL
Japanese/English
English

Figure 4 – Variants of CLIL (Ohmori, 2014, p.44)

Similarly, Clegg (2003) identifies 14 other criteria, including ownership, objectives and the degree of explicit language and/or subject teaching.

On the evolution of CLIL across different educational settings, Coyle contended:

> *As the CLIL movement evolves, different variations become rooted in distributed contexts. On a European level, the diversity of potential models demanded a re-visioning of bilingual education according to national and regional contexts – clearly CLIL in Luxembourg or Scotland or Switzerland will differ significantly from CLIL in Sweden or France or Spain due to social and cultural differences including linguistic diversity and attitudes to English. As Baetens-Beardsmore comments (1993) 'no model is for export' although sharing ideas and collaboration is essential. (Coyle, 2006, p.3)*

Similarly, Coonan stated that:

> *CLIL models are by no means uniform. They are elaborated at a local level to respond to local conditions and desires. Indeed the characteristics of CLIL developments in Europe show a great variety of solutions. It is the combination of the choices in respect to the variables that produce a particular CLIL. (Coonan, 2003, in Coyle, 2008, p.100)*

Llinares and Morton (2017) also realised that the actual programmes were different or similar not because they were called CLIL or CBI, but due to geographical, political, and methodological variables. Recently, researchers have argued that the description of what a CLIL programme is or is expected to be in comparison with other already existing programmes has been problematic and has not facilitated comparative studies (ibid).

In the context of Vietnam, Dalton-Puffer's description of a CLIL programme (2011, p.183-184) perfectly matches the CLIL project of the country in this study:

- CLIL is about using a foreign language or a lingua franca, not a second language (L2). That is, the language of instruction is one that students will mainly encounter in the classroom, given that it is not regularly used in the wider society they live in.
- The dominant CLIL language is English, reflecting the fact that a command of English as an additional language is increasingly regarded as a key literacy feature worldwide.
- CLIL also implies that teachers will normally be non-native speakers of the target language. They are not, in most cases, foreign language experts, but instead content experts, because "classroom content is not so much taken from everyday life or the general content of the target language culture but rather from content subjects, from academic/scientific disciplines or from the professions" (Wolff, 2007, p.15-16).
- This means that CLIL lessons are usually timetabled as content lessons (e.g. biology, music, geography, mechanical engineering), while the target language normally continues as a subject in its own right in the shape of foreign language lessons taught by language specialists.
- In CLIL programmes, typically less than 50% of the curriculum is taught in the target language.
- Furthermore, CLIL is usually implemented once learners have already acquired literacy skills in their first language (L1), which is more often at the secondary level than the primary.

2.2. CLIL IN PRACTICE

2.2.1. CLIL geography

The adoption of CLIL at an international level is increasing at a pace which "has surprised even its most ardent advocates" (Maljers et al., 2007, p.7). In Europe, where the term was coined, CLIL-type provision is part of mainstream school education in the vast majority of countries at the primary and secondary levels (Eurydice Report, 2006). In Latin America, although reports on CLIL-related issues have only recently started to become accessible (Dalton-Puffer, 2011), what is clear from the existence of the electronic journal *Latin American Journal of Content and Language Integrated Learning* is that CLIL has become a visible trend which is spanning geographically.

The British Council conducted a study on English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in 60 countries where English is not the first language, to which 55 countries responded, from October 2013 to March 2014. As can be seen from the map in Figure 5, CLIL has become a global trend.

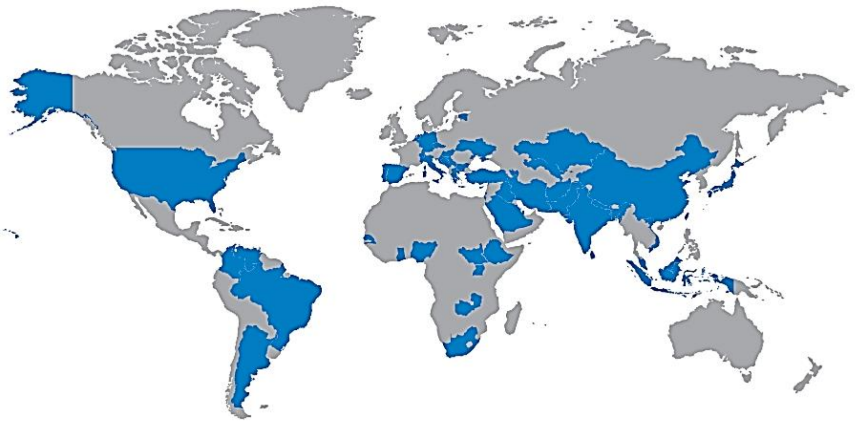


Figure 5 – Countries participating in the survey on EMI by British Council (Dearden, 2014, p.6)

However, it was noted in the Eurydice Report (2006) that the fact that a substantial majority of countries have introduced some form of CLIL provision does not mean that it is now offered to virtually all those who attend school. On the contrary, the CLIL approach has not yet been widely adopted and concerns only a very small proportion of pupils or students (Eurydice Report, 2006).

2.2.2. CLIL policies around the world

CLIL is increasingly gaining popularity all over the world. In Asia, during the last decade, several countries have taken steps to embed CLIL in their national curriculum. For instance, CLIL was adopted in Malaysia in 2003 (Yassin et al., 2009), in Thailand in 2006 (Suwannoppharat and Chinokul, 2015), in Indonesia in 2006 as well (Floris, 2014) and in Hong Kong in 2009 (Leung, 2013).

In most places, the implementation of CLIL has been fuelled from two directions: high-level policymaking and grass-roots actions, with the latter dovetailing parental and teacher choices (Dalton-Puffer, 2011). The rationale behind CLIL differs somewhat across countries or specific schools. In Europe, depending on the country concerned, importance is attached to:

- *Preparing pupils for life in a more internationalised society and offering them better job prospects in the labour market (socio-economic objectives);*

> - *Conveying to pupils values of tolerance and respect vis-à-vis other cultures, through the use of the CLIL target language (socio-cultural objectives);*
> - *Enabling pupils to develop:*
>   - *Language skills which emphasise effective communication, motivating pupils to learn languages by using them for real practical purposes (linguistic objectives);*
>   - *Subject-related knowledge and learning ability, stimulating the assimilation of subject matter by means of a different and innovative approach (educational objectives). (Eurydice Report, 2006, p.22)*

In Asia, similarly to Europe, CLIL has been implemented with socio-economic, socio-cultural, linguistic and educational objectives. For example, in Taiwan, the Ministry of Education has encouraged the establishment of CLIL programmes in tertiary education with the goals of promoting the internationalisation of education and students' future employability (Yang, 2015). In Malaysia, where CLIL was implemented several years before Vietnam, importance is placed on the educational objectives:

> *The ability to compete in the era of globalization; the government's concern about the nation's human resource capital in the knowledge economy society; the knowledge and information explosion in science and technology with English as the most important global lingua franca (Gill, 2005); and the nation's quest to become an education hub in the region, were some of the pressures to which the government was responding in 2002. (Yassin et al., 2009, p.54)*

In Singapore, the stated aim of the CLIL programmes at the primary level is as follows:

> *The aim of international standard primary schools is to improve the professionalism of primary schools as centres of knowledge, skills, experiences, attitudes and values based on national standards and international perspective...Graduates of international standard primary schools are world class, able to compete and to collaborate globally with other nations in this world, and this requires understanding of people and cultures across the world. (Hadisantosa, 2010, p.33)*

In Korea, CLIL was implemented in 2008 through the Public School English Education Reinforcement Policy, the gist of which was to have all subjects at school taught through the medium of English. This was initially intended to give more opportunities for exposure to English to students, and to enhance and improve the Korean ELT. However, the policy was later abandoned due to the lack of teachers.

In Thailand, CLIL was piloted in six schools in Bangkok from April 2006 to December 2007 with the aim of developing the knowledge, capacity and English proficiency of the students in order for them to be able to communicate in English in the globalised professional world. At the same time, it was hoped that students would develop their thinking, analytical, and problem-solving skills as well, together with developing an awareness of themselves, society and the world (Keyuravong, 2010).

2.2.3. CLIL implementations around the world

2.2.3.1. Level of education concerned

CLIL provision is offered at all levels of education from pre-primary level (in Belgium, Spain, Italy, Latvia, Poland, Finland, etc.) to higher education (in Spain, Japan, Taiwan, etc.) in both private and public education, though with a greater proportion in the private sector (Dearden, 2014).

2.2.3.2. CLIL admission criteria

As regards the admission criteria, in general, involvement in CLIL programmes is open to all pupils when it is an integral part of mainstream education. However, in some countries, the selection of pupils is based on tests of some kind (written or oral examinations, interviews, etc.). The aim of such tests is to identify which pupils have a sufficient knowledge of the subject matter or the foreign language (Eurydice Report, 2006).

2.2.3.3. CLIL languages

Regarding CLIL languages, it is evident that English is predominant. However, this has not prevented teaching in other foreign languages, such as French, German, Spanish or Italian.

2.2.3.4. Subject matters taught through CLIL

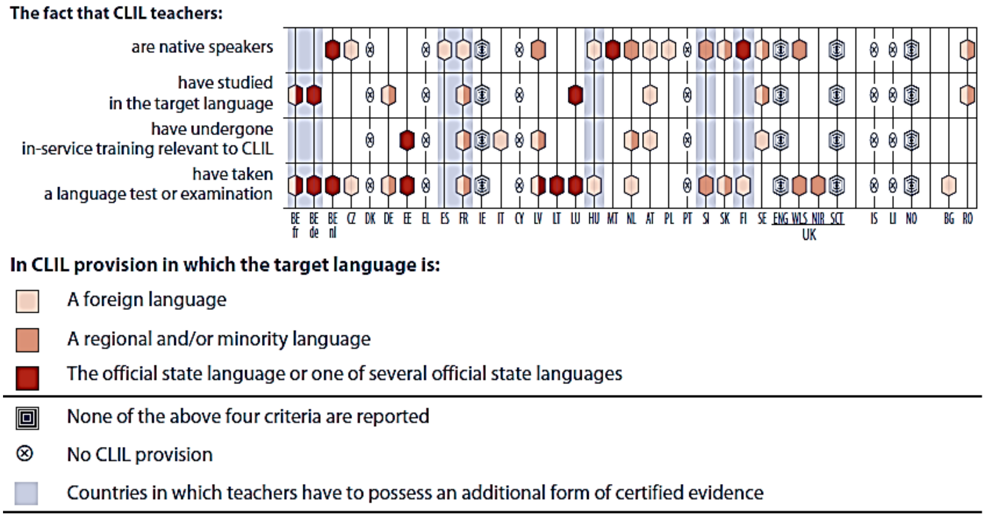
Concerning the subjects taught through CLIL, the choice of subjects varies in accordance with the level of education concerned and the availability of resources. On the evidence of national recommendations, the most common situation is one in which it is possible to select one or more subjects included in CLIL provision from across the entire curriculum. However, CLIL also focuses on specific subjects or activities, particularly in secondary education, in which teaching in the target language is primarily concerned with science subjects or social sciences. CLIL provision also covers artistic subjects and physical education (Eurydice Report, 2006). According to the British Council's survey on EMI, the most common subject taught through CLIL is mathematics (Dearden, 2014).

2.2.3.5. CLIL evaluation and certification

Regarding evaluation and certification, the situation also varies. According to the Eurydice Report (2006), in some countries in which CLIL-type provision is available, there is no special assessment. Pupils' proficiency, as regards the content of the curriculum, is assessed solely by using the language of the mainstream curriculum. In other countries, assessment is carried out in the CLIL target language and focuses on the knowledge that learners have acquired of the CLIL subjects. In some countries, pupils may decide whether they will be examined in the CLIL target language or in the language of the mainstream curriculum. In most of the countries where CLIL provision is available, the achievements of pupils involved in CLIL are formally recognised with the award of a special certificate. In some countries, as a result of bilateral agreements between certain countries, pupils who have obtained a CLIL certificate are able to continue their studies in partner countries.

2.2.3.6. CLIL teachers

CLIL teachers, in general, are specialists in one or more non-language subjects or have two areas of specialisation, one of which is in a language subject and the other is in a non-language subject. Although very few countries require certified evidence relating to CLIL-type provision, it seems likely to be of central significance in the recruitment process in some countries (e.g. Germany, France, and the United Kingdom). Figure 6 summarises the criteria that education authorities may consider relevant for ensuring that teachers recruited for CLIL provision in primary education and general secondary education possess the appropriate language skills (Eurydice Report, 2006).



Source: Eurydice.

Figure 6 – Language criteria to recruit CLIL teachers (Eurydice Report, 2006, p.45)

As for CLIL teacher training, their initial training and in-service training differ from one country to the next. The main pedagogical traits and the duration of courses also vary widely (Eurydice Report, 2006).

As regards financial benefits, no particular legislation entitles teachers involved in CLIL to receive any kind of reward. Yet, in most countries, CLIL teachers are endowed with some fringe benefits, such as a reduced timetable, some materials, and small-sized groups.

2.2.4. Summary

In short, the CLIL approach is a fast developing phenomenon all over the world. Underlying it is the belief that young people should be more effectively prepared for the globalised society. In the field of education, national policy-makers are taking a greater interest in CLIL and offering a wide variety of initiatives consistent with the different circumstances facing them. The acronym CLIL has become widely used. Yet, although a majority of countries have introduced some forms of CLIL provisions, only a small proportion of pupils and students have access to CLIL. The dominant language is English. In most countries in Europe, there seems to be no clear preference for any particular subjects. The admission and evaluation of students vary from one country to the next. CLIL teachers are often specialists in one or more non-language subjects, or both a language and a non-language subject. Further qualifications related to CLIL-type provision are required by very few countries (e.g. France and Germany).

2.3. CLIL IN FRANCE

2.3.1. EU support

The development of CLIL in France has been synchronous with its development in Europe. Since the 1990s, Europe has been promoting CLIL and linguistic diversity through a number of pieces of legislation and actions. The Eurydice Report (2006) listed a number of initiatives launched by the EU in the field of Content and Language Integrated Learning.

One of the first pieces of legislation regarding European cooperation in CLIL was the 1995 Resolution of the Council on improving and diversifying language learning and teaching within the education systems of the European Union. In the paper, the EU promoted innovative methods, particularly the teaching of classes in a foreign language for disciplines other than languages, for providing bilingual teaching.

In the same year, the European Commission also issued the *White Paper on Education and Training: Teaching and Learning – Towards the Learning Society* (1995), highlighting the importance of innovative ideas and the most effective practices for helping all EU citizens to become proficient in three European languages. It is stated in the paper that "it could even be argued that secondary school pupils should study certain subjects in the first foreign language learned, as is the case in the European schools".

A number of European programmes in the field of education and training have had a catalytic effect on developing CLIL. The Socrates II Programme from 2000-2006 financially supported mobility activities targeting "teaching staff of other disciplines required or wishing to teach in a foreign language". Also, under the Erasmus Action, financial support may be awarded for "joint development and implementation of curricula, modules, intensive courses or other educational activities, including multidisciplinary activities and the teaching of subjects in other languages".

In 2003, the European Commission launched its Action Plan 2004-2006, titled "Promoting Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity". In the plan, CLIL provision was cited as having "a major contribution to make to the Union's language learning goals". Following this action plan, the European Commission commissioned the 2006 Eurydice Report, which presented a detailed overview of CLIL provision in Europe. A number of projects have been realised under this action plan, including CLILCom, CLILAxis and CLIL Matrix, which will be presented in more detail in Chapter 4.

In 2005, in the report on the symposium entitled "The Changing European Classroom: the Potential Plurilingual Education", the need to ensure that pupils and students are involved in CLIL-type provision at different levels of school education was emphasised, as was the desirability of encouraging teachers to receive special training in CLIL.

In 2006, the Lifelong Learning Programme 2007-2013 was established by the European Union. The programme supported a number of international conferences, the aim of which was to bring together CLIL trainers, teachers and researchers. We can mention in particular the 2008 Tallinn Symposium, entitled "CLIL Fusion Multilingual Mindsets in a Multilingual World: Building Quality Learning Communities" and the Eichstätt Symposium, titled "CLIL 2010, in Pursuit of Excellence: Uncovering CLIL Quality by CLIL Practitioners, Evidencing CLIL Quality by CLIL Researchers". The programme also supported the *ICRJ* (*International CLIL Research Journal*), an electronic refereed journal. The journal acts as a platform for researchers across the world who work on Content and Language Integrated Learning (Gravé-Rousseau, 2011).

2.3.2. CLIL practice in France

CLIL in France exists at many levels of education, from primary schools to higher education. At each level of education, CLIL practice has its own characteristics regarding its purposes, organisation and pedagogies.

2.3.2.1. CLIL at school levels

Bilingual education – where the teaching of certain subjects in the curriculum may be offered in a foreign, regional or minority language – has existed in France for several decades. Before 1992, when the European sections were created, this kind of education had mainly been available in regions that were linguistically distinctive and concerned very limited numbers of pupils. We can list here bilingual teaching in French/German in Alsace; in French/Arabic, French/Chinese and French/English in Paris; in French/Basque in the Basque country; and in French/Breton in Brittany (Castellotti, 2008)

The European and oriental sections were created in 1992 by Ministerial Circular no. 92-234 on 19 August 1992. This education policy was issued by the Ministry of National Education with the purpose of improving the teaching of foreign languages in France and, more specifically, the students' oral skills.

In 1998, decrees 93-1092 and 93-1093 on the regulation of the general baccalaureate and the technological baccalaureate were issued. Accordingly, the baccalaureate may indicate the 'European section' or the 'oriental section'.

2.3.2.1.1. Enrolment

Normally, students can enrol in the European or oriental section from grade 8 and continue until grade 12. In exceptional circumstances, students can begin the section from grade 6 but only with specific conditions. The recruitment of students depends on the students' competence in the language chosen and on their motivation.

> *…exceptionnellement des sections européennes pourront être ouvertes dès la classe de Sixième, s'il y a continuité avec l'enseignement de la langue vivante dans les classes de CM2 des écoles du secteur du collège et si les élèves de ces sections en sixième et cinquième ne sont pas regroupés, mais répartis entre les divisions du collège. Seuls les enseignements spécifiques de la section donneront lieu à des cours communs. (Rapport IGEN du Ministère, 2000, p.6)*

In the general high schools and technological high schools, European and oriental sections are open for the following languages: German, English, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, Russian, Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and Vietnamese. In professional high schools, sections are open for German, English, Spanish, and Italian.

In the school year 2017-2018, there were nearly 27,000 European or oriental sections at high school level throughout the country.

2.3.2.1.2. The teaching and learning of the foreign language and in the foreign language

The teaching and learning of the foreign language is reinforced in the first two years of the programme. It is indicated in the circular that the foreign language of the section should be taught for at least two hours per week in addition to the official timetable.

In the third year of the programme, one or more non-linguistic subjects are taught in the foreign language. The subject chosen must allow students to develop the capacities of reflecting and exchanging ideas while becoming familiar with the culture of the country concerned: history, geography, or economics, for example, without excluding mathematics or other scientific disciplines. Nationally, the most popular non-linguistic subjects chosen are history and geography (70%). The teachers need to have special training in order to deliver the course in the foreign language.

In the contexts of the specific schools, cultural activities and exchanges can be organised so that students can acquire a thorough knowledge of the culture of the countries where the language is spoken.

2.3.2.1.3. Evaluation

According to the *Arrêté du 22 juin 1994*, the candidates of these sections are required to choose the language of the section to which they belong at the time of registration for the examination. The diploma will be awarded to candidates who have met the following conditions:

- have obtained a grade of 12/20 or higher in the first group of the foreign language common to all the candidates;
- have obtained a grade equal to or higher than 10/20 in a specific assessment aimed at assessing the level of fluency of the language acquired during their schooling in the European section.

2.3.2.2. CLIL in higher education

Recently, French universities have been developing more and more programmes taught in English to improve the international mobility of students, in order to give them new professional opportunities and to attract foreign students also. The Fioraso law[3] of the Ministry of Higher Education and Research, which adjusted the Toubon law,[4] facilitated the opening of courses in English in France. Although the law caused much controversy in the press and the media, it was finally adopted on 9 July 2013, creating a legal framework for the opening of English programmes in higher education in France.

In 2018, the website of Campus France listed 1,415 programmes taught in English, among which were 1,144 Master's degree programmes. Business and management was the field that offered the most programmes in English (641).

It can be seen from the literature that the practice of CLIL in higher education in France is varied, with different forms and different contexts; it may be an entire programme or only a few courses, with or without the selection of learners according to their language skills, and with learners and teachers from different cultures. For example, Napoli and Sourisseau (2013) gave an overview of about fifteen CLIL '*dispositifs*' in the Master's programmes in the fields of law, economics and management in Toulouse. They analysed the strengths, difficulties and limitations of the courses examined. They suggested more investment in language training for teachers, more language support for students, and the teaching of the French language and culture to international students. Similarly, Yassine-Diab and Monnier (2013) compared four CLIL '*dispositifs*' in the IUT department in Toulouse. They found that each teaching context had different characteristics: they had different course objectives, student profiles, teaching organisation, CLIL teacher profiles, etc.

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[3] The Law on Higher Education and Research of 22 July 2013, better known by the name of the Fioraso law, is a French law on the organisation and autonomy of universities and other research and higher education institutions in France.

[4] Law no. 94-665 of 4 August 1994 concerning the use of the French language, better known by the name of the Toubon law, is a French law intended to protect the linguistic heritage of French.

In her article "CLIL in higher education: the (perfect?) crossroads of ESP and didactic reflection" published in *ASp* in 2013, Taillefer gave a comprehensive account of CLIL in higher education in France. According to her, CLIL in higher education in France is primarily content-oriented. There are language policy deficiencies in the CLIL programmes in higher education in France in the sense that few explicit language requirements were specified to students in order for them to enrol in a programme taught in English. There was little language support for them either. Cultural awareness was also underestimated by the students and the teaching staff.

> *Problems reported during interviews—students' difficulties with oral presentations and with written communication which hinders their work from being readily accepted by respected journals, teachers uncomfortable with less than optimal language skills (English, for a few of the older colleagues, or French, for foreign colleagues)—are not officially recognised. Questions of pedagogical methodology pertaining, for example, to appropriate use of oral communication skills and ways to avoid plagiarism were raised by some teachers, but only during interviews. And aside from being asked to teach a minimal number of optional ESP (or French foreign language) hours, language specialists have never been involved in any other capacity. (Taillefer, 2013)*

Similarly, Chaplier (2013) also found that the language issue had been overlooked by CLIL practitioners. According to her, the Master's programmes under investigation were not created for studying the language, but to satisfy the demand of the internationalisation of training and the necessity of publishing in English.

> *Ces masters sont mis en place non pas pour apprendre l'anglais mais parce que la demande d'internationalisation des formations signifie le passage obligatoire à l'anglais dans les enseignements, complété par de la recherche scientifique effectuée en anglais. Or, nous avons vu que les enseignants-chercheurs qui enseignent ne se posent pas de questions sur la langue tout comme ils ne s'en*

> *posent pas au cours de leur travail de recherche qui se fait essentiellement en anglais (mais avec des enjeux différents). (Chaplier, 2013)*

In the conclusion, she suggested that the content teachers and language teachers should collaborate more in their work, that there should be some modifications in the ESP courses and their evaluation, and finally that an optimal CLIL approach should also be considered. She also suggested modifications for the scientific English courses at the higher education level by developing the meta-concept of 'English for science' rather than 'scientific English'. According to her, unlike scientific English, English for science crosses, combines and articulates the cultural, linguistic and didactical dimension of 'specialised English' (Chaplier, 2016)

In short, CLIL has been rapidly and widely adopted in France at different educational levels. In general, CLIL practice in schools is more or less language-driven and more uniform under the close supervision of the Ministry of National Education, while CLIL practice in higher education is more content-oriented and more diversified, which poses the questions of integration and language issues.

2.4. CLIL IN VIETNAM

2.4.1. The CLIL project

The CLIL project in Vietnam was announced in three decisions by the Prime Minister in 2008, 2010, and 2014.

In 2008, Vietnam's Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) first announced the implementation of CLIL through the National Foreign Language 2020 Project (hereafter referred to as Project 2020). The general goal of the project was as follows:

> *To comprehensively renew foreign language teaching and learning in the national education system, to implement new foreign language teaching and learning programs at different education levels and training levels in order to remarkably improve human resources' foreign language proficiency, especially in a number of prioritized domains, by 2015; by 2020, most young Vietnamese graduates of professional secondary schools, colleges and universities will have a good command of foreign language which enables them to independently and confidently communicate, study and work in a multilingual and multicultural environment of integration; to turn foreign languages into a strength of Vietnamese to serve national industrialization and modernization. (Decision*

> *1400/QD-TTg, "Approving the scheme on foreign language teaching and learning in the national education system in the 2008-2020 period" – see Appendix 1)*

The main tasks of the project included:

1. Establishing Vietnam's language proficiency framework, consisting of six levels, to be compatible with the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR)
2. Implementing new compulsory English programmes for schools
3. Teaching mathematics and science subjects in English at high schools
4. Teaching senior year university courses in English for the following subjects: information and communications technology (ICT), engineering, tourism, business studies, nursing, etc.
5. Training the trainers at foreign universities
6. Renovating tests and examinations to cover all four language skills
7. Promoting ICT in English language teaching and learning

A detailed action plan was also elaborated. The project was said to be worth about VND 9.378 trillion (equivalent at the time of writing to about €347.33 million). (MOET, 2008)

As can be seen, the CLIL project was one specific task (task 3 cited above) of the large-scale Project 2020. The project has been criticised by the general public, professionals and students for being too 'ambitious' and 'unrealistic'. Recently, the Minister of Education and Training has admitted that the project has actually failed.

Recognising the difficulty of implementing the project on a nation-wide scale, the MOET issued another decision in 2010 (Decision N° 959/QD-TTg, "Approving the scheme on development of the system of specialized upper secondary schools in the 2010-2020 period" – see Appendix 2) to narrow the scope of the CLIL project to CHSs only. The reason given was that CHSs were to be the model for the country's modern facilities, qualified teaching staff and innovative educational activities (MOET, 2010). Accordingly, from the 2011-12 academic year, natural science subjects, including mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology and computer science, were to be taught in English in piloted CHSs.

As stated by a vice minister of the MOET, this CLIL project aimed to enhance the English competences of both students and teachers. It would also provide access to advanced education for further scientific capacity (Nguyen and

Thanh, 2012; Tran, 2011; Thi Thuy, 2016). As cited by Hong (2010), a representative of the MOET said that this CLIL project was intended to remove the language barrier that had been disadvantaging gifted Vietnamese students in Mathematics Olympics and international competitions at high school level. Other goals included helping high-achieving students receive scholarships in an English-speaking country, according to the project manager. He also added that "learning a foreign language is inevitable in the growing trend towards globalization; it is the key to the advanced industries… The students from European and American countries have the opportunities to study several foreign languages at once, we only aim our students at being able to communicate in English. The students in gifted high schools should be the pioneers" (Hong, 2010).

The latest modification was made in 2014 by another decision covering regulations on teaching and learning in a foreign language in schools and other educational institutions (Decision N°72/2014/QD-TTg, "Providing for teaching and learning in a foreign language at schools and other educational institutions – see Appendix 3). Accordingly, the CLIL project was no longer mandated. Instead, teaching and learning in a foreign language had to depend on social demands and the learners' free choice (MOET, 2014). The priority was given to such majors as mathematics, natural sciences, technology and computer science. The use of CLIL course books and materials (written in a foreign language, Vietnamese or in both languages) had to be permitted by the Department of Education and Training. The teachers needed to be of at least C1 level in the language of instruction. However, teachers who gained Bachelor, Master's and Doctorate degrees abroad were granted exceptions to the abovementioned regulations on requirements for foreign language proficiency. Finally, the final examination and test were designed in Vietnamese. Learners were able to take more examinations in a foreign language.

2.4.2. CLIL problems

According to a MOET representative, there were 20 CHSs piloting CLIL in one or more subjects out of the total 76 CHSs in the country (Hai, 2013). In Hanoi, where this study was conducted, there are seven CHSs, in which there are three university-affiliated CHSs and four provincial CHSs. Since the 2015-16 academic year, all of them have included CLIL courses in the curricula for one or more grades (grades 10 and 11).

2.4.2.1. The relevance of the CLIL project

Since the launch of the CLIL project, it has received a lot of criticism from the public. The first problem raised by the public is the relevance of the project. As stated above, CLIL is supposed to improve the quality of teaching and learning English in general education. However, it is not a good solution to the English 'crisis'. Also, according to the representative from the MOET, CLIL can help gifted students in international competitions. However, these purposes do not seem to be appreciated by practitioners. The first two decisions were criticised for being top-down and prescribed, without considering the opinions of teachers, students and parents. According to Nguyet (2011), high school students only aimed at enrolling in a Vietnamese university. Parents also criticised policy-makers for the excessive workloads of their children. Headmasters and teachers were not sure about CLIL's purposes either. Some school principals believed that CLIL was supposed to help students to gain scholarships to study abroad (Tran, 2011), while CLIL teachers wondered whether their lessons should only serve as an introduction to academic materials in English or if they should aim to assist learners in achieving any specific recognised international qualifications (Nguyen, 2012). Nhan (2013) stated that:

> *Despite being claimed to benefit key stakeholders, the policies have disregarded the voices and interests of related parties. School principals, teachers, students and parents have all been excluded from the formulation and development process of the CLIL policies, their performance being limited to simply at the implementation level. The inevitable result is that teachers and management boards increasingly doubt the effectiveness of the programmes; students suffer from an arduous burden of intense class hours; and not a small number of parents struggle against rising school fees and extra costs. (Nhan, 2013, p.151)*

However, in a case study conducted by Thi Thuy (2016) at Quoc Hoc High School in Hue, teachers were generally sure about the aims of CLIL implementation and promotion in Vietnam. Teachers generally also held positive opinions about the benefits of CLIL (Thi Thuy, 2016).

2.4.2.2. Lack of qualified teachers

The second problem, which is also the biggest problem raised by insiders, is the lack of qualified teachers. We have already stressed the lack of EFL teachers, but with the implementation of the project, the problem became even worse. As specified by the MOET, CLIL teachers need to reach C1 level in the foreign language, which is very hard to satisfy, even for teachers of English in Vietnam. According to a survey conducted by Da Nang University of Foreign Languages in 2011, only 22 out of 1,996 teachers of English from schools in the central region had achieved C1 level. In fact, the number of teachers who claim to be able to deliver CLIL lessons is quite limited. Several examples include Le Quy Don Gifted High School in Da Nang City, where only 6 out of 90 teachers could provide subject instruction in English, and Hanoi Gifted School, part of Hanoi Pedagogical University, where 30% of the subject teachers possess some level of English proficiency, yet none are confident enough to deliver subject content (Legal News, 2011). The problem is that the examinations used in Vietnam only test examinees' general English proficiency and do not test English for specific purposes, whereas a good level of English does not guarantee the success of CLIL lessons, because English for general purposes is different from English in academic settings. Moreover, even teachers with some level of English proficiency are not adequately equipped with CLIL methodology. CLIL does not simply mean switching the language of instruction; rather, it requires teachers to take new roles in the teaching process. The MOET and Departments of Education in different provinces have organised several conferences and training courses for the subject teachers. However, the number of teachers being trained is still modest and the training time is quite short. The teachers' trainers are also another problem. Most of the time, the trainers are just teachers who have studied abroad or who have experienced CLIL earlier than the trainees. For pre-service teacher training, across the whole country, there is only one university offering pre-service CLIL teacher training courses for the 2015-16 academic year, with a quota of 50 students for CLIL mathematics, and 25 for CLIL physics, chemistry, biology, and informatics. These students are expected to be in service in 2019.

2.4.2.3. The appropriateness of choosing high-achieving students

Choosing CHSs also raised numerous concerns. The first critique is that the high school students do not have much time available for CLIL as they are busy preparing for the entrance examination. Secondly, the age of 16-18 is not a suitable age to start CLIL as the students have already had several years of experiencing the traditional way of learning English in Vietnam, which has many drawbacks, as presented above. Also, the content of the subjects for high school students is already very difficult to comprehend, so the students would bear a heavy cognitive load due to both new content and language knowledge. Another criticism is that selecting the gifted students for CLIL might lead this approach to be considered as elitist (Coyle et al., 2009). In fact, this CLIL project has caused the misunderstanding that CLIL is only for the 'gifted', whereas CLIL is supposed to be a means of reducing social and ethnic inequalities (Mehisto et al., 2008). Moreover, in order to run the project, a large amount of money has been invested in buying modern facilities, training teachers, and compiling textbooks, while the high-achieving students account for less than 2% of all high school students in Vietnam, and Vietnam is still a poor country. Additional tuition fees are also a burden for the parents. Nhan stated that:

> *The specified policies are creating a greater social gap. For gifted students from lower-income backgrounds and their families, the cost for taking CLIL classes and extra courses in English is already prohibitive … If CLIL continues to benefit only a minority of wealthier students rather than being equally accessible to students from all social backgrounds, socioeconomic inequality is an unavoidable consequence that follows. (Nhan, 2013, p.151)*

2.4.2.4. CLIL inconsistencies

Although the MOET has plans to develop a set of standard curricula and materials in English, this has not yet been completed, with the one exception of the collection of textbooks for CLIL mathematics for students in grades 10, 11, and 12. While waiting for the standard curricula, each school had their own practice. Some translated Vietnamese textbooks into English; others depended on foreign-produced materials (Nguyen, 2010). In some schools, CLIL lessons were taught right after lessons in Vietnamese (e.g. at HUS Gifted School, Hanoi University of Sciences, Hanoi). In other schools, only the revision lesson in each chapter of the book was taught in English (e.g. Amsterdam High School, Hanoi). It was common for the main course books to be changed continuously. Within just one year, the Foreign Languages Specialising School had already changed the main course book twice, from the Further Pure Maths volume (used for A-level qualifications offered in the United Kingdom) to a SAT collection (a standardised qualification for college admission in the United States) (Nguyen, 2010). This is a serious problem, especially in Vietnam, where teachers have too little autonomy. As mentioned above, Vietnamese teachers are used to rigidly following the textbooks and the curricula; they hardly adapt or change the textbook to suit the learners. Textbooks and curricula are the 'soul' of their teaching process. Therefore, lacking such guidelines, teachers feel disoriented and confused.

2.5. CONCLUSION

So many criticisms call for serious investigations into CLIL implementation in Vietnam. Research is still scanty and there is an urgent need to collect information about actual CLIL practices. This means investigating what is actually going on during a CLIL class, what CLIL actors perceive this new methodology to be, and students' performances and motivations in a CLIL programme.

Given the limited space of a PhD thesis, we have decided to focus on teachers' and learners' conceptions of CLIL. But what is needed now is a construct of CLIL, based on learning and motivation theories, which will make it possible to describe, analyse and compare students' and teachers' appraisals of their CLIL experience.

3.

MOTIVATION: A THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

In this chapter, the theoretical background of motivation in second language learning will be reviewed chronologically. Research in second language learning motivation can be divided into four periods: (1) the social psychological period (1959-1990); (2) the cognitive-situated period (1990s); (3) the process-oriented approach and the self or selves approach (2000s), and (4) the current trend of research into L2 motivation – the socio-dynamic period (Dörnyei, 2005; Ross, 2015). We will first present the main theories in each period. In the second part of the chapter, we will review motivation in Asian contexts. In the last section, we will introduce Raby's theory of motivation, which serves as the framework for this research.

3.1. MOTIVATION FROM EVERYDAY CONVERSATION TO A SCIENTIFIC CONCEPT

In the introductory section of the *Lidil* issue devoted to motivation, Raby and Narcy-Combes (2009) look at the historical state of the art of motivational research in which they point out the diversity of approaches, field work and definitions of the concept. Motivation plays an important role not only in language learning but in all human activities, therefore it is a shared concept that everyone seems to know, yet is difficult to encompass.

> *Au-delà de ces points de consensus pour expliquer la motivation, nous nous trouvons devant une inflation de concepts et de modèles qui constituent, en fait, autant d'arpèges sur le thème des relations entre l'individu et son milieu. (Raby and Narcy-Combes, 2009, p.7)*

For instance, motivation was defined as a stimulus and energy load by psychoanalysts like Freud and ethnologists such as Lorenz. On the other hand, it has been seen as a habit-making process through associative mechanisms by behaviourists (Skinner, 1967). All in all, all conceptualisations bear the mark of the disciplines or scientific fields in which the researcher is evolving. Like Sternberg's (1990) conception of intelligence, motivation ultimately resembles a metaphor rather than a concept.

Besides this, Raby and Narcy-Combes point out two flaws in mainstream research. Some papers suggest that motivation does exist in people's mind as a sort of bio-psychological entity, whereas it is actually a concept constructed by the researcher in order to describe and account for people's behaviours: whether people engage in an action or not and why. A second flaw is that much research tends to confuse motivation as a psychological process and mixes up the factors that stimulate (or do not stimulate) this process. As stressed by Nuttin:

> *An agreement is far from being reached between psychologists with regard to the place that should be reserved for motivation in the study and the explanation of behaviour. Regarded by some as a fuzzy notion destined to disappear from the vocabulary of experimental psychology, motivation is presented to others as the main theme of psychology and the very key to understanding behaviour. At the root of this disagreement is a diversity of viewpoints that makes motivation a very confusing notion. (Nuttin, 1980, p.25, my translation)*

If confusion remains today, the dominant socio-constructivist paradigm has allowed theorists to agree on many points: motivation is not to be confused with desire or interest, and it also presupposes the transition to action, and the maintenance of effort. It is the product of cognitive, emotional, and social factors. It is an unstable state that fluctuates according to the experience of the subject. Finally, motivation is constructed by the researcher and, therefore, cannot be attained directly.

3.2. MOTIVATION IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

Dörnyei (2005) divided the history of second language motivation research into three distinct phases: (1) the social psychological period (1959-1990); (2) the cognitive-situated period (1990s); and (3) the process-oriented period (2000s). Later, he described the current trend of research in L2 motivation, which he called the socio-dynamic period. Two more parallel stages should be added to this chronology: the task-oriented phase in the late 2000s and the self-oriented period with theories of the ideal self.

3.2.1. The social psychological period (1959-1990)

In the first period – the social psychological period – the main tenet of motivational research was that students' attitudes towards the specific language group were bound to influence how successful they would be in incorporating aspects of that language (Gardner, 1985). In this view, the foreign language subject was a special subject, unlike any other school subjects, in the way that it was affected by a range of socio-cultural factors such as language attitudes, cultural stereotypes, and even geopolitical considerations.

The most influential theory during that period was the socio-educational model developed by Gardner (1985). He defined motivation as a "combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes toward learning the language" (Gardner, 1985, p.10)

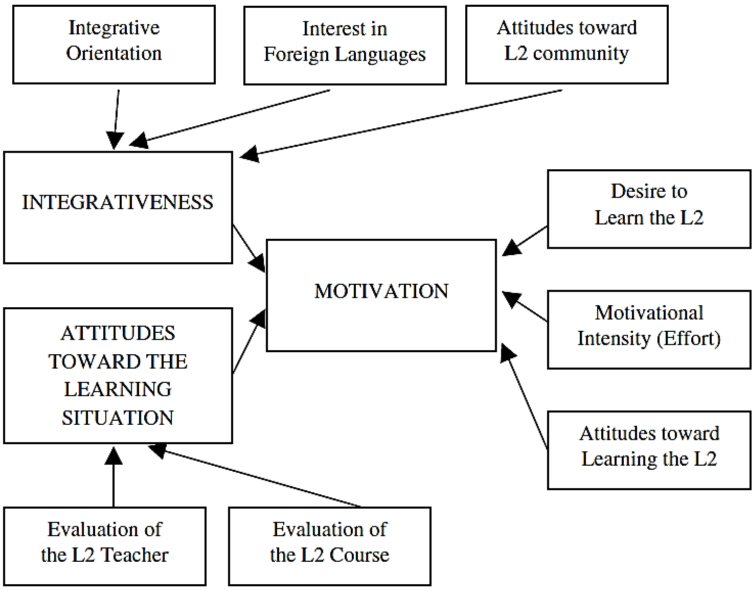

Integrative Orientation
Interest in Foreign Languages
Attitudes toward L2 community
INTEGRATIVENESS
Desire to Learn the L2
MOTIVATION
Motivational Intensity (Effort)
ATTITUDES TOWARD THE LEARNING SITUATION
Attitudes toward Learning the L2
Evaluation of the L2 Teacher
Evaluation of the L2 Course

Figure 7 – A schematic representation of Gardner's (1985) conceptualisation of the integrative motives (cited in Dörnyei, 2005, p.69)

Fundamental to his theory was the distinction between integrative and instrumental motivation. Integrative motivation refers to the learners' desire at least to communicate or, at most, to integrate (or even assimilate) with the members of the target language. Instrumental motivation refers to more functional reasons for learning the language such as getting a better job or a higher salary, or passing an examination (Gardner, 1985).

To support his model, Gardner (1985) also proposed a battery of tests with a view to identifying motivational factors: the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) (Table 3). This is a multi-componential motivation questionnaire made up of over 130 items. In this questionnaire, *integrativeness* is measured by three scales: attitudes towards the target language group, interest in foreign languages, and integrative orientation. *Motivation* is measured by three scales: motivational intensity (the amount of effort invested in learning the language), attitudes towards learning the target language and the desire to learn the target language. *Attitudes towards the learning situation*, referring to the individual's reactions to anything associated with the immediate context in which learning takes place, is measured by two scales: attitudes towards the teacher and attitudes towards the course.

Table 3 – The constituent scales of Gardner's (1985) 'Attitude/Motivation Test Battery'

Attitudes towards French Canadians (10 Likert scale items)
E.g. "French Canadians add a distinctive flavour to Canadian culture."
Interest in foreign languages (10 Likert scale items)
E.g. "I would really like to learn a lot of foreign languages."
Attitudes towards European French people (10 Likert scale items)
E.g. "I have always admired European French people."
Attitudes towards learning French (10 Likert scale items)
E.g. "I really enjoy learning French."
Integrative orientation (4 Likert scale items)
E.g. "Studying French can be important for me because it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people."
Instrumental orientation (4 Likert scale items)
E.g. "Studying French can be important for me only because I'll need it for my future career."
French class anxiety (5 Likert scale items)
E.g. "It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in our French class."
Parental encouragement (10 Likert scale items)
E.g. "My parents really encourage me to study French."
Motivation intensity (10 multiple choice items)
E.g. "When it comes to French homework, I:
(a) put some effort into it, but not as much as I could;
(b) work very carefully, making sure I understand everything;
(c) just skim over it."
Desire to learn French (10 multiple choice items)
E.g. "If there were a French club in my school, I would:
(a) attend a meeting once in a while;
(b) be most interested in joining;
(c) definitely not join."
Orientation index (1 multiple choice item)
E.g. "I am studying French because:
(a) I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job;
(b) I think it will help me to better understand French people and their way of life;
(c) it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people;
(d) knowledge of two languages will make me a better-educated person."
Evaluation of the French teacher (25 semantic differential scale items)
E.g. "efficient___:___:___:___:___:___:___inefficient"
Evaluation of the French course (25 semantic differential scale items)
E.g. "enjoyable___:___:___:___:___:___:___unenjoyable"

Although Gardner's socio-educational model and the AMTB were recognised as a breakthrough in motivational research, they were questioned by a number of researchers (e.g. Dörnyei, 1990; 1994; Oxford and Shearin, 1996).

Firstly, his definition of *integrativeness* was criticised as ambiguous. For example, "orientation to travel" was considered instrumental by some but interpreted as integrative by others. In the same way, having friends who speak English or knowing more about English art, literature and culture could be classified as either instrumental or integrative, depending on the pragmatic intentions of the respondent. Also, according to Dörnyei (1990), the concept of *integrativeness* was not relevant in foreign academic contexts where the languages were learned in classrooms by learners who had little or no contact with native speakers. Secondly, the AMTB test was also subjected to criticism despite its acknowledged usefulness. Dörnyei (1994) pointed out that three of the subscales defining the 'motivation' subcomponents ('Desire to learn the L2', 'Motivational intensity' and 'Attitudes toward learning the L2') overlapped at the item level, reducing the content validity of the test. Moreover, he also pointed out that the AMTB assessed both motivation and motivated behaviours, which made it difficult to define the exact nature of the underlying targeted trait.

The second dominant theory in the socio-psychological period was Clément's theory of linguistic self-confidence. According to Clément, Gardner, and Smythe (1977), linguistic self-confidence was a powerful mediating process in multi-ethnic settings that affected a person's motivation to learn and use the language of the other speech community. Clément (1980) showed that linguistic self-confidence was gained through contact with the L2 communities and was a major motivational factor in learning the L2. Later, Clément, Dörnyei and Noels (1994) extended the concept to cover the foreign language learning context where there was little direct contact with members of the L2 community but considerable indirect contact with the L2 culture through the media. Although he did not actually make use of the concept, Bandura perceived the relevance of that notion; in his self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 2003), he suggested that a certain amount of cognitive self-esteem was necessary to help restore or foster linguistic self-confidence, and vice versa.

3.2.2. The cognitive-situated period (1990s)

The second period – the cognitive-situated period – was characterised by work drawing on cognitive theories in educational psychology. During this period, the motivational impact of the main components of the classroom learning situation, such as the teacher, the curriculum, and the learner group, was extensively examined (Dörnyei, 1994), along with the broader factors of the previous period. In this period, three motivational theories concerning academic language learning were dominant, namely, self-determination theory (Deci and

Ryan, 2002), self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 2003), and task motivation theory (Cirocki, 2016).

Self-determination theory distinguished between *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* motives. The first referred to internal motives to perform a particular activity, namely *internal* rewards such as joy, pleasure, and satisfaction of curiosity, while *extrinsic* motives referred to the expectation of an *external* reward such as good grades or praise from others. Based on this distinction, Noels (2003) proposed a motivation construct made up of three interrelated substrates. The first substrate included *intrinsic reasons* inherent to the language learning process such as whether learning the language was fun, engaging, challenging, or competence-enhancing. The second category included *extrinsic reasons* for language learning lying on a continuum and included external and internalised pressures. The third substrate comprised *integrative reasons* relating to positive contact with the L2 group and perhaps eventual identification with that group (Dörnyei, 2005). Along with that motivational model, Noels and her colleagues (2001) also developed a reliable measuring instrument assessing the various components of self-determination theory in L2 learning: the Language Learning Orientation Scale. The construct involved intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and amotivation. The instrument began with the '*amotivation*' subscale, defined as a lack of motivation caused by the realisation that '*there's no point*' or '*it's beyond me*'. The next subscale, and also the least self-determined form of extrinsic motivation, was *external regulation,* coming entirely from external sources such as rewards or threads. Next was *introjected regulation*, which related to externally imposed rules that the students accepted as norms that he/she should follow so as not to feel guilty. The most self-determined form of extrinsic motivation was *identified regulation*, in which the person engaged in an activity because he/she highly valued the behaviour, and saw its usefulness. Then came *intrinsic motivation* with three subscales. Firstly, *intrinsic motivation related to knowledge*, that is to say, doing the activity for the feeling associated with exploring new ideas and acquiring knowledge. Secondly, *intrinsic motivation related to accomplishment,* for instance, doing the activity to master a task or achieve a goal. Finally, *intrinsic motivation related to stimulation,* for instance, doing the task for an aesthetic appreciation or fun and excitement.

The second dominant theory during that period was the **self-efficacy theory** developed by Bandura in the 1980s. Drawing on Heider's and Weiner's motivation theory, Bandura linked people's past experiences with their future achievement efforts by introducing *causal attributions* as the mediating link. The basic premise of that theory was that people attributed reasons for their performances as internal (due to themselves) or external (due to their environment), and such reasons determined their subsequent performance. As a matter of fact, research showed that internally-oriented learners learned better and were more willing to renew their learning efforts (Raby et al., 2003). A three-stage process underlined attributions: (1) behaviour had to be observed/perceived; (2) behaviour had to be determined to be intentional; and (3) behaviour was attributed to internal or external causes (Weiner, 1972). The sequences are depicted in Figure 8.

Causal antecedents →	Perceived causes →	Causal dimension →	Psychological consequences →	Behavioural consequences
Specific information Affective cues Etc.	Efforts Ability Task Luck Others Mood Home factors Etc.	Locus - - - - -> Stability - - - - -> Controllability - ->	Esteem-related affects Expectancy Interpersonal evaluation	Persistence Choice Intensity Etc.

Figure 8 – Partial representation of an attributional model of motivation (O'Neil, 1994)

Implementing aspects of attribution theory, Ushioda (1996; 1998; 2001) conducted qualitative research and found that positive motivational thinking involved two attributional patterns. The first one involved attributing positive L2 achievements to personal ability or other internal factors such as a sense of endeavour or a certain level of perfectionism. The second pattern involved attributing a lack of success to temporary, instable shortcomings that could be internally overcome, such as a lack of effort or a lack of time spent in the L2 environment.

According to Dörnyei (2005), attributional processes play an important motivational role in language studies because of the high frequency of language learning failure worldwide. Research based on this construct was limited due to the fact that it did not easily lend itself to quantitative research (Dörnyei, 2003). However, attribution theories were given a strong emphasis in a variety of investigations carried out by Raby's research team on the influence of technology on language learning motivation (Raby, 2005; 2006; 2007; 2015).

Another important theory during the cognitive-situated period was the **task motivation** theory. According to Dörnyei (2005), the construct of task motivation had traditionally been seen as a combination of generalised and situation-specific motives, corresponding to the traditional distinction between *trait* and *state* motivation, in which trait involved stable and enduring dispositions, and state referred to transitory and temporary responses or conditions. However, he also insisted that task motivation was perhaps more complex than the state-trait dichotomy because on-task behaviour was embedded in a series of ‘actional contexts’, each of which exerted a certain amount of unique motivational influence.

> *It may be insufficient to assume that the learners enters the task situation with some ‘trait motivation baggage’ and to obtain a comprehensive picture of task motivation all we need to do is to add to this ‘baggage’ the motivational properties of the instructional task instead, I believe that engaging in a certain task activates a number of different levels of related motivational mindsets or contingencies associated with the various actional contexts, resulting in complex interferences. (Dörnyei, 2005, p.81)*

During that period, a number of models incorporating those theories were proposed. Firstly, Dörnyei’s model (1994) attempted to synthesise various lines of research by offering an extensive list of motivational components categorised into three main dimensions: the *Language Level,* the *Learner Level,* and the *Learning Situation Level* (Table 4).

Table 4 – Components of foreign language learning motivation (Dörnyei, 1994, p.280)

Language Level	Integrative Motivation Subsystem Instrumental Motivation Subsystem
Learner Level	Need for Achievement Self-Confidence – Language Use Anxiety – Perceived L2 Competence – Causal Attributions – Self-Efficacy
Learning Situation Level *Course-Specific* *Motivational Components*	Interest Relevance Expectancy Satisfaction
Teacher-Specific *Motivational Components*	Affiliative Motive Authority Type Direct Socialisation of Motivation Modelling Task Presentation Feedback
Group-Specific	Goal-Orientedness

Motivational Components	Norm & Reward System Group Cohesion Classroom Goal Structure

Another comprehensive attempt to summarise motivational factors relevant to L2 instruction was proposed by Williams and Burden (1997, p.59).

Table 5 – Williams and Burden's framework of motivation in language learning

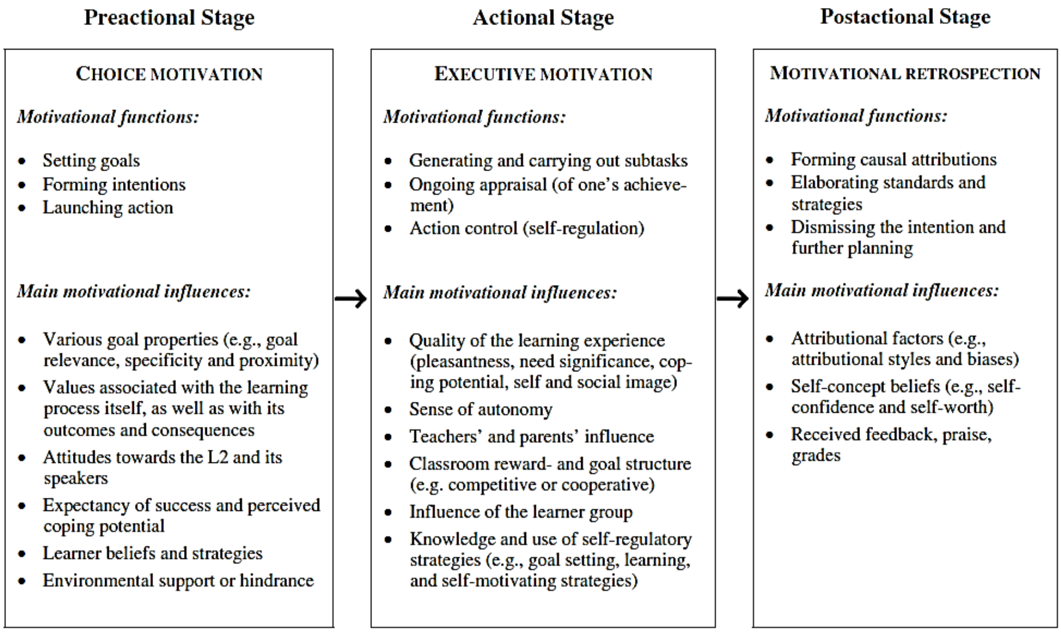
Internal factors	**External factors**
Intrinsic interest of activity – arousal of curiosity – optimal degree of challenge Perceived value of activity – personal relevance – anticipated value of outcomes – intrinsic value attributed to the activity Sense of agency – locus of causality – locus of control regarding process and outcomes – ability to set appropriate goals Mastery – feelings of competence – awareness of developing skills and mastery in a chosen area – self-efficacy Sense-concept – realistic awareness of personal strengths and weaknesses in skills required – personal definitions and judgements of success and failure – self-worth concern – learned helplessness Attitudes towards language learning	Significant others – parents – teachers – peers The nature of interaction with significant others – mediated learning experiences – the nature and amount of feedback rewards – the nature and amount of appropriate praise – punishments, sanctions The learning environment – comfort – resources – time of day, week, year – size of class and school – class and school ethos The broader context – wider family networks – the local education system – conflicting interests – cultural norms – societal expectations and attitudes

Internal factors	**External factors**
in general – to the target language – to the target language community and culture Other affective states – confidence – anxiety, fear Developmental age and stage Gender	

3.2.3. The process-oriented period (2000s)

The cognitive-situated approach drew attention to two other, rather neglected aspects of motivation: its *dynamic character* and *temporal variation*. Williams and Burden (1997) separated three stages of the motivational process along a continuum: 'Reasons for doing something' → 'Deciding to do something' → 'Sustaining the effort, or persisting'. Similarly, Dörnyei and Ushioda focused on learners' temporary motivation (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011). The theory highlighted motivation during the learners' experiences (positive L2 experiences in the past, relevant experiences to their learning process) and the motivation directed towards the learners' future goals (personal goals, priorities, incentives).

The most complete model in this period is Dörnyei and Otto's (1998) Process Model of Motivation, based on 'Action Control Theory', consisting of three distinct phases (Figure 9).



Preactional Stage

CHOICE MOTIVATION

Motivational functions:

- Setting goals
- Forming intentions
- Launching action

Main motivational influences:

- Various goal properties (e.g., goal relevance, specificity and proximity)
- Values associated with the learning process itself, as well as with its outcomes and consequences
- Attitudes towards the L2 and its speakers
- Expectancy of success and perceived coping potential
- Learner beliefs and strategies
- Environmental support or hindrance

Actional Stage

EXECUTIVE MOTIVATION

Motivational functions:

- Generating and carrying out subtasks
- Ongoing appraisal (of one's achievement)
- Action control (self-regulation)

Main motivational influences:

- Quality of the learning experience (pleasantness, need significance, coping potential, self and social image)
- Sense of autonomy
- Teachers' and parents' influence
- Classroom reward- and goal structure (e.g. competitive or cooperative)
- Influence of the learner group
- Knowledge and use of self-regulatory strategies (e.g., goal setting, learning, and self-motivating strategies)

Postactional Stage

MOTIVATIONAL RETROSPECTION

Motivational functions:

- Forming causal attributions
- Elaborating standards and strategies
- Dismissing the intention and further planning

Main motivational influences:

- Attributional factors (e.g., attributional styles and biases)
- Self-concept beliefs (e.g., self-confidence and self-worth)
- Received feedback, praise, grades

Figure 9 – Process Model of L2 Motivation (Dörnyei and Otto, 2005, p.85)

The three actional phases were associated with largely different motives. Dörnyei further explained:

> *People are influenced by a set of factors while they are still contemplating an action that is different from the motives that influence them once they have embarked on the activity. And similarly, when they look back at what they have achieved and evaluate it, again a new set of motivational components will become relevant. (Dörnyei, 2005, p.86)*

Dörnyei and Otto's process model of L2 motivation incorporated a temporal perspective that was able to adapt to the frequent variations in motivation within a lesson and over time in changing contexts. However, Dörnyei acknowledged the two shortcomings of the model. Firstly, the model suggested that the actional process was well-definable and had a clear-cut boundary, whereas task motivation was made up of motivational influences associated with various levels of action-oriented contingencies or hierarchical action sequences. Also, actional processes do not occur in relative isolation without any interference from other ongoing activities in which the learner is engaged.

Based on this model, Dörnyei (2005) later proposed the Motivational Teaching Practice Model, which consisted of four main dimensions: (1) creating the basic motivational conditions; (2) generating initial student motivation; (3) maintaining and protecting motivation; and (4) encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation. These dimensions were further broken down into concrete motivational strategies and techniques (see Figure 10).

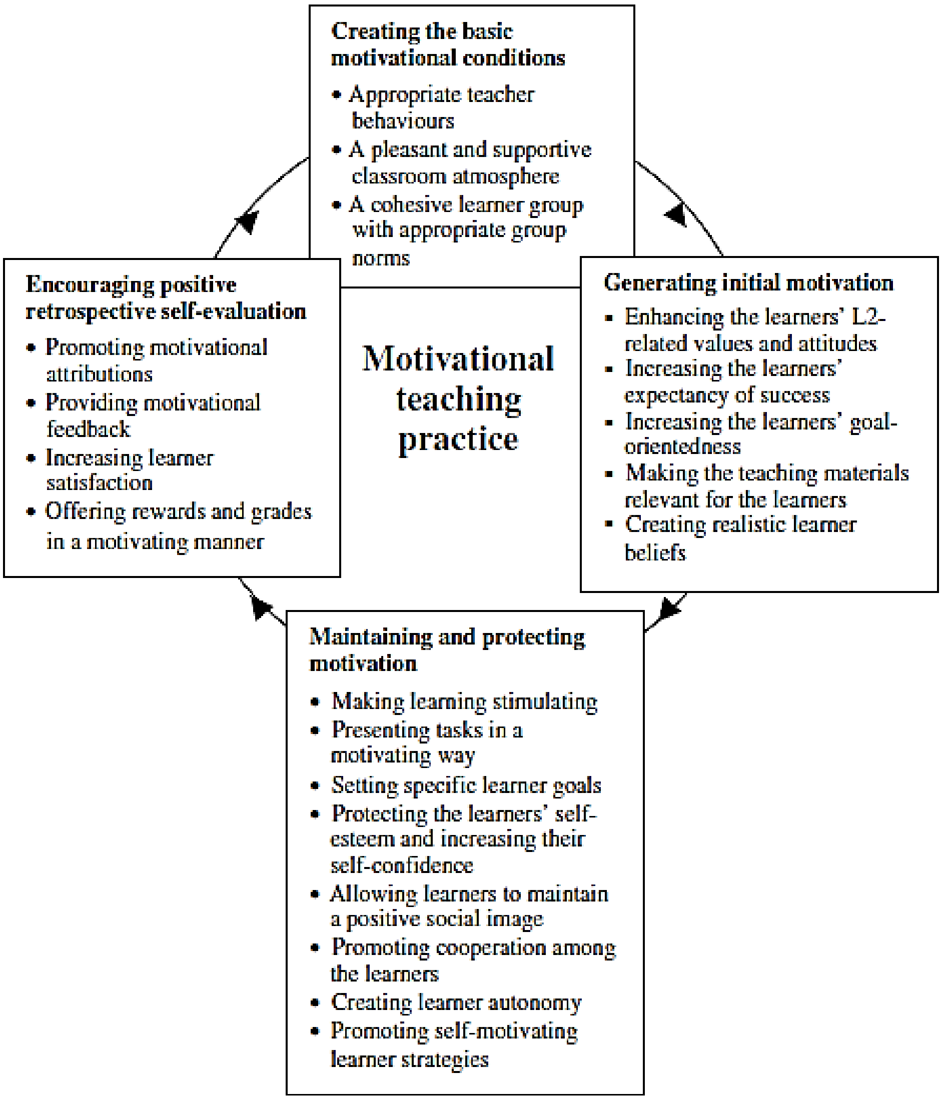

Creating the basic motivational conditions
• Appropriate teacher behaviours
• A pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere
• A cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms
Generating initial motivation
▪ Enhancing the learners' L2-related values and attitudes
▪ Increasing the learners' expectancy of success
▪ Increasing the learners' goal-orientedness
▪ Making the teaching materials relevant for the learners
▪ Creating realistic learner beliefs
Motivational teaching practice
Maintaining and protecting motivation
• Making learning stimulating
• Presenting tasks in a motivating way
• Setting specific learner goals
• Protecting the learners' self-esteem and increasing their self-confidence
• Allowing learners to maintain a positive social image
• Promoting cooperation among the learners
• Creating learner autonomy
• Promoting self-motivating learner strategies
Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation
• Promoting motivational attributions
• Providing motivational feedback
• Increasing learner satisfaction
• Offering rewards and grades in a motivating manner

Figure 10 – The Components of the Motivational Teaching Practice (Dörnyei, 2005, p.112)

He emphasised that well-chosen strategies that suit both the teacher and the learners might take one beyond the motivational threshold, creating an overall positive motivational climate in the classroom. Coyle commented on Dörnyei's model as follows:

> *The model is appropriate in that it highlights interaction between classroom learning environments, learner experiences of using modern languages both in the present and future, the nurturing of positive and motivational challenges and engagement with evaluation of those experiences which encourage successful learning. It constitutes an interactive cycle in which both individuals and class*

> *groups, both teachers and learners, have a significant and transparent role to play. (Coyle, 2011, p.14)*

As can be seen, this period raised awareness about learners and their specific learning contexts in L2 motivational research, resulting in a new (and the most recent) phase of L2 motivational research, which was characterised by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) as the socio-dynamic period.

3.2.4. The socio-dynamic period

New approaches primarily defined the transition to this period: Ushioda's (2009) person-in-context relational view of motivation (2009), Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System (2009a), Dörnyei's complex dynamic system (2009b) and, finally, Raby's Dynamic, Weighted and Politomic Construct (DWPC) (2015).

As suggested by the terms, the key innovating aspect of these theories was both theoretical and methodological. The awareness that a motivational process could only be complex, partly unpredictable and non-linear led to a revision of the research methodologies. With this paradigm, researchers were no longer concerned with identifying 'variables' and tracing cause-effect relationships; instead attention was focused on the evolving network or dynamic system of relations among relevant features, phenomena and processes.

> *I mean a focus on real persons, rather than on learners as theoretical abstractions; a focus on the agency of the individual person as a thinking, feeling human being, with an identity, a personality, a unique history and background, a person with goals, motives and interactions; a focus on the interaction between this self-reflective intentional agent, and the fluid and complex system of social relations, activities, experiences and multiple micro- and macro-contexts in which the person is inherently part of. My argument is that we need to take a relational (rather than linear) view of these multiple contextual elements, and view motivation as an organic process that emerges through this complex system of interrelations. (Ushioda, 2009, p.220)*

According to Dörnyei (2014), this view of motivation posed a challenge in developing a practical strategy of enquiry, as the unit of analysis had to be extended beyond the individual to cover the complex interactions between the individual and multiple evolving contexts. To meet this challenge, Ushioda (2009) suggested focusing on the micro-analysis of interactional data (e.g. teacher-student talks) to examine motivation as it emerged and evolved through developing discourses.

In the meantime, **complex dynamic system** theories presented a holistic approach that took into account the combined and interactive operations of a number of different elements/conditions relevant to specific situations. Rather than follow the traditional practice of trying to isolate distinct motives and examine their operation in isolation, Dörnyei examined those situations as *motivational conglomerates*. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) described four categories that served as templates when looking for situated motivational conglomerates: interest, motivational flow, motivation task processing and future self-guides. According to Dörnyei and Ushioda (ibid), the most important aspect of this approach was to find the right level of abstraction for looking at motivation in any given situation. However, although proposals for a dynamic paradigm shift in the research community were generally well received, very little of this work was empirical in nature (Dörnyei et al., 2014). To meet the challenge, drawing from a totally different background, Raby used the theoretical and methodological framework of cognitive ergonomics to account for language learning motivation in complex and dynamic systems (Raby, 2015).

3.3. LANGUAGE LEARNING MOTIVATION IN ASIAN CULTURES

Over the past two decades, the number of publications concerning language learning motivation in Asia has expanded dramatically (Apple et al., 2016). Drawing from recent approaches in educational psychology and motivational science, these publications have emphasised the importance and diversity of the social and cultural learning contexts. A key issue is now emerging in Asian motivational research: to what extent can we generalise results across cultures? That is to say, to what extent are theories built up in WEIRD (Western, Educated, Industrialised, Rich and Democratic) contexts relevant for Asian cultural contexts?

> *So the fact that the vast majority of studies use WEIRD participants presents a challenge to the understanding of human psychology and behaviour. A 2008 survey of the top psychology journals found that 96% of subjects were from Western industrialized countries—which house just 12% of the world's population. Strange, then, that research articles routinely assume that their results are broadly representative, rarely adding even a cautionary footnote on how far their findings can be generalized. (Henrich et al., 2010, p.1)*

A second issue concerns the very concept of Asian motivation research, since Asia is a geographical and not a cultural area. Asia represents a variety of cultural contexts. It is common to compare Eastern and Western cultures and their peoples, and yet such broad categories fail to give a clear picture of the historical, religious, and educational differences within and across cultures. Being aware of such difficulties, motivational researchers of foreign language learning from different countries in Asia investigate the cross-cultural validity of motivation models in Asian environments. For instance, in an investigation of high school students' motivation in Taiwan, Huang et al. (2015) found that the concept of *ought-to selves* rather than *ideal selves* better accounted for pupils' motivational behaviours. Their findings raise the question of the lasting influence of Confucianism (see Chapter 1) on young Asians' motivation, where the individual *self* is culturally embedded in a community *self*. It will be interesting to learn if our own findings corroborate these assumptions.

Another important field of research is that of teacher motivation. Using activity theory, Kim et al. (2014) investigated in-service teachers' motivation in China and Korea. Their results indicated that the number of students per English classroom was the hindering factor for both Chinese and Korean teachers. However, while Chinese teachers perceived the excessive pressure of school parents to be more demotivating than Korean teachers, for the latter, large amounts of administrative tasks and students' lack of interest in English were found to be the demotivating factors. The teachers' interviews in this study will provide some insights into the question of teachers' motivation, amotivation or demotivation.

Another angle on teacher motivation is offered by investigating the positive or negative influence of teachers' motivation on students' motivation and vice versa. In a paper focusing on eight motivated teachers coming from Sumatra (four teachers) and Jakarta (four teachers), Lamb, Astuti and Hadisantosa (2016) found a number of similarities in the teaching strategies of those successful teachers. For example, they build a rapport with the students, they evaluate them in a sensitive way, they provide enjoyable lessons, they put as little pressure as possible on the pupils, and they convince them that they are able to become good English speakers. In this way, they positively impact students' motivation which, in turn, affects their own motivation. Two ideas emerge from their research: that it is not just the *selves* but also teachers that are of paramount importance, and that there is a virtuous or vicious circle between students' and teachers' motivation. Again, these ideas will be tested when we confront students' questionnaires and teachers' interviews in CLIL *dispositifs*.

We will now introduce Raby's motivational model in detail, since this has been chosen as the theoretical and methodological tool to encompass the different dimensions of the CLIL project in Vietnam.

3.4. RABY'S CONSTRUCT OF LANGUAGE LEARNING MOTIVATION IN WORK SETTINGS

3.4.1. Raby's first dynamic model

Raby's model belongs to the category of process-oriented dynamic models. Its originality lies in the fact that it combines SLA theories of motivation with work theories of motivation. Raby considers academic settings of all sorts as work settings. This is why she resorts to ergonomics to approach the question of language learning motivation at school. Her field research addressed different settings and levels of analysis: from tasks to complex environments. Viewing motivation as a process, Raby defined L2 learning in academic contexts as follows:

> *La motivation pour apprendre une langue étrangère en situation académique peut être définie comme un mécanisme psychologique qui génère le désir d'apprendre la langue seconde, qui déclenche des comportements d'apprentissage, notamment la prise de parole en classe de langue, qui permet à l'élève de maintenir son engagement à réaliser les tâches proposées, quel que soit le degré de réussite immédiate dans son interaction avec les autres élèves ou le professeur, qui le conduit à faire usage des instruments d'apprentissage mis à sa disposition (manuel, dictionnaire, tableau, cédéroms) et qui, une fois la tâche terminée, le pousse à renouveler son engagement dans le travail linguistique et culturel. (Raby, 2008, p.10)*

> *Motivation for learning a foreign language in an academic setting can be defined as a psychological mechanism that generates the desire to learn the second language, which triggers learning behaviours, including speaking in a language class, which allows the learner to maintain his commitment to perform the proposed tasks, regardless of the degree of immediate success in his interaction with other students or with the teacher, which leads him to make use of the learning tools at his disposal (manual, dictionary, table, CD-ROMs), and which, once the task is completed, pushes him to renew his commitment to linguistic and cultural work. (Raby, 2008, p.10)*

Borrowing from Dörnyei, her dynamic model of L2 motivation in academic settings consists of three stages: the pre-actional stage, the actional stage and the post-actional stage in a specific *dispositif*.

3.4.2. *Dispositif*: a user-centred concept

Drawing from the theoretical philosophical and technological models proposed in the *Hermes* special issue on the *dispositif* (Peeters and Charlier, 1999), Raby elaborated a construct with a view to describing and understanding the evolution of motivation throughout the learning process. Three working systems were investigated: a work environment, a work situation, and a work task. Theoretically, the concept of the *dispositif* sought to encompass the three system levels. In addition, what was relevant was the discrepancy between the prescribed/expected system/task worked out by deciders (environmental level) or teachers (class level) and the way in which actors appropriated the system with their past experience, knowledge, affective and social traits. In that way, there was a constant regulation of the actor's motivation as they moved through the project. Raby used the term *dispositif* to account for this discrepancy.[5] A *dispositif* exists only when the system operates; it is the result of the way in which actors appropriate the system.

3.4.3. The research procedure to investigate a *dispositif*

3.4.3.1. The pre-actional stage

In this stage, the commitment to action is generated by a set of factors that dictate the choice to engage in an action or not. The influences that act in this pre-actional stage include:

3.4.3.1.1. The influences on the formation of the goal

- The subjective values and norms that have developed as the results of past experience.

---

[5] Unable to find an accurate translation of the term "*dispositif*" (apparatus, artifact, device), we decided to keep the French term.

- These values and general norms interact with incentives related to the language itself: the pleasure of the language, its instrumental value (profession, travelling), etc.
- Expectation of the goal: the confidence that the individual has in the possibility of carrying out the task (potency). The power of the expectation of success.
- External factors: the expectations of the family, the teacher, the colleague, and the institution also strongly influence the formation of the goal.

3.4.3.1.2. The influences on the formation of intention

- Relevance of the goal
- Expectation of success
- Cost/benefit calculation
- Need for fulfilment/fear of failure
- Self-determination/learners' autonomy

3.4.3.1.3. The influences on the formation of the action plan

Motivation also depends on the freedom and control that the agent thinks he can have in the regulation of the task: setting new goals, using his own resources and strategies, etc. This concerns:

- The resources and the means
- Understanding instructions
- Beliefs about language learning
- Knowledge of scenario strategies
- Sufficient knowledge of the language area, the task area, and the instrument

However, these influences may not be enough, as there also exist the following learning constraints:

- The urgency
- External constraints
- A unique opportunity

3.4.3.1.4. The influences on entering the action

- The perception of behavioural control: the feeling of ease or difficulty in realising the behaviour. In other words, one must have the impression that one can master the result to provide the effort to begin to realise it.

- It is also necessary to overcome negative forces that compete with effort and desire: distractions or obstacles, etc.
- Finally, a particularly important element for us: the anticipation of the consequences of non-action (sanction, failure).

3.4.3.2. The actional stage

In this stage, the most important group is the appraisal process. Then comes the effectiveness of the control process: the impact of external forces, such as the teacher or the peers, during the action.

3.4.3.2.1. The value of the experience

The perception of the value of the learning experience draws on diverse feelings, such as the perception that the required activity produces novelty and pleasure, or that it satisfies a linguistic, cultural or social need.

3.4.3.2.2. The perception of efficiency

The perception of an effective relationship between action and result and, possibly, progress. The questionnaires can be seen to reflect what progress is made for students in relation to the three task areas. This includes the perception of the cognitive or emotional cost: is the cognitive load too great? Is risk taking too important?

3.4.3.2.3. The control mechanisms

The possibility of a satisfactory regulation: the feeling of autonomy, the ability to implement an effective strategy, or the ability to use the resources and the instruments to correct the strategy during the activity.

3.4.3.2.4. The impact of the environment

The language class is a place of permanent interaction between students, teachers, instruments and peers. The way in which students perceive these physical or human instruments of the activity as aids to self-regulation or, on the contrary, as ‘distractors’ influences their ability to maintain their effort (Raby, 2006).

3.4.3.3. The post-actional stage

The same factors relate to the evaluation of the result, but this time they are oriented towards the product (final or intermediate) and not towards the process. The four factors in the evaluation are:

- The discrepancy between the redefined task and the completed task
- The discrepancy between the prescribed task and the performed task
- The cost in terms of efforts made in relation to the valance
- The internal rewards (feeling of satisfaction) or external rewards (in the form of notes or compliments from the others)

The analysis of the results is influenced by factors related to experience. The key here is the great inter-individual variability. This could be related to **attributive styles** and **attributive biases**. Self-concept beliefs include the level of confidence in one's efficiency and the level of trust in one's self-efficacy, self-competence, and sense of worth. Those who have a high score on these scales tend to judge themselves better and persevere, unlike those who have a poor image of themselves. On the other hand, work analysis shows that subjects who meet the internality norm, that is, who attribute responsibility for their successes or failures to themselves and not to external factors, have a more stable and stronger motivation, even if they do not necessarily have a very good level in the language (Raby, 2006).

3.4.4. The dynamic, weighted, politomic construct of motivation in academic *dispositifs*

Raby has since brought some qualifications to her initial dynamic construct. These changes were initiated by results from a series of field research studies in high schools and colleges, in particular the ESCALE project (2003).

One research study targeting students working autonomously in a language centre led her to characterise motivational factors as either ‘first rank’ factors or ‘enhancing factors’. First rank factors are essential for motivation to be maintained, while enhancing factors only increase pleasant emotional states linked to the task. In a statistical account of motivational factors, factors are weighted accordingly. In another research study concerned with teachers’ motivation, she found out that some teachers were purely and simply amotivated and ignored the characteristics of the project which bothered them. Therefore, the model became politomic in the sense that the same factor could endorse very different, even opposing, values. In another research investigation, she found that the same factor – the mark/reward factor – proved to be either positive (enhancing motivation), negative (hindering motivation) or neutral (no effect at all). A Multiple Correspondence Statistical Analysis (Benzecri, 1992) was the statistical tool which made it possible to extract these values. In the present study, Raby's DWP construct will be used to analyse and confront the actors' motivational traits of CLIL *dispositifs* in Vietnam. To identify the impact of academic foreign language *dispositif*s on motivation, Raby resorts to procedures that have long and well-established scientific records in educational ergonomics.

3.4.5. The ergonomic educational methodology

Raby characterises the methodology elaborated to investigate motivation in academic language learning work contexts as follows:

> *First, it should be clear that there is nothing original about the data extracted and processed in educational ergonomics, since all researchers who desire to carry out an empirical research on CALL will either observe, or interview, or look at productions and interactions. Yet, the method that we use has specific traits:*
>
> *We combine descriptive data (behaviours) and mental data (feelings, representations, knowledge).*
>
> *We then, build up inferential interpretative models to tentatively make sense of what the agents are doing (or not doing, by the way).*
>
> *We take into account non-linguistic variables especially the physical, social and psychological ones.*
>
> *We try to work as much as possible on rather long periods, which mean a minimum period of 6 to 8 months, more if possible to confirm and stabilize our findings.*
>
> *We try to establish the local validity of our results. By local validity we mean that quantitative results should be controlled using statistical tests which are suited to small scale measurements (Peers, 1996) and that qualitative procedures should be rigorously conducted (Dörnyei, 2007).*
>
> *As often as possible we associate qualitative and quantitative studies since we believe that they are complementary: performance and process are of interest.*
>
> *Finally, we use a triangular or blended methodology to solidify or improve our findings and to overcome the weakness that comes from single method, single-observer, single-theory studies. (Raby, 2015, p.8-9)*

3.4.5.1. Context analysis: an introduction to the research

The context analysis phase is divided into two sub-stages. It is first necessary to establish the actor's profiles, which is achieved through a preliminary general questionnaire, and then to establish the actor's profile in relation to a specific *dispositif*: environment, project, or task.

3.4.5.1.1. The general language learning profile

This sub-stage focuses on the student's attitudes and motivational orientations towards school, the L2, the learning of the L2, and the self-concept (the perception of academic and linguistic confidence). This questionnaire has a twofold function: first, it serves to forge a general image of the group class or group of learners; second, it serves to predict the evolution of motivation. That is to say, based on the attitudes and orientations expressed by the students, we will make assumptions about how students will react to the various characteristics of the project.

3.4.5.1.2. Past experience of the learners concerning the proposed dispositif

The questionnaire investigating the characteristics of the proposed project/*dispositif* is administered to students to find out if they have already experienced a *dispositif* of the sort or not. The questionnaire also seeks to tap into what image learners have formed of the task (what is it?) and their appreciation of it (is it right, is it pleasant?). Again, the goal is to see how these representations evolve as they move through the project.

3.4.5.2. The second stage in data collection: expectations about the project

We are still in the pre-actional stage, but this time the learners have been presented with the project/*dispositif* or task. The pre-actional questionnaire has a cognitive focus: to identify the way in which students have transposed the prescribed task. Task transposition is a key concept in ergonomics. It encompasses the process through which actors appropriate a system to make it function. The process requires constant adaptations according to the actors' characteristics as well as the evolution of highly dynamic environments (Raby, 2009). It also seeks to identify what students expect from the project (are they interested? Do they anticipate difficulties? What is the language and pragmatic outcome of the task? What are the instructions?). The purpose of this questionnaire is to find out how learners understand the system/project/task, what negative or positive factors are likely to affect the project and, at the end, how motivation will have evolved as a result of the implementation of the project. In this pre-actional stage, actors are beginning to mentally appropriate the system, thus turning it into a *dispositif*.

3.4.5.3. The third stage in data collection: the actional stage

We are now interested in what actors do rather than what they think. As a result, Raby advises observing students' behaviours during the activity, either with human observers or video recordings, or by analysing students' productions of all kinds. In this way, the maintenance of commitment and certain regulatory strategies become visible. According to Raby, indicators of motivation for the task in L2 include:

- Oral participation in class (maintained, nurtured, and repeated).
- Regularity in the productions, the length of the productions, and respect of the instructions.
- Collaborating with teachers or peers to plan, regulate or prolong the task.
- Being creative, that is, being able to change the goal and not abide by the teacher's requirements. Creativity also means being able to use knowledge/procedures different from those studied in class.

These considerations pertain to the cognitive, didactic dimension of motivation, which will be addressed in further research.

3.4.5.4. The fourth stage in data collection: the reflective stage

The last stage relates to the retrospective phase: evaluation and success. The questionnaire uses the same items as those presented in the questionnaire carried out in the second stage, which makes it possible to determine if and how motivation has changed. In the wake of attribution theories, Clément's linguistic self-confidence theory and Bandura's self-efficacy theory, mentioned earlier in this chapter, Raby and the ESCALE research team (Raby and Zouari, 2008) were able to find out:

- that low achieving students were motivated by an exacting high level project, not a simple one;
- that a lack of linguistic knowledge could be compensated for by other competences involved in the task/*dispositif*/project;
- that collaborating within a *dispositif* may favour vicarious learning and enhance motivation;
- and, last but not least**, that all factors which had been predicted as motivating by mainstream literature (fun, rewards, instruments) eventually appeared as politomic, i.e. could also be negative or neutral.**

3.5. SUMMARY

This chapter has attempted to shed light on language learning motivation by reviewing the most influential theories and models in recent history. The four periods that have been reviewed were: (1) the social-psychological period; (2) the cognitive-situated period; (3) the process-oriented period; and (4) the socio-dynamic period (the most recent). Gardner's theories served as a starting point for understanding L2 motivation. Since then, a number of theories have been formulated and evolved. The agreement between motivation theorists is that motivation is not to be confused with desire or interest; it also presupposes the transition to action, and the maintenance of effort; it is the product of cognitive, emotional, and social factors; it is an unstable state that fluctuates according to the experience of the subject; and it is a construct of the researcher, and not observed directly (Narcy-Combes et al., 2009; Raby and Narcy-Combes, 2009; Raby, 2009). Raby's ergonomic models and methodology were then presented in detail, since these are used in the current project. The DWP construct will be used to attempt to decipher the motivational characteristics of CLIL *dispositif*s in Vietnam. This exploratory doctoral study is focused on the pre-actional and actional phases of the *dispositif*, and on actors' perceptions through questionnaires and interviews. Before enriching our construct, it is necessary to investigate the literature on CLIL motivation, which will be the object of the following chapter.

4.

THE CLIL SYSTEM

This chapter presents a construct of CLIL that, together with the motivation model presented in the previous chapter, will build up the theoretical framework of the present study. First, CLIL didactics will be reviewed. Coyle's 4Cs model, the language triptych, the CLIL matrix for CLIL teachers, and the core elements of CLIL methodologies will then be presented. Subsequently, research studies in CLIL motivation will be reviewed. Lastly, the benefits and difficulties of the CLIL system will be discussed.

4.1. CLIL DIDACTICS

Due to the flexibility of CILL, there is neither a particular CLIL pedagogy nor a prescriptive model for planning modules and lessons in CLIL. However, there are certain pedagogical principles underlying CLIL and some tools for ensuring that some shared principles are observed despite CLIL's flexibility.

4.1.1. The 4Cs framework

The most commonly cited and discussed model is Do Coyle's 4Cs framework – a model that integrates content, cognition, communication and culture in such a way that all of these aspects contribute equally to the learning process. The 4Cs framework for CLIL starts with content and focuses on the interrelationships between content (subject matter), communication (language), cognition (thinking) and culture (awareness of self and 'otherness') to build on the synergies of integrating learning (content and cognition) and language learning (communication and cultures):

> *Content: The subject matter, theme, and topic forming the basis for the program, defined by domain or discipline according to knowledge, concepts, and skills being learned (e.g. science, ICT, arts).*
> *Communication: The language to create and communicate meaning about the knowledge, concepts, and skills being learned (e.g. stating facts about the sun, giving instructions on using software, describing emotions in response to music).*
> *Cognition: The ways that we interact and engage with knowledge, experience, and the world around us (e.g. remembering, understanding, evaluating, critiquing, reflecting, creating).*

> *Culture: The way that we interact and engage with knowledge, experience, and the world around us; socially (e.g. social conventions for expressing oneself in the target language), pedagogically (e.g. classroom conventions for learning and classroom interaction), and/or according to discipline (e.g. scientific conventions for preparing reports to disseminate knowledge). (Coyle, 2006, p.9)*

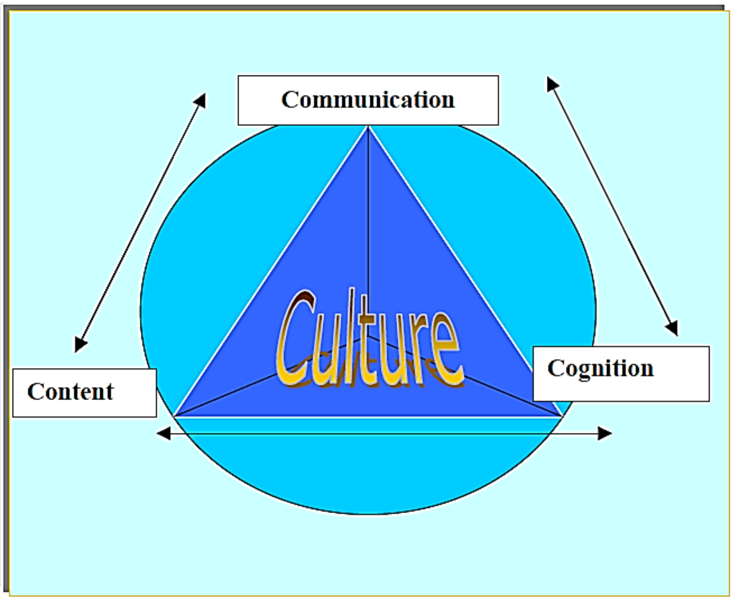


Figure 11 – The 4Cs framework for CLIL (Coyle, 2006, p.10)

Coyle goes on to elaborate that the model unites learning theories, language learning theories and intercultural understanding:

> *Subject matter is not only about acquiring knowledge and skills, it is about the learner constructing his/her own knowledge and developing skills (Lantolf, 2000; Vygotsky, 1978);*
> *Acquiring subject knowledge, skills and understanding is related to learning and thinking (cognition). To enable learners to construct an understanding of the subject matter, the linguistic demands of its content must be analysed and made accessible (Met, 1998);*
> *Thinking processes (cognition) need to be analysed for their linguistic demands (Bloom, 1984; McGuiness, 1999);*
> *Language needs to be learned in context, learning through the language, and reconstructing the subject themes and their related cognitive processes, e.g. language intake/output (Krashen, 1985; Swain, 2000);*
> *Interaction in the learning context is fundamental to learning. This has implications when the learning context operates through L2 (Pica, 1991; van Lier, 1996);*
> *The relationship between cultures and languages is complex. Intercultural awareness and learning is fundamental to CLIL (Byram, Nicolas, and Steven, 2001). (Coyle, 2008, p.103-104)*

Coyle's 4Cs model can be considered as the starting point for the development of a number of other later models. For example, Zydatib (2007, cited in Dalton-Puffer, 2008, p.142) reframed the 4Cs model around 'communication'.

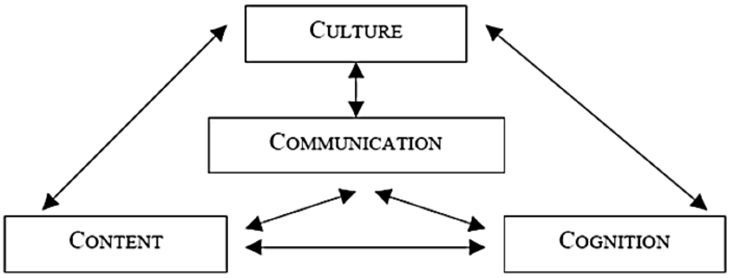

CULTURE
COMMUNICATION
CONTENT
COGNITION

Figure 12 – Zydatib's circular 4Cs framework

According to Dalton-Puffer (ibid), this change is a significant advance in CLIL modelling as, despite the interdependence which holds all areas together (symbolised by the double-ended arrows), communication, and hence language, holds the central place in this model.

4.1.2. The Language Triptych

In terms of lesson planning, Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, p.36) insist that teachers must elucidate the interrelationships between content objectives and language objectives. For this reason, they have devised a conceptual representation that makes these connections in the form of a language triptych.

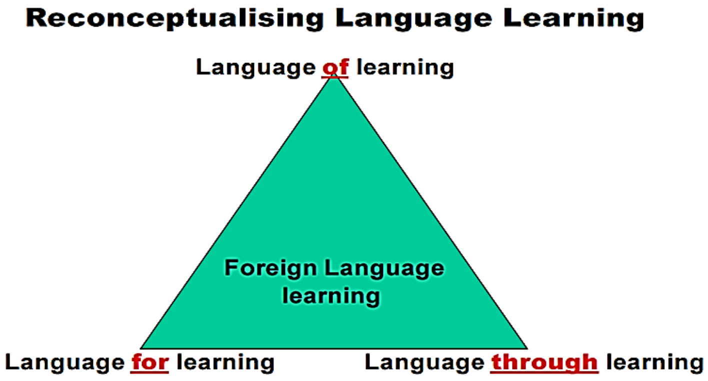

Reconceptualising Language Learning
Language of learning
Foreign Language learning
Language for learning
Language through learning

Figure 13 – The Language Triptych (Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010)

The language triptych was constructed with the objective of taking into account the need to integrate cognitively demanding content with language learning and usage. Furthermore, "it supports learners in language using through the analysis of the CLIL vehicular language from three interrelated perspectives: language of learning, language for learning, and language through learning" (Coyle et al., 2010, p.36).

4.1.2.1. Language of learning: the language, essentially terminology, of the subject matter

Language of learning is the kind of language that learners need to access new knowledge and understanding when dealing with the learning content. It is based on an analysis of the language need of learners to access basic concepts and skills relating to the subject, theme or topic. For the language teacher, this means shifting linguistic progression from a dependency on the grammatical level of difficulty towards the functional and notional levels of difficulty demanded by the content.

4.1.2.2. Language for learning: classroom language

Language for learning is the kind of foreign language that learners need in order to communicate and operate in a learning environment where the medium is not their first language. Learners will need to be supported in learning how to learn effectively and develop skills such as those required for pair work, cooperative group work, asking questions, debating, chatting, enquiring, thinking, memorising and so on. Classroom English is a typical example of language for learning.

4.1.2.3. Language through learning: language development

Language through learning is the kind of new language that emerges in the learning process. Coyle et al. (2010, p. 63) explained: "New language will emerge through learning. Not all the CLIL language needed can be planned for. As new knowledge, skills and understanding develop, then so too will new language." They added, as language is linked to cognitive processing, that it is important to make use of opportunities (both spontaneous and planned) to advance learning – to encourage learners to articulate their understanding, which in turn advances new learning. Teachers are to capitalise on, recycle and extend new language so that it becomes embedded in the learners' repertoire.

> *Language progression in this sense can be defined as the systematic development of emerging language from specific contexts, supported by structure grammatical awareness, using known language in new ways, accessing unknown language and so on. Thinking of these processes as a spiral is helpful... It also provides an alternative approach to a transmission model where either much of the language input is pre-determined or translated from the first language. (Coyle et al., 2010, p.63)*

4.1.3. The CLIL matrix

In line with Coyle's 4Cs framework is the CLIL matrix – a project by the European Centre for Modern Languages of the Council of Europe, developed by Marsh, Kitanova, Wolff, and Zielonka in the years 2004-2007. It is an awareness-raising and training tool for teachers who wish to consider the skills and knowledge necessary for achieving quality CLIL and/or to examine the extent to which they are prepared for teaching through CLIL. The matrix is built around the core elements of CLIL (i.e. content, language, integration, and learning). These four elements are realised through a set of four parameters: culture, communication, cognition and community. There are 16 indicators and about 80 questions.

Table 6 – A summary of the CLIL matrix – a 4 dimensional core framework (ECML, 2007)

CLIL	Content	Language	Integration	Learning
Culture	Culture is deeply embedded in many aspects of communication. In CLIL it is necessary to ensure that there is not a cultural black hole in the learning environment. This is achieved through appropriate target language input (through materials, networking, etc.).	CLIL teaching provides the possibility to develop cultural aspects of using language. A quality CLIL classroom will allow the learner to acquire and use a broad range of registers in the target language.	Integrating the learning of language and content needs to be culturally relevant. The wider cultural objectives (the reasons for doing CLIL in language x and location y) are clearly specified in quality CLIL.	Quality CLIL invites opportunities to engage in intercultural learning (e.g. studying a topic through an alternative perspective allows for reflection on the self and the other). These opportunities need to be analysed and integrated into

CLIL	Content	Language	Integration	Learning
				the curriculum.
Communication	Interactive learning (e.g. cooperative learning through pair and group work as opposed to mainly listening to a teacher talk) is usually a quality feature in a common CLIL classroom.	A quality CLIL class will typically include both learner-learner and learner-teacher communication which is socially oriented. The teacher's communication should ensure maximum richness of language while adapting to the learner's level.	Diverse types of communication when learning content are typical features of most quality CLIL classrooms. The teacher needs to ensure that the methods used enable such communication to take place through content learning.	In a quality CLIL classroom, communication needs to actively support both the language and the content learning process. This requires a wide variety of communication skills to be used by both teachers and students alike.
Cognition	In CLIL learners deal with complex content in another language. It is necessary to ensure that methods used in the classroom nurture the cognitive demands resulting from CLIL.	Subject learning requires handling a cognitive load. In quality CLIL, care is taken to support and guide learners in concept-building in the target language.	Some types of quality CLIL result from team-teaching or close cooperation between content and language teaching. All CLIL teachers, however, should constantly take responsibility for the cognitive demands of dealing with both language and content.	Quality CLIL requires careful consideration of the linguistic and subject cognitive demands of the learners. The teacher needs knowledge and skill in balancing the dual-focus of these through appropriate methods in the classroom.
Community	The 'community' includes the school, parents and other stakeholders. A CLIL class should be embedded in a positive and supportive community.	Language learning rarely takes place only within the classroom. In quality CLIL it is optimal if the school and other external stakeholders also support the language development of the learner.	The value of doing CLIL needs to be recognised by the wider community/society around the school. This is to ensure long-term development and sustainability. The quality of CLIL in the school ensures that these values for the wider society are clear and transparent.	Quality CLIL depends on a positive learning environment within the classroom, the school, and in the wider community.

4.1.4. CLIL methodologies

From these four core elements of CLIL (cognition, community, content, and communication, with 'cognition' being the governing element), Mehisto et al. (2008, p. 29-30) listed 30 core features of CLIL methodologies as follows:

Multiple focus

- Supporting language learning in content classes
- Supporting content learning in language classes
- Integrating several subjects
- Organising learning through cross-curricular themes and projects
- Supporting reflection on the learning process

A safe and enriching learning environment

- Using routine activities and discourse
- Displaying language and content through the classroom
- Building student confidence to experiment with language and content
- Using classroom learning centres
- Guiding access to authentic learning materials and environments
- Increasing student language awareness

Authenticity

- Letting the students ask for the language help they need
- Maximising the accommodation of students' interests
- Making a regular connection between learning and the students' lives
- Connecting with other speakers of the CLIL language
- Using current materials from the media and other sources

Active learning

- Students communicating more than the teacher
- Students help set content, language and learning skills outcomes

- Students evaluate progress in achieving learning outcomes
- Favouring peer co-operative work
- Negotiating the meaning of language and content with students
- Teachers acting as facilitators

Scaffolding

- Building on a student's existing knowledge, skills, attitudes, interests and experience
- Repacking information in user-friendly ways
- Responding to different learning styles
- Fostering creative and critical thinking
- Challenging students to take another step forward and not just coast in comfort

Co-operation

- Planning courses/lessons/themes in co-operation with CLIL and non-CLIL teachers
- Involving parents in learning about CLIL and how to support students
- Involving the local community, authorities and employers

4.2. CLIL AND MOTIVATION – A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

CLIL is claimed by its supporters to be beneficial in many ways, including motivating learners (Dooly and Eastment, 2009; Lasagabaster, 2008; Lorenzo et al., 2007; Maljers et al., 2007). Coyle (2007) asserted that CLIL challenges the learner to take a high-quality learning approach. According to her, CLIL provides more contexts in which to use the foreign language (FL) and increases the degree of motivation and the need to learn an FL. She sums up the beneficial outcomes of CLIL as follows:

> *CLIL can and does raise learner linguistic competence and confidence; raise teacher and learner expectations; develop risk-taking and problem-solving skills in the learner; increase vocabulary learning skills and grammatical awareness; motivate and encourage student independence; take students beyond "reductive" foreign language topics; improve L1 literacy; encourage linguistic spontaneity (talk) if students are enabled to learn through the language rather than in the language; develop study skills, concentration (learning how to learn though the*

> *language is fundamental to CLIL); generate positive attitudes and address gender issues in motivation; and put cultural awareness back on the agenda. (Coyle, 2007, p.548)*

Similarly, Darn has said that: "Natural use of language can boost a learner's motivation towards learning languages. *In CLIL, language is a means not an end, and when learners are interested in a topic they will be motivated to acquire language to communicate*" (2006, p.4, my emphasis). Marsh and Langé (2000) also highlight that CLIL programmes can nurture a *feel good* attitude among students, as the higher proficiency level they have achieved may have a positive effect on their desire to learn and develop their language competence:

> *Experience of CLIL can make this possible. It can nurture a youngster's feel good attitude as they themselves see that successes can be achieved, however modest, and that the road towards improvement and development is truly open to them. The secret here is to capitalize on the positive attitudes which the youngsters may have towards languages, whether because of CLIL or not, and use their motivation to reach the best possible outcomes in terms of learning the language, and the other subject. (Marsh and Langé, 2000, p.7)*

In the field of motivation, Gardner has also pointed out that "by making the second language a tool necessary to acquire material and skills with other aspects of education, the foreignness of the other language may well be less formidable" (2010, p.199).

Moreover, CLIL is believed to motivate not only learners better but also teachers. In her research project, Coyle (2006, p.8) concluded that CLIL increased teachers' motivation through collaborating with other colleagues and in cross-curricular opportunities. Also, in CLIL, teachers' sense of involvement in curriculum development helps boost their motivation. According to Coyle, the flexible non-prescriptive CLIL models encourage context-driven changes. Moreover, motivated teachers 'breed' motivated learners by: enhancing learners' values and attitudes related to the foreign language through 'different' approaches, such as by increasing learners' expectations; and making the content more relevant for learners (in terms of the subject matter and the cognitive level at which learners operate, which is not dependent on their linguistic level). Coyle also found that, in CLIL classrooms, the strategies to maintain motivation included making the learning stimulating and enjoyable, presenting tasks in a motivating way and building learners' self-esteem and confidence.

In contrast with these positive views, cautions and criticisms have also emerged regarding the benefits of CLIL in terms of motivation. Coyle noted that "CLIL must not be seen as a 'solution' to modern languages motivation – it raises [as] many issues as it solves – but rather as a fertile ground for changing practice which is no longer motivating for many young people" (Coyle, 2011, p.5). She warned that when taking into account the multiple factors involved in any learning context, such as learner characteristics, teaching style, composition of the class and pedagogical approaches, researchers should refrain from generalising the results of the rare studies on motivation in CLIL contexts. She added:

> *CLIL is a relatively new phenomenon and as such there is no one commonly accepted approach to CLIL pedagogies. Alternative approaches often accelerate motivation only to be diminished once the "newness" has "worn off". Some evaluations focus on the positives and ignore the Hawthorn effects. (Coyle, 2011, p.16)*

Coyle also proposed a process model for investigating motivation specifically within CLIL settings, based on Dörnyei's model (1994) of components of motivational teaching practice.

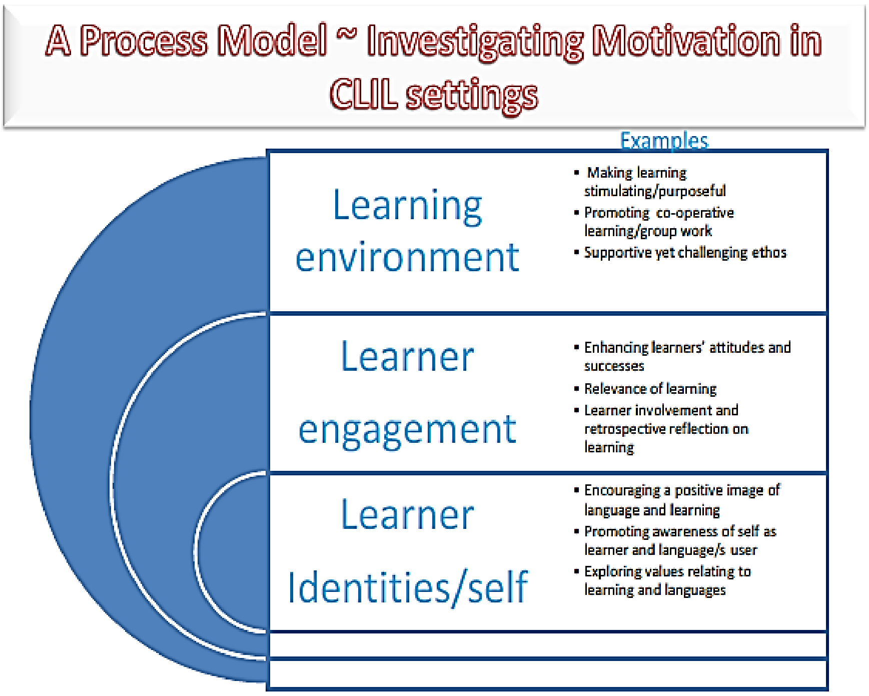

A Process Model ~ Investigating Motivation in CLIL settings
Examples
Learning environment
Making learning stimulating/purposeful
Promoting co-operative learning/group work
Supportive yet challenging ethos
Learner engagement
Enhancing learners' attitudes and successes
Relevance of learning
Learner involvement and retrospective reflection on learning
Learner Identities/self
Encouraging a positive image of language and learning
Promoting awareness of self as learner and language/s user
Exploring values relating to learning and languages

Figure 14 – Coyle's process model for investigating motivation in CLIL settings (Coyle, 2011, p.7)

In our view, this model actually emphasises the potentially motivating factors of CLIL, yet the subject matter variable/factor is completely ignored. It does not differ from any model relating to academic language learning. Moreover, it fails to contemplate the fact that, as mentioned before, one factor can be perceived by CLIL actors as motivating, demotivating or amotivating. It does not really account for the dynamics of motivation, which goes from a pre-actional stage to an executive stage and finally to a post-actional stage.

In short, CLIL theorists seem to be optimistic about the potential of CLIL increasing motivation among students, thus improving the quality of educational practice. But this is due to the fact that researchers only look for the positive effects of CLIL factors.

4.3. RESEARCH ON CLIL AND MOTIVATION ACROSS CONTEXTS

Despite the generally optimistic view about the topic, few studies have explored motivation in CLIL settings and the results are often inconclusive.

A very early study in this area was done by Seikkula-Leino (2007) in **Finland**. The aim of the study was to investigate how successfully pupils had learned content in CLIL and to assess pupils' motivation and self-esteem in CLIL. The study included 217 pupils from grades 5 and 6 in a Finnish comprehensive school. 116 of them were enrolled in CLIL classes. The CLIL groups were selected. The results indicated that CLIL students had low linguistic self-confidence, although they had strong motivation.

> *No significant differences were found in measured self-esteem between the two groups.*[6] *However, CLIL pupils felt that they had worse knowledge of foreign languages than pupils in non-CLIL classes. CLIL pupils also evaluated themselves as weaker foreign language learners than pupils in non-CLIL classes. CLIL pupils demonstrated strong motivation to learn in general, including the learning of foreign languages despite their low self-esteem in relation to that of pupils in non-CLIL classes. Pupils in CLIL still wanted to achieve more external goals than internal ones even though motivation for reaching internal objectives seemed to develop by age. (Seikkula-Leino, 2007, p.335-336)*

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[6] Two groups were compared: CLIL and non-CLIL students

In **England**, Hunt (2011) investigated pupils' perceptions of learning content through a foreign language. The study involved 283 pupils aged 11-18 from 13 secondary schools. Data were collected using a 10-item questionnaire. The findings indicated that pupils were positive about this approach, as they enjoyed the lessons, the activities and the resources. However, responses to the statement "I felt more motivated" were not positive, since only 43% of the pupils agreed with the statement, 42% were not sure, and 12% did not agree. The author speculated that the learners had misunderstood the statement, as all the remaining responses indicated greater motivation.

Another research study conducted in England using a mixed-method approach yielded similar results. In her doctoral thesis, Bower (2013) developed her own L2 motivation model, based on Williams and Burden's (1997), Dörnyei's (1994) and Coyle's (2011) models (see Table 7).

Table 7 – Bower's process motivation model for investigating CLIL in the classroom in England (Bower, 2013, p.99-100)

Aspect of motivation	Principal characteristics	Exemplification of potential sources of evidence for principal characteristics: what to look for	Potential investigation methods/instruments
Learning environment			
Teacher specific	The nature of interaction within the classroom: environment promotes purposeful, simulating learning within a supportive ethos	• Affiliative motive (to please the teacher) • Authority type (controlling vs. autonomy-supporting) • Appropriate challenge • Modelling/task presentation • Appropriate enthusiasm • Nature of learning experiences • Learner independence • Nature, timing and amount of feedback • Nature and amount of appropriate praise • Rewards/sanctions	• Teacher interview • School documentation • Focus group • Pupil questionnaire/ interview • Observation
	Environment fosters positive emotions	• Confidence • Fear/anxiety • Enjoyment/pleasure	• Pupil questionnaire • Focus group • Observation
Course specific	Interest/ relevance	• Stimulating course content • Relevance to pupils' needs • Resources • Time of day, week, year • Expectancy of success	• Review resources and school documentation • Pupil questionnaire/ interview • Focus group • Observation

Aspect of motivation	Principal characteristics	Exemplification of potential sources of evidence for principal characteristics: what to look for	Potential investigation methods/instruments
Group specific	The nature of interaction within the group: promoting co-operative learning	• Size of class and school • Class and school ethos • Group cohesiveness • Prevailing goal structure (cooperative, competitive or individualistic group work) • Engagement	• Pupil questionnaire/ interview • Teacher interview • Observation
Learner engagement			
	Perceived value of activity	• Personal relevance • Anticipated value of outcomes • Intrinsic value attributed to the activity • Identified regulation (helped by teachers/others to identify how the learning is important to them)	• Pupil questionnaire/ interview • Focus group • Teacher interview • Observation
	Pupils' attitudes towards	• Language learning in general • The TL • The TL community	• Pupil questionnaire • Focus group • Teacher interview • Observation
	Pupils' perceptions of their learning	• Pupils' perceptions of ○ Their efforts ○ Their progress ○ The level of difficulty/challenge	• Pupil questionnaire • Focus group • Observation
	Engagement in learning tasks	• Willingness to engage • Response to tasks • Use of learner strategies • WTC willingness to communicate • Pupils' use of the TL • Progress	• Pupil questionnaire • Focus group • Teacher interview • Observation • Work scrutiny
Learner Identities/Self			
	Self-concept	• Realistic awareness of personal strengths/weaknesses in skills required • Personal definitions and judgements of success and failure • Self-worth/concern • Learners understand *how* they are motivated • Exploration of values relating to learning and languages • Learned helplessness	• Pupil questionnaire • Focus group • Teacher interview • Observation • Work scrutiny
	Mastery	• Feeling of competence • Awareness of development of skills • Self-efficacy	• Pupil questionnaire • Focus group • Teacher interview

Aspect of motivation	Principal characteristics	Exemplification of potential sources of evidence for principal characteristics: what to look for	Potential investigation methods/instruments
		• Ability to set appropriate goals	• Observation • Work scrutiny

It should be noted that, contrary to the previous models, Bower's model takes into account the 'content' factor of the CLIL pedagogical system.

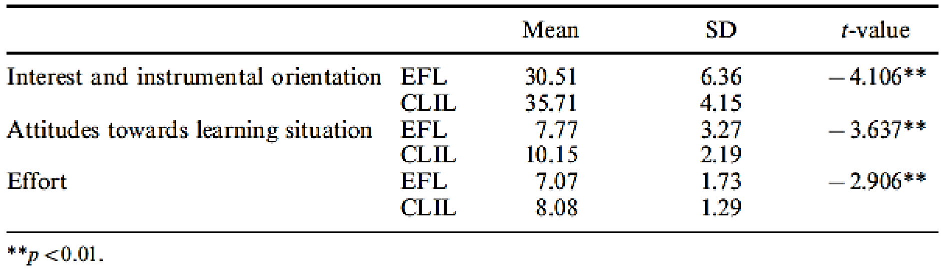
Her study was conducted in three different schools. Questionnaires, interviews and focus group questions were implemented. The results showed that: (1) the cognitive challenge involved in CLIL, where teaching was effective, was found to raise the engagement, attainment and motivation of the learners; (2) pupils in the study demonstrated a deeper understanding and appreciation of intercultural awareness than is often seen in language classrooms; (3) pupils and teachers reported high levels of concentration, engagement and effort in lessons; (4) pupils were more interested and found greater relevance in the CLIL course content than in their usual language lessons; (5) the high expectations and levels of cognitive challenge in all three models generated pupil motivation and the opportunity for learners to improve their foreign language; and (6) most pupils enjoyed being able to use the language for real purposes and were proud of what they had achieved. The last finding was contrary to the results of the study of Seikkula-Leino (2007), mentioned above.

In **Spain**, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009) put forward the hypothesis that students who enrolled in the CLIL groups would hold more positive attitudes towards learning English than those in traditional EFL groups. 287 students from four different Basque schools were divided into two groups: 14-15 year olds and 15-16 year olds. A seven-point semantic differential scale based on Gardner (1985) was used. The results showed that the hypothesis was borne out, i.e. the students enrolled in CLIL classes held significantly more positive attitudes towards English as a foreign language than those in EFL classes. They concluded that:

> *These results suggest that the use of the FL to teach content has a substantial impact on students' attitudes and this is so in both the SE3 and the SE4 groups [the two groups mentioned above]. The explanation could lie in the fact that a CLIL approach provides more intense exposure and more meaningful opportunities to use the target language. Language is best learned in authentic situations and, if traditional FL learning is compared with good CLIL practice, the latter is clearly far ahead in this respect. (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2009, p.13)*

Those results were repeated in another study of Lasagabaster (2011). In this cross-sectional study, 191 language learners from the Basque Country aged 15-16 years old, with 27 students in the EFL group and 164 students in the CLIL group, were addressed. The instrument was a 13-item questionnaire. The items were presented on a five-point Likert-type scale going from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The items were grouped into three factors: Factor I (*interest and instrumental orientation*), Factor II (*attitudes towards learning English in class* or *language-learning enjoyment*), and Factor III (*effort*). The results showed that CLIL students appeared to be more motivated than their EFL counterparts in the three factors (see Table 8).

Table 8 – Motivation in EFL and CLIL groups (Lasagabaster, 2011, p.11)



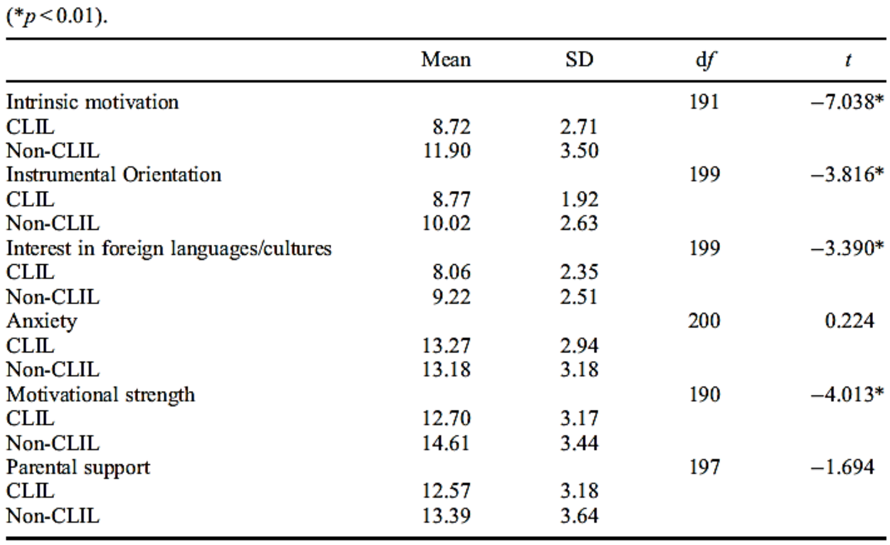
		Mean	SD	*t*-value
Interest and instrumental orientation	EFL	30.51	6.36	−4.106**
	CLIL	35.71	4.15	
Attitudes towards learning situation	EFL	7.77	3.27	−3.637**
	CLIL	10.15	2.19	
Effort	EFL	7.07	1.73	−2.906**
	CLIL	8.08	1.29	

**$p < 0.01$.

Lasagabaster concluded that “the different types of tasks completed in a CLIL context tend to generate more positive motivational responses than those carried out in traditional EFL contexts and therefore, they raise the students’ language-learning interest through a more appropriate approach” (2011, p.15). It should be noted that the two groups were far from equal: 164 students in the CLIL group versus 27 students in the non-CLIL group. These results, therefore, should be treated with caution.

Similar results were also reported in his other study in collaboration with Doiz and Sierra in 2014. The studied involved 393 students from five schools in the Basque Country divided into two age groups: 12-13 year olds and 14-15 year olds. The questionnaire was based on scales previously used by Gardner (1985) and Schmidt and Watanabe (2001). The six scales under investigation in the study comprised: (1) instrumental orientation, (2) parental support, (3) intrinsic motivation, (4) interest in FLs/cultures, (5) anxiety, and (6) motivational strength. The analysis of the results revealed that the students in CLIL groups were more motivated than the non-CLIL students, especially in their intrinsic motivation, instrumental orientation and interest in FLs/cultures (see Tables 9 and 10). It must be noted here that the CLIL students had lower means in all scales except for anxiety (among both age groups) and parental support (among third-year students). However, the differences in these scales were not statistically significant.

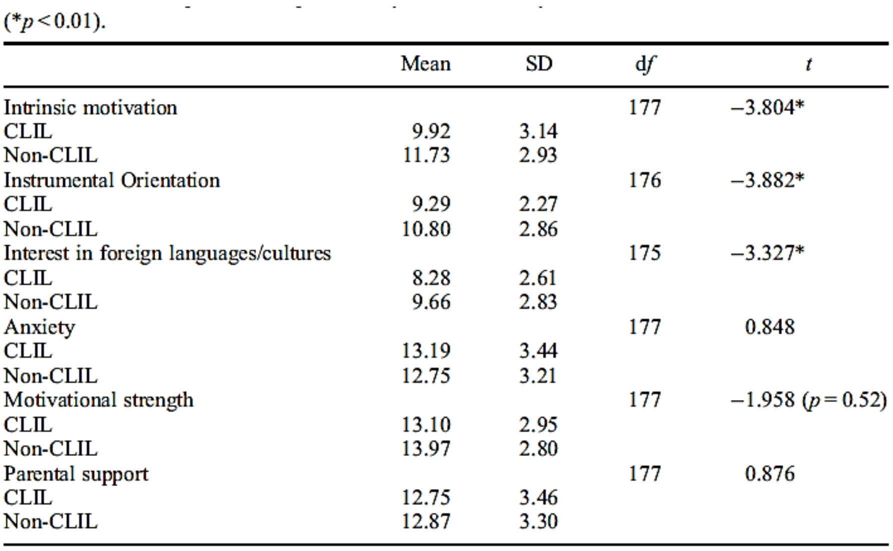
Table 9 – t-test independent samples, first year of secondary education: CLIL vs. non-CLIL (Doiz et al., 2014, p.218)



(* $p < 0.01$).

	Mean	SD	*df*	*t*
Intrinsic motivation			191	−7.038*
CLIL	8.72	2.71		
Non-CLIL	11.90	3.50		
Instrumental Orientation			199	−3.816*
CLIL	8.77	1.92		
Non-CLIL	10.02	2.63		
Interest in foreign languages/cultures			199	−3.390*
CLIL	8.06	2.35		
Non-CLIL	9.22	2.51		
Anxiety			200	0.224
CLIL	13.27	2.94		
Non-CLIL	13.18	3.18		
Motivational strength			190	−4.013*
CLIL	12.70	3.17		
Non-CLIL	14.61	3.44		
Parental support			197	−1.694
CLIL	12.57	3.18		
Non-CLIL	13.39	3.64		

Table 10 – t-test independent samples, third year of secondary education: CLIL vs. non-CLIL (Doiz et al., 2014, p. 218)



(* $p < 0.01$).

	Mean	SD	*df*	*t*
Intrinsic motivation			177	−3.804*
CLIL	9.92	3.14		
Non-CLIL	11.73	2.93		
Instrumental Orientation			176	−3.882*
CLIL	9.29	2.27		
Non-CLIL	10.80	2.86		
Interest in foreign languages/cultures			175	−3.327*
CLIL	8.28	2.61		
Non-CLIL	9.66	2.83		
Anxiety			177	0.848
CLIL	13.19	3.44		
Non-CLIL	12.75	3.21		
Motivational strength			177	−1.958 ($p = 0.52$)
CLIL	13.10	2.95		
Non-CLIL	13.97	2.80		
Parental support			177	0.876
CLIL	12.75	3.46		
Non-CLIL	12.87	3.30		

The authors, nonetheless, advised against generalising the results, taking into account a series of individual (age and sex) and contextual (socio-cultural) variables that may influence such results. According to them, the effect of these variables, which have little to do with the CLIL approach per se, has not always been sufficiently considered when explaining the positive outcomes of CLIL.

Another study, also in Spain but with a different age group – 8-9-year-old, grade 4 primary education students – by Fontecha and Alonso (2014), showed different results. The study investigated 62 students: 31 from the CLIL group and 31 from the non-CLIL group. Part of an adapted version of Gardner's (1985) attitude/motivation test battery (AMTB) was used to measure intrinsic, extrinsic and general motivation. The results showed that although all learners were highly motivated, statistically significant differences in terms of learners' motivation towards English as a Foreign Language in favour of the non-CLIL group were detected (see Figure 15).

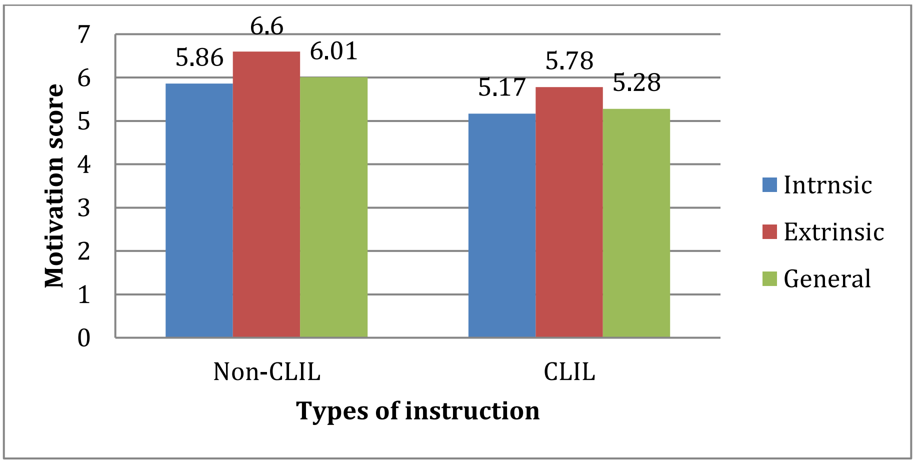
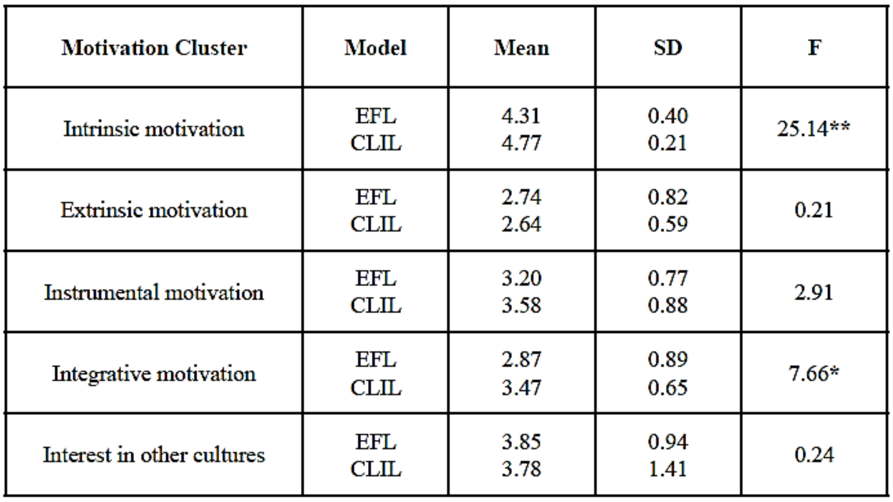


Figure 15 – Levels of general motivation per type of instruction (Fontecha and Alonso, 2014, p.27)

This can be interpreted in terms of cognitive load (Raby, 2005; Lespiau and Tricot, 2018). At this early age, learning a content subject in a foreign language with the cognitive load imposed by the foreign language may contribute to increasing the difficulty of learning the subject and, as a result, motivation might have decreased.

This study, along with some others (e.g. Lorenzo et al., 2007; Seikkula-Leino, 2007), triggered later studies on motivation among primary CLIL students. Again, Lasagabaster (2015) tested the CLIL hypothesis among primary students in Navarre, Spain. The study involved 87 primary education students enrolled in grade 5 (10-11 year olds) in three different schools, among whom were 32 pupils from a non-CLIL school and 23 pupils from a CLIL school. The different types of motivation included: intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, instrumental motivation, integrative motivation, and interest in other cultures. The results indicated that CLIL had a positive influence on the intrinsic and integrative motivation clusters (see Table 11).

Table 11 – Motivation in EFL and CLIL groups (Lasagabaster, 2015, p.51)



Motivation Cluster	Model	Mean	SD	F
Intrinsic motivation	EFL CLIL	4.31 4.77	0.40 0.21	25.14**
Extrinsic motivation	EFL CLIL	2.74 2.64	0.82 0.59	0.21
Instrumental motivation	EFL CLIL	3.20 3.58	0.77 0.88	2.91
Integrative motivation	EFL CLIL	2.87 3.47	0.89 0.65	7.66*
Interest in other cultures	EFL CLIL	3.85 3.78	0.94 1.41	0.24

In response to the claimed "positive effect of CLIL on motivation" (Lasagabaster, 2011, p.8), Sylvén and Thompson (2015) used Ryan's (2009) Motivational Factors Questionnaire (MFQ) to compare 109 high school students enrolled in CLIL programmes and 68 students in non-CLIL programmes from three different schools. It should be noted that the investigation took place prior to the CLIL students' exposure to CLIL. The list of factors under investigation were: cultural interest, attitudes towards the L2 community, instrumentality, international contact, interest in foreign languages, international empathy, fear of assimilation, ethnocentrism, travel orientation, English anxiety, attitudes to learning English, milieu, parental encouragement, ideal L2 self, L2 self-confidence, willingness to communicate, and intended learning effort. The results revealed that CLIL students had a greater interest in foreign languages, more positive attitudes towards learning English, a stronger ideal L2 self, more English self-confidence, a higher willingness to communicate in English, a more positive attitude towards the L2 community and higher intended learning effort. Non-CLIL students were more ethnocentric and had higher English anxiety. The authors pointed out a significant flaw in some CLIL research: CLIL students often being selected begin with more motivation, thus explaining the significant upper-hand that they already have before CLIL starts. Rumlich refers to this selection of students into CLIL versus non-CLIL strands as "a creaming effect" (2013, p.185); i.e. the cream of the crop, or the most able and motivated students, who opt for CLIL. The authors concluded that:

> *Our results underscore the necessity of controlling for motivational factors a priori, and in so doing avoid overstating "the positive effect of CLIL on motivation" (Lasagabaster, 2011, p.8), when motivation, in fact, is not necessarily an effect of CLIL but potentially an inherent trait of CLIL*

> *students. This does not mean, however, that CLIL for certain individuals cannot boost motivation (Fehling, 2008), but we need to be careful when making claims about causality. (Sylvén and Thompson, 2015, p.40)*

In a clinical study comparing CLIL and non-CLIL students' beliefs about language, Sylvén (2015) used photographs to elicit learners' perceptions of the L1 and the FL/L2. Two boys, one CLIL and one non-CLIL, were selected for analysis due to their shared commonalities. They were asked to take approximately five photos per day and per language for one week illustrating their L1 (Swedish), and their FL/L2 language. Then, they were interviewed to elaborate on these photos. The results showed that the CLIL student saw both the L1 and the FL/L2 as communicative tools, i.e. language was merely to be used to convey information and to communicate with others, while the non-CLIL student saw both languages as separate systems, or individuals, that needed to be safeguarded from external influences. The author concluded that "from a pedagogical point of view, these different ways of seeing language are of interest as they most probably entail different motives to learn an FL/L2. They probably also influence other individual differences such as willingness to communicate, anxiety, and language learning strategies" (Sylvén, 2015, p.268).

In **Italy**, where CLIL programmes have been imposed by various legislations, Held (2017) conducted a mixed-method research study to investigate anxiety and motivation among CLIL students from four high schools in Veneto with different CLIL practices. The questionnaires used in the research included the following components: motivation, communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, self-esteem, cognitive impact of anxiety, and test anxiety. The results showed that anxiety was widespread among CLIL students regardless of the CLIL practice and that communication apprehension was generally the most widespread aspect of foreign language anxiety. Motivation, on the other hand, appeared to be high. The students were convinced that CLIL helped them learn the foreign language. The result is interesting, since it suggests that anxiety does not always impair motivation.

In **Argentina**, where CLIL was implemented in a bottom-up process started by practitioners (Banegas, 2013), students and teachers were found to be more motivated and interested in CLIL lessons when they had the chance to collaborate in the content selection (Banegas, 2013).

> *CLIL may be a valuable option to co-develop and foster motivation among teachers and students provided that the content is negotiated with the students.*

> *However, negotiation also includes sources of input and activities. When teachers and students discover their interests, needs and demands, the learning process irradicates new possibilities through which their roles and identities are reconfigured, always in relation to one another. Teachers and students become active agents by co-developing materials and offering suggestions which will feed into the classroom dynamics and materials development. (Banegas, 2013, p.93)*

In **Asia**, as CLIL is still a new practice, the literature on motivation in CLIL contexts is scanty. We found only one study in the field for **Taiwan**, as well as two other studies in the English as Medium of Instruction (EMI) context (also for Taiwan) and another in the content-based instruction (CBI) context in Thailand. In the first study by Yang (2015), a mixed-method study was employed to trace the development of CLIL students in their language proficiency, content knowledge, and their perceptions of the course, using tests and questionnaires as well as interviews. The study involved 29 students. The results revealed that the learners showed a significant improvement in their receptive linguistic skills. They also performed better than other students in a national-scale English proficiency test. More importantly, the respondents to the questionnaire generally agreed with the claimed benefits of the CLIL approach, but were doubtful about the improvements in their productive linguistic skills, enhanced learning motivation and CLIL. Low English achievers were especially inclined to believe that CLIL did not change them much in terms of either content or language learning, but rather differentiated them from their peers more and more markedly and in such a way that they not only fell behind in their academic performance, but also felt discouraged, anxious or even resistant.

The study in **Taiwan** within the EMI context by Huang (2015) investigated 157 students, made up of 93 local and 64 foreign students. They all completed a self-assessment questionnaire on the experience of taking the EMI course. The results showed that most students had been motivated to take EMI courses to strengthen their English ability and professional knowledge. Most of the participants agreed on the helpfulness of the EMI courses. The major learning anxiety experienced by local students stemmed from their self-perceived low English proficiency. Interestingly, there existed significant differences between local and international students in terms of learning motivation, learning anxiety and learning achievement: local students had a higher level of learning anxiety, a lower level of learning motivation, whether extrinsic or intrinsic, lower self-perceived achievement and higher peer pressure.

The study in **Thailand** by Lai and Aksornjarung (2018) investigated 81 undergraduates in the CBI progamme, using a six-point Likert scale questionnaire. The results showed that the students generally had a very positive attitude towards CBI, and their motivaton for learning English was at a moderate level. The positive attitude was due to the interesting topics, the appropriateness of the content and the authenticity and meaningfulness of the tasks. Interestingly, the researcher found that there was no relationship between students' attitudes towards the course and their motivation for learning English.

Finally, we will review the two studies that inspired my current research, one by Gil (2010) and the other by Amengual-Pizarro and Prieto-Arranz (2015). Both studies were conducted in Spain. In the first study by Gil, a case study was conducted to investigate the European Section programme, including students' profiles, their beliefs, attitudes and motivations towards English language learning and CLIL, and their use of L1 and L2 in the classroom. The data were collected by means of questionnaires put to the students, the teachers and the programme coordinator, besides other procedures like informal interviews and observations. There were two questionnaires for students, serving two different purposes: one to uncover the language profile of the students and the other to find out about their attitudes, beliefs and motivations towards the English language, the EFL subject and the subject of technology in English. There were 55 items in the second questionnaire, which was divided into three main parts: (1) attitudes, composed of 19 five-point Likert scale statements, (2) beliefs, consisting of 20 Likert scale statements, and (3) motivation, consisting of 16 multiple choice questions. There were 60 student informants in total. The author found out that, in general, CLIL students considered studying English was important and felt a remarkably low degree of anxiety both in EFL and CLIL classes. However, there were more anxious students in the CLIL classes than in the EFL class. Also, students seemed to be more motivated in the EFL class than in the CLIL classes. The author explained the contradiction between her results and the results of other research (e.g. Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2009) by pointing to the fact that unlike the *traditional* EFL classes in other studies, the EFL class in the studied context shared a number of features typical of CLIL instruction such as naturalistic and implicit learning, cooperative learning, scaffolding, authenticity, etc., thus creating a safe and relaxed atmosphere for students. Another point to note is that students seemed to be sceptical about their improvement in English as a result of CLIL instruction.

In the second piece of research, by Amengual-Pizarro and Prieto-Arranz (2015), the authors used the same questionnaire on attitudes, beliefs and motivation, but this time to compare the affective factors between CLIL and non-CLIL students over two periods, at the onset of CLIL and one year later. The results showed no statistically significant differences between CLIL and non-

CLIL students concerning their attitudes, beliefs and motivation towards language and language learning. Thus, even though these affective factors improved among CLIL students over time, this also held true for non-CLIL students. However, non-CLIL students appeared to be less intrinsically motivated to study English. Both groups seemed to show less appreciation for their ELF classes over time. However, CLIL students showed a significantly lower anxiety level when having to speak in class and more willingness to meet more native speakers towards the end of the CLIL programme.

Summary

It can be noted that results in CLIL and motivation research differ from country to country, school to school, and individual to individual. This is totally understandable, as CLIL is flexible and there are many different models that depend on a range of contextual variables. Therefore, there is a need to investigate the issue in a specific context (Raby, 2009). Nonetheless, despite the variety of the results, some traits emerge from the bulk of CLIL motivational research. Firstly, CLIL seems to have a positive effect on motivation due to the interest taken in the course. Secondly, CLIL does not seem to produce significant results in terms of the students' general self-esteem and self-confidence in language learning. Lastly, CLIL does not seem to diminish levels of anxiety, stress, or uneasiness in foreign language classes.

4.4. CLIL DEBATE IN A NUTSHELL

As can be seen from the different models of CLIL and its wide ranges of principles, CLIL is not an entirely new 'approach' in the sense that it refers to long-established theories about the nature of language and language learning. As a matter of fact, the rationale for CLIL rests on a number of points based on constructivist and socio-constructivist theories, as well as language acquisition theories (Dalton-Puffer, 2008): creating an authenticity of purpose, thus boosting learners' motivation; providing a richer and more naturalistic learning environment; fostering cognitive development and flexibility in the learners through its constructivist approach; and, finally, raising international understanding. Nevertheless, these benefits are still under debate. While CLIL seems to be supported by a number of second language acquisition theories (e.g. Krashen's theory of second language acquisition, Vygotski's socio-constructivist theory, and Bloom's taxonomy of thinking skills), and numerous studies have attempted to prove its effectiveness in improving language competence, content learning and motivation (Dalton-Puffer, 2008; Dooly and Eastment, 2009; Lasagabaster, 2008; Lorenzo et al., 2007; Maljers et al., 2007), it is not free from criticism. The rationales of CLIL have been questioned by some researchers (e.g. Bruton, 2011; 2013; Harrop, 2012; Rumlich, 2013; Sylvén, 2015).

4.4.1. CLIL and language attainment

The first pro-CLIL argument is that CLIL leads to higher levels of attainment in language learning. CLIL creates an authentic communicative context, thus providing a naturalistic environment with a focus on meaning (Marsh and Langé, 2000). This argument is supported by a number of second language acquisition theories, as mentioned above. Growing research evidence also seems to support this claim. However, this claim is also questioned by some researchers, notably Bruton (2011; 2013). He pointed out some research problems in CLIL studies, explaining that CLIL students might begin with more motivation and higher language proficiency, thus explaining the significant upper-hand that CLIL students have, even before CLIL starts. He further reasoned that "if the subject content is complicated or unfamiliar and supposes acquiring new concepts, this might hinder rather than benefit language development" (Bruton, 2013, p.592). Bruton also illustrated his points with a number of studies where interaction in the FL is very often absent, and translation and L1 use is not atypical (Mehisto, 2008; Tan, 2011).

4.4.2. CLIL and content learning

The second debateable point is about content learning. CLIL advocates often argue that CLIL does indeed work for everybody and suggest that more research should address bilingual programmes in mixed-ability settings (Küppers and Trautmann, 2013). However, there are also a number of other authors who consider that students need to have achieved a threshold in the L2 in order to be able to cope with CLIL courses (Gierlinger, 2007; Zydatib, 2012). According to these authors, insufficient language skills may hinder students' cognitive development as well as subject learning.

4.4.3. CLIL and culture

Another point that needs to be reconsidered is the cultural aspect. CLIL is often claimed to lead to greater intercultural understanding and to prepare pupils better for internationalisation (Coyle et al., 2009). As presented in the previous section, Coyle (2006) put culture at the centre of her 4Cs framework. However, Bruton (2013) argued that content teaching does not necessarily suppose day-to-day communication on current affairs or the inclusion of FL cultural features. Moreover, he added, the most common FL is English, but not because most EL learners are particularly interested in English-speaking cultures per se. "It is very much the instrumentality of English that has made it so popular" (Bruton, 2013, p.592).

4.4.4. CLIL ethics

CLIL has also raised a concern about social equality. CLIL promoters often cite a further benefit of CLIL: egalitarianism. "Egalitarianism has been one success factor because the approach is seen to open doors on languages for a broader range of learners" (Marsh, in Bruton, 2013, p.593). However, a number of studies suggest that CLIL is highly selective (Bruton, 2011; Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster, 2010; Seikkula-Leino, 2007). Bruton (2013) also added that in the schools where there were optional CLIL streams, it was parents of a higher socio-economic status who opted to put their children into CLIL. In the case of Vietnam, choosing CHSs to pilot CLIL has clearly raised concerns about inequality. The project in Vietnam has been criticised for only addressing the wealthiest. A huge amount of human and financial resources have been allocated to a project which concerns only 2% of high school students. While the country is still poor, the specified policies are creating a greater social gap (Nhan, 2013).

4.4.5. CLIL and motivation

Lastly, the argument often put forward by CLIL promoters is that CLIL motivates students better than traditional EFL. The reason given is that CLIL satisfies the immediate need to study the language. Instead of *learning the language now and using it later,* CLIL provides students with an environment where they can *learn the language while using it and use the language while learning it.* As Marsh and Langé (2000, p.3) explains: "This natural use of language can boost a youngster's motivation and hunger towards learning languages. It is this naturalness which appears to be one of the major platforms for CLIL's importance and success in relation to both language and other subject learning." Moreover, CLIL develops a positive can-do attitude in the students towards themselves as language learners. However, Bruton (2013) refuted this argument by stating that much of the language in the content classes may not be relevant elsewhere later and vice versa. He quoted a student from Makropoulos's study (2010, in Bruton, 2013, p.590-591): "I'm not going to be speaking French to somebody about science or something like that". Knowledge and interest also do not necessarily correlate in the academic context. Some students just naturally prefer studying foreign languages to mathematics or sciences, not to mention the fact that CLIL courses depend on the availability of the resources, not on the students' choice (Gierlinger, 2007). Moreover, the can-do attitude has also been questioned. In Seikkula-Leino's study (2007), although CLIL learners were reported to be more motivated than their non-CLIL counterparts, they had a lower self-concept of themselves as language learners.

Table 12 – CLIL debate summary

CLIL benefits	**CLIL difficulties**
CLIL and language attainment	
- CLIL creates an authentic communicative context, with a focus on meaning (Marsh and Langé, 2000). - Empirical studies prove that CLIL improves language competence (e.g. Lasagabaster, 2008; Lozenzo et al., 2007).	- Interaction in FL is very often absent in CLIL classes (Bruton, 2013). - If the content is complicated or unfamiliar, this might hinder language development (ibid). - Problems with these studies – CLIL students are often selected, thus having higher level of language than the non-CLIL group even before starting CLIL (Rumlich, 2013; Sylvén, 2015).
CLIL and content learning	
- CLIL works for everybody,	- Students need to achieve a

CLIL benefits	CLIL difficulties
regardless of the language level (Küppers and Trautmann, 2003).	threshold in the L2 in order to be able to cope with CLIL courses. - Insufficient language skills may hinder students' cognitive development (Zydatib, 2012).
CLIL and culture	
- CLIL leads to greater intercultural understanding, thus better preparing students for internationalisation (Coyle et al., 2009).	- Content teaching does not include FL cultural features. - Students are particularly interested in English for its instrumentality, not the culture (Bruton, 2013).
CLIL ethics	
- CLIL open doors to languages for a broader range of learners (Marsh and Langé, 2000).	- CLIL is highly selective and 'elitist', thus creating social inegalitarianism (Bruton, 2011; Nhan, 2013).
CLIL and motivation	
- "This natural use of language can boost a youngster's motivation and hunger towards learning language" (Marsh and Langé, 2000). - CLIL develops a positive can-do attitude in students.	- The language in a CLIL class is not everyday language. - CLIL courses depend on the availability of resources (e.g. teachers), not on the students' choice (Gierlinger, 2007). - Studies suggest that although CLIL learners were more motivated than their non-CLIL counterparts, they had a lower self-concept of themselves as language learners (Seikkula-Leino, 2007).

The chapter has given a bird's-eye view of the CLIL system. We will be interested to see how the results of the present study are received in the debate about CLIL's potentialities. In the following chapter, the research design of the present study will be presented.

5.

THE RESEARCH DESIGN OF THE STUDY

5.1. THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Carrying out a triangular evaluation (Raby, 2009) of CLIL programmes requires a confrontation of cognitive and affective data, a confrontation of the different actors' perceptions, and also a confrontation of different interpretative frameworks. Such an endeavour calls for an interdisciplinary research team, which should emerge in the years ahead. The present research is a first step towards this, focused on the learners' and teachers' perceptions of their CLIL experience, and the research design derives from this goal, from the research questions. We will now recapitulate the research questions, and then present the research instruments and the data analysis. Four research questions were investigated:

1. What perceptions do students hold about English learning and CLIL?
2. How have these perceptions changed over time?
3. What perceptions do teachers hold about the CLIL project in Vietnam?
4. How do students' and teachers' perceptions compare?

In order to answer these questions, we used the triangular method presented in Chapter 3. As mentioned earlier, the complete method would have demanded encompassing the whole motivational process (pre-actional phase, actional phase, and post-actional phase), which would have entailed classroom video observations. Within the limits of a doctoral thesis and field constraints in Vietnam, my research only focused on the actors' perceptions, using learners' questionnaires and teachers' interviews. Data were collected twice: during the 2015-2016 school year and again in 2016-2017.

5.2. THE RESEARCH SETTING: CLIL SCHOOLS AND ORGANISATIONS

As mentioned in the first chapter, Vietnam set up a system of Competitive High Schools (CHSs) for high-achieving learners at the secondary school level. Learners were selected based on their profiles or official examinations. Besides following the national curriculum like the normal schools, learners in these schools have extensive courses in their specialist subjects so that they can participate in regional, national or international competitions. In Hanoi – the capital city of Vietnam, where this study was conducted – there are seven CHSs, of which three are based in and managed by universities, and four are managed by the city's local authority.

The three participating schools chosen were:

School 1: The CHS based in the University of Languages and International Studies (hereafter UBS1)
School 2: The CHS based in the University of Natural Sciences (hereafter UBS2)
School 3: Chu Van An, a high school managed by the city of Hanoi (hereafter CBS3)

At **UBS1**, CLIL lessons were launched in 2009. At the time, CLIL was selective. Anyone who wanted to take the course had to pay a tuition fee. However, from 2011 until now, CLIL has been mandatory for all learners for the first two school years – grades 10 and 11. The reason provided by the teacher participant for this was that, in the first two years, learners had more time. There were two CLIL teachers; both of them were mathematics teachers. One of them was the teacher attached to the school; the other was an invited teacher who was teaching at a university. Both the teachers agreed to participate in the study. There had been other CLIL teachers, but some of them had dropped out of the programme, and others had replaced them. A B1 level of English and at least a Master's degree in mathematics were required to be selected as a CLIL maths teacher. According to one teacher participant, they were also evaluated by the learners.

CLIL courses lasted 45 minutes per course and per week. The teachers decided on the contents of the lessons, since they were provided with no guidelines or a set programme. Therefore, the content of the CLIL lessons could be similar to or different from the content of traditional mathematics lessons in Vietnamese. There were no scores or evaluations of the CLIL courses, either.

At **UBS2,** the CLIL practice was different. CLIL was adopted in 2012 and taught only in special classes called 'high-quality classes'. These special classes were set up for the 'elite of high achieving' learners. The learners in these classes had to study for 1-2 hours per week for each CLIL lesson: CLIL mathematics, CLIL physics, CLIL chemistry, and CLIL biology. All the CLIL teachers were the current 'content' (maths, physics, etc.) teachers of the school, who taught lessons both in Vietnamese and in English. Teachers were encouraged to 'do CLIL'. Two CLIL teachers agreed to participate in the study. The teachers decided on the content of the CLIL lessons. There were similarities and differences in the content of lessons in Vietnamese and in English. There were no official tests or official evaluations of the CLIL courses.

At **CBS3,** CLIL was implemented only at the beginning of the 2015-2016 school year. This means that, when the data were collected for the first time, CLIL had only been practiced for a few months. The students had one CLIL lesson of 50 minutes per week in their specialist subject. For example, learners specialising in mathematics had CLIL mathematics lessons, learners in the chemistry class had CLIL chemistry, etc. All CLIL teachers were current teachers of the school. Teachers were encouraged to do CLIL. They were selected by their own colleagues. CLIL teachers decided on the content, the organisation and the evaluation of the CLIL courses. Learners were evaluated and given marks. The subject matter (content) in Vietnamese accounted for 90% of the final mark, and CLIL accounted for 10% of the final mark.

Table 13 – CLIL organisation

	UBS1	**UBS2**	**CBS3**
Year of implementation	2009	2012	2015
Number of classes with CLIL implementation/ total/school year	13 classes/13 classes	3 classes/16 classes	4 classes/17 classes
Grade concerned	Grades 10 and 11	Grades 10, 11 and 12	Grades 10, 11 and 12
Selection of students	No	Only for high-quality classes	For students specialising in certain subjects
Subjects concerned	Mathematics for all students	Mathematics, physics, chemistry, and biology for all CLIL students	Mathematics for students specialising in mathematics, physics for students specialising in physics, chemistry for chemistry students, biology for biology students

	UBS1	UBS2	CBS3
Number of hours per week	45 minutes	4-6 hours for 3 subjects	50 minutes
Teachers	Content teacher of the school and invited teacher	Content teachers of the school	Content teachers of the school
Evaluation	No	No	10% of total mark for the subject

5.3. THE PARTICIPANTS

5.3.1. The students

At **UBS1**, there were 74 student participants. There were 24 males and 50 females. The students studied CLIL mathematics.

At **UBS2**, there were 56 student participants. There were 38 males and 18 females. The students studied CLIL mathematics, CLIL physics, CLIL chemistry and CLIL biology.

At **CBS3**, there were 66 student participants. There were 40 males and 26 females. The students studied either CLIL mathematics, CLIL chemistry, or CLIL biology.

The student participants were 16-17 years old. They were all high-achieving students. They specialised in different majors. They all had to follow the national curriculum, except for their specialist subjects, the curricula for which were heavier. Concerning English language learning, all learner participants in this study attended 105 classes of 45 minutes each. However, it is common practice in Vietnam for learners to take extra lessons (including English) outside their school.

5.3.2. The teachers

At **UBS1**, there were two teacher participants. One of the teachers had a five years' experience of CLIL (hereafter **Teacher 1**). She had been teaching mathematics since 2000, and CLIL since 2010. She got her Master's degree in mathematics in 2005. She got a B2 level of English in 2014. Although she had no training in CLIL, she was some sort of CLIL trainer.

The other CLIL teacher at UBS1 (hereafter **Teacher 2**) was an invited teacher, who was a teacher at a university. He had been teaching mathematics since 1999, and CLIL since 2010. He did his Master's course in the Netherlands in the 2001/2002 academic year, and then did his PhD in Germany from 2003 to 2009. He got a TOEFL score of 597 in 2002 (B2 to C1).

At **UBS2**, there were also two teacher participants. One taught physics and the other taught mathematics. The physics teacher (hereafter **Teacher 3**) had spent nine years studying abroad in Sweden and Korea. He had two years' teaching experience in Korea, and seven years' teaching experience in Vietnam as of the time of the study. He has been teaching CLIL since 2011. He even opened a private school providing CLIL courses for learners who wished to study abroad. He was a CLIL teacher-trainer. He had given five training courses for CLIL teachers of physics. All the courses were organised by the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET).

The other teacher participant at the school was a mathematics teacher (hereafter **Teacher 4**). She had been teaching mathematics since 2002, and CLIL since 2008. She got her Master's degree in 2010. She had no qualifications in English. However, according to her, through the seminars at school, people know everyone's strong points and weak points, and she was chosen to teach CLIL thanks to her professional knowledge and communication skills.

At **CBS3,** there were three teacher participants. One teacher was a CLIL mathematics teacher (hereafter **Teacher 5**). She had been teaching since 2005, but only began teaching CLIL a few months prior to the study. She had got a B2 English level qualification in 2015. Before starting her CLIL courses, she had attended two CLIL teacher training courses. The courses were organised by the Hanoi Department of Education and Training. Each training course lasted for three months. There were two topics in each training course: general English and English for specific subjects. The teacher-trainers were English teachers. She did not find the courses very effective because the teacher-trainers were not experts in the field.

Another CLIL teacher of the school was a biology teacher (hereafter **Teacher 6**). She had been teaching biology since 2007 and CLIL for several months. She had obtained her Master's degree shortly before. According to her, she was not very eager to teach CLIL since she lacked the necessary training. She was offered a three-month CLIL teacher training course. The course only provided general English lessons because there was no teacher-trainer available to teach English for biology. She started teaching CLIL at the same time.

The last teacher at CBS3 was a chemistry teacher (hereafter **Teacher 7**). He had been teaching chemistry since 2003 and CLIL for two years in his extra, private classes outside of school. At school, he had only taught CLIL for several months. He obtained his Master's degree in 2010. His level of English was B1. He said he was chosen to do CLIL because of his English level. He had taken several CLIL teacher training courses organised by the Hanoi Department of Education and Training.

Table 14 – Teacher profiles

	Subject	**Highest degree**	**English level**	**Teaching experience**	**CLIL experience**	**CLIL training**
Teacher 1 (female)	Maths	Master's (2005) (PhD candidate)	B2	15 years	5 years	No
Teacher 2 (male)	Maths	PhD (2009)	B2-C1	8 years	5 years	No
Teacher 3 (male)	Physics	PhD (2004)	9 years study and work abroad	9 years	4 years	No
Teacher 4 (female)	Maths	Master's (2010)	Not specified	13 years	7 years	No
Teacher 5 (female)	Maths	Master's (2008)	B2	10 years	6 months	Yes
Teacher 6 (female)	Biology	Master's (2015)	B1	8 years	6 months	Yes
Teacher 7 (male)	Chemistry	Master's (2010)	B1	12 years	2 years	Yes

5.4. DATA COLLECTION

5.4.1. The students' survey

5.4.1.1. Rationale for the students' survey

The questionnaires for the students' survey were adapted from the questionnaires used in previous research (Gil, 2010; Amengual-Pizarro and Prieto-Arranz, 2015) with the permission of the authors. The first and possibly most obvious advantage of this is that the questions would have already been tested at the time of their first use, thus researchers could be fairly confident that they are good indicators of their concepts of interest. We drew on questionnaires elaborated by Catalan researchers. We translated them into Vietnamese and some items were adapted to suit the Vietnamese context. For example, questions like "Which language do you speak to your mother/your father/your siblings?" was not suitable in the Vietnamese context because, apparently, Vietnam is not a multi-lingual country where many languages are spoken in everyday life. There were two main categories: a first set of data concerned perceptions of English as an international language and of English as subject matter at school, while the second set concerned perceptions of CLIL. During the processing, data were organised in accordance with the theories of CLIL motivation developed in Chapter 4 and Raby's process model of motivation (Raby, 2007; 2015).

The questionnaires for learners consisted of factual and opinion questions relating to both English learning and CLIL. For reasons related to school organisation, it was unfortunately impossible to carry out preliminary questionnaires before CLIL classes actually started. Therefore we had to adopt Raby's procedure and simplify it. As explained by Raby (2008), motivation is a meta-concept which combines different factors in interactions, and internal and external factors which become introjected in the students' minds and account for their behaviours. The purpose of this questionnaire, in the first stage, was to elicit the students' motivational profile according to different factors. It was administered at the outset of the CLIL programme, and the same questionnaire was administered one year later to elicit potential changes in students' representations and perceptions of CLIL.

5.4.1.1.1. Internal factors

These explain how students perceive, represent and evaluate work situations in accordance with their own mental characteristics.

- The cognitive factor refers to the difficulty/ease of learning English in traditional EFL classes and the difficulty/ease of learning specific content through a foreign language in CLIL classes.
- The affective factor refers to enjoyment/displeasure during English classes and enjoyment/displeasure when learning specific content through a foreign language in CLIL classes.
- The social factor refers to enjoyable/unpleasant experiences when cooperating (or not) with peers or teachers during English classes, and when learning specific content through a foreign language in CLIL classes.

5.4.1.1.2. External factors

These are social/cultural factors which explain how external perceptions, representations, and evaluations are more or less consciously internalised by the students and influence their behaviours and representations.

- Parents may find it important for their children to master a foreign language when dealing with their specialist subject.
- Teachers' pressure may urge students to involve themselves in EFL or CLIL classes.
- CLIL's elitist/local characteristic: school competition is hard and attending CLIL classes may become an asset.
- Professional expectations are also of importance in the sense that the mastery of a specialty in a foreign language may help to get an upper hand in the forthcoming competition for work.

5.4.1.2. Construction of the questionnaire (appendix 4)

The first part of the questionnaire concerns students' self-perceptions concerning English learning at school and how it influences their involvement in English classes. It has a predictive function since a mastery of the English language (or, on the contrary, a low level in English) may favour or hamper the mastery of a specialist subject in English, namely, in a CLIL *dispositif*.

The second part of the questionnaire is focused on CLIL. Its first goal is to obtain the students' positive, negative, balanced or neutral evaluation of their CLIL experience in accordance with Raby's politomic model. The second goal is to try to exact the factors supporting this evaluation and see how they rank in accordance with Raby's weighted model. Finally, in a second stage after a year and half of CLIL practice, the goal is to find out if students' motivation for CLIL teaching has changed or not, and if so, in what way.

Questions are grouped in clusters as in traditional battery questionnaires on motivation. Most of the 'opinion' questions were 1-5 Likert-type scale questions. The students were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements. They could choose from (1) totally agree, (2) partly agree, (3) undecided, (4) partly disagree, and (5) totally disagree. Other questions asked learners to choose one of five different options included in each of the items.

5.4.1.3. Questionnaire administration

When the data were collected for the first time in December 2015, the student participants were in grade 10 – the first year of high school (age 16-17). At the time, the CLIL students had only been in the CLIL programme for several months. At UBS1, I went to three classes, explained the purpose of the study, and distributed the questionnaires. I stayed there for the entire time the learners answered the questionnaires, and explained any item that they did not understand to them. All students in these classes answered the questionnaires. However, some students gave up after several questions. These questionnaires were excluded from the study. For that reason, I obtained 74 responses for UBS1. The procedure was repeated for UBS2 and CBS3. At UBS2, I obtained 56 responses. At CBS3, I obtained 66 responses.

The second time the data were collected was in February 2017 when the participants were in grade 11 – the second year of high school (age 17-18). The learners had been in the CLIL programme for a year and a half. The same questionnaires were used, and the procedure was also repeated. Unfortunately, the number of participants was reduced this time since I was not able to distribute the questionnaires at CBS3 because the authorities refused to allow it. I could not pursue that question any further.

However, the learners from UBS1 and UBS2 remembered me and the questionnaires. I explained the purpose of this second investigation: that I wanted to know if they had changed their minds or not. That time, I obtained only 66 responses from UBS1 and 48 responses from UBS2.

Table 15 – Students' survey

	Time 1	**Time 2**
UBS1	74	66
UBS2	56	48

	Time 1	**Time 2**
CBS3	66	0

5.4.2. The teachers' interviews

5.4.2.1. Rationale for the teachers' interviews

To look at the problem from a different angle and to cross-check the learners' and teachers' perceptions of CLIL experience, semi-structured interviews with the teachers were used. Interview guides were developed, consisting of several 'base' questions. However, when I conducted the interviews, I followed up the responses given with additional questions depending on the teachers' answers. The interviews were conducted with individual teachers and were in Vietnamese, since the teachers were able to express themselves more clearly and openly in Vietnamese than in English.

5.4.2.1.1. Factual information

Since teachers were provided with no instructions or guidelines on how to implement CLIL classes, CLIL practices were bound to be very different from one school to another. It was thus necessary to gather some information about CLIL organisation.

5.4.2.1.2. Teachers' and students' motivation

The second goal of the teachers' interviews was to elicit the different factors which affected their motivation for teaching CLIL

Finally, from a triangular perspective, it was interesting to find out whether students' and teachers' perceptions overlapped and what recommendations they would put forward to improve the system.

Table 16 – The semi-structured interview guide

- How did you start doing CLIL?
- How are CLIL courses organised at your school?
- What percentage of English do you use as a teacher in a CLIL lesson? (In what cases do you use Vietnamese?)
- What percentage of English is used by students in a CLIL lesson? (In what cases do they often use Vietnamese?

- What do you think of the use of Vietnamese in CLIL lessons?
- Do you/your students have any difficulties during CLIL lessons? What do you do to overcome these difficulties?
- In your opinion, what aspects of CLIL promoted students' learning the most?
- Did you notice any changes in the students' grades in English and in your subject after they had begun doing CLIL?
- Did you notice any changes in the students' attitude/motivation to English and to the *content-subject* after they had begun doing CLIL?
- Have you noticed any differences between students who participated in the CLIL programme and those who did not?
- How would you describe your experience with CLIL? What was your first impression? How it has changed?
- Can you give me your personal opinion about the strengths and weaknesses of CLIL?
- What would you recommend to improve the CLIL programme at your school, and nationwide?
- Do you have any other comments? Would you like to add anything?

5.4.2.2. Teachers' data collection

The interview with Teacher 1 was conducted at UBS1 in a spare classroom. The interview lasted for 47 minutes.

The interview with Teacher 2 was conducted in a spare classroom of the university where the teacher was teaching. The interview lasted for 21 minutes.

The interview with Teacher 3 was conducted at UBS2 in a spare classroom. The interview lasted for 40 minutes.

The interview with Teacher 4 was conducted in her private classroom. (As mentioned in Chapter 1, Vietnamese teachers often take extra classes outside of school to make ends meet.) The interview lasted for 31 minutes.

The interview with Teacher 5 was also conducted in her private classroom. The interview lasted for 31 minutes.

The interview with Teacher 6 was conducted in a teachers' room at CBS3. The interview lasted for 18 minutes.

The interview with Teacher 7 was also conducted in that teachers' room at CBS3. The interview lasted for 17 minutes.

The durations of the interviews varied because some teachers were willing to talk more than the others.

5.5. DATA ANALYSIS

5.5.1. Processing of the questionnaires

The treatment of the questionnaire involved a descriptive statistical analysis. The purpose of this step was to summarise the data and find out what was typical and atypical within the groups. 'Le Sphinx Plus – V5' was used for this step. The results will be presented in Chapters 6 and 7 (see also Appendices 5 and 6).

Although all CLIL teachers are content teachers, the university-based high schools, UBS1 and UBS2, share some features in opposition to the city-based school, CBS3. We wanted to know if those differences influenced the students' answers to the questionnaire.

Table 17 – The differences between UBS1+UBS2 and CBS3

UBS1+UBS2	**CBS3**
Teachers are experienced pedagogues and teacher-trainers.	Teachers are experienced pedagogues.
Teachers do not receive any CLIL training.	Teachers have received a general language training. Teachers have received CLIL training before or at the outset of their courses.
There is no evaluation of the CLIL courses.	There is an evaluation of the CLIL courses.

Our next goal was to compare how these perceptions changed, particularly with regard to their motivation, after attending CLIL classes. However, owing to the fact that it proved impossible to administer the second questionnaire at CBS3, we had to give up the idea and limit myself to comparing the evolution of only the UBS1 and UBS2 learners.

5.5.2. Processing of the teachers' interviews

Ideally, qualitative data collection and analysis should be iterative or cyclical, yet, due to the constraints of the field research in Vietnam, I could only interview the teachers once. The interviews with teachers were analysed inductively. First of all, all the recordings were transcribed manually. We then translated them all from Vietnamese into English (see Appendix 8). As we read the transcripts again and again, looking for patterns and themes, categories of narrative information begin to emerge. We took note of each category as it appeared and developed a coding scheme. The narrative data were then coded accordingly. We then described the main features, the characteristics of the categories, making connections to the research questions. We also looked for information in the data that contradicted or conflicted with the patterns or trends that emerged. In this way, the data analysis and interpretation would be more accurate and meaningful. The whole process was done manually.

5.5.3. Presentation, interpretation and discussion of the results

After some consideration, we have decided to present the results together with their interpretation to avoid repetition and an unnecessary lengthening of the text.

The interpretation of the results was carried out following a top-down procedure. That is, we have selected results and organised them with a view to describing students' motivational traits in accordance with the research questions raised in the theoretical review of motivation. We have done the same for the interpretation of the results of the teachers' interviews.

6.

RESULTS FROM THE FIRST STUDENTS’ QUESTIONNAIRE – EARLY PERCEPTIONS

Before reporting the results relating to the students' and the teachers' perceptions, it seems necessary to recall a few epistemological standpoints of this research.

Firstly, cognitive ergonomics makes it clear that the only phenomenon that the researcher has access to is that of the actors' behaviours. Therefore, motivation (a mental state) is just a metaphor; at best, it is a meta-concept gradually and tentatively constructed by the researcher to account for a variety of behaviours and factors triggered by the *dispositif*, here the CLIL one (Raby, 2008). During this first step in the evaluation of the CLIL project in Vietnam, we have focused on the actors' perceptions, well aware that an evaluation of the motivational impact of CLIL requires far more information; this will come when, back in Vietnam, we launch the second stage of the research.

To study the students' perceptions of the CLIL *dispositif* and the students' perceptions of English as a foreign language, we have opted for a three-stage procedure. Firstly, we endeavoured to extract those perceptions of students which concern *English in general*: English as a subject matter at school, or as work content. For that investigation, we adopted a two-stage procedure: firstly, we generated global results, and then we tried to see if the two kinds of schools – University-Based Schools (UBSs) 1 and 2, on the one hand, and the City-Based School (CBS), on the other hand – yielded some differences. If they did, it would mean that the *dispositif* could be interpreted according to didactic criteria.

Table 18 – Reminder about the CLIL dispositif

UBSs	• CLIL teachers are content-teachers and not language teachers • They are not specifically trained for CLIL • There is no evaluation or control of the students' performances
CBS	• CLIL teachers are content-teachers and not language teachers • They are specifically trained for CLIL • There is an evaluation or control of the students' performances

Then, in the last stage, the focus was put on the CLIL *dispositif*. It should be remembered from Chapters 3 and 4, in this research, that a *dispositif* exists only when actors make use of it (otherwise it is just an artefact or a system) (Rabardel, 1995). As part of this research, the *dispositif* includes material elements (places, instruments) and immaterial elements pertaining to affect and cognition. The present study only focuses on immaterial elements, e.g. the cognitive and affective dimensions of the *dispositif*. The first questionnaire deals with the students' perceptions of English and CLIL after experiencing the *dispositif* for a few months. After a year and a half, a second questionnaire containing the same questions was handed out with a view to eliciting potential changes in the students' perceptions. More specifically, originally two questions were at stake: firstly, to what extent had the CLIL experience altered the students' perceptions of *English in general*, and secondly, what perceptions of the CLIL experience were yielded by the questionnaires?

6.1. STUDENTS' PROFILES

6.1.1. Experienced English learners

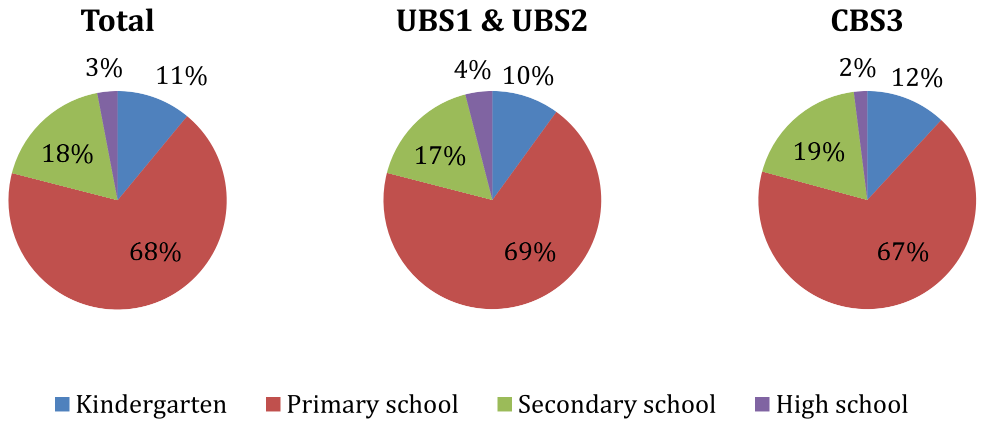


Figure 16 – When did you start learning English?

6.1.2. English prevails

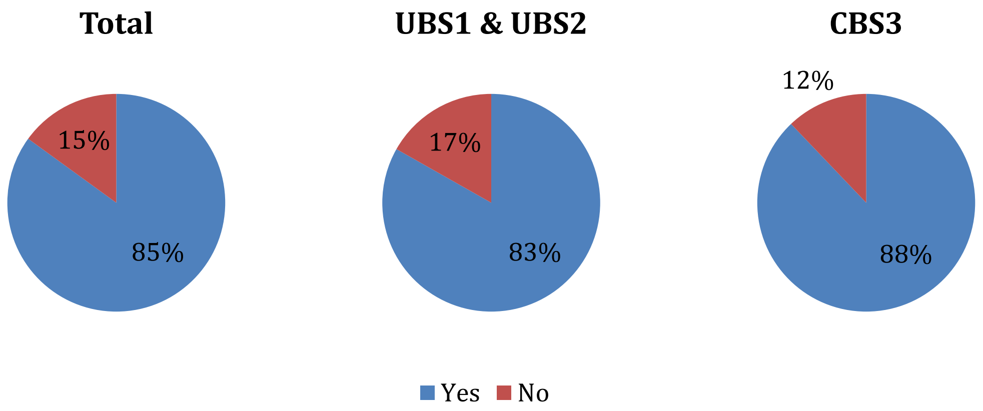


Figure 17 – Was English the first foreign language you studied at school?

Some factual information concerning the students as English learners was found to be necessary to later interpret the results of the study. A large majority of the students started English at primary school (almost 70% in each high school), and had English as their first foreign language (almost 90%). Therefore, they can be regarded as experienced EFL learners and the novelty of the CLIL *dispositif* would lie in the specific CLIL features: learning a subject through a foreign language. Furthermore, the results are strikingly consistent with respect to the schools' characteristics.

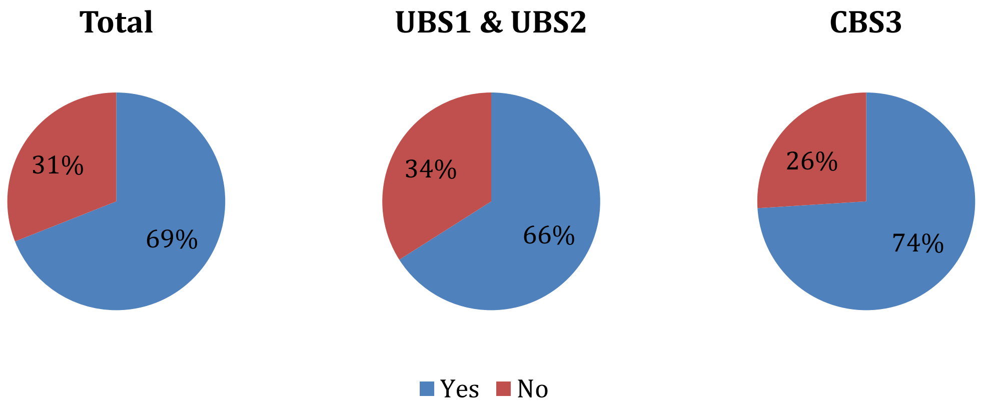


Figure 18 – Are you taking any out-of-school English courses this year?

Here again, the results are consistent: a vast majority of the students were taking extra foreign language instruction outside their schools. This is not surprising since, in an Asian context, school competition is so tough that parents do not hesitate to pay for extra courses of all kinds, and this should be remembered by western readers. The fact that school is far from being the only source of English acquisition requires great caution in the interpretation of the results. As mentioned before, the purpose of these results is to raise questions and to formulate hypotheses for future research, rather than measure the impact of the CLIL experience as such.

The following items have been organised *a posteriori* in keeping with Dörnyei and Raby's process models and according to the theories developed in Chapter 3. In the context of this study, we are only concerned with the pre-actional and the actional phases, since the items refer to the students' general self-perceptions and not to the evaluation of their performances/activity in a specific *dispositif*, or task, as will be the case when dealing with CLIL.

6.2. PRE-ACTIONAL PERCEPTIONS

The pre-actional perceptions encompass the students' representations of English (in general and as a subject matter at school) and the motivational factors which account for these representations.

6.2.1. Representations of *English in general*

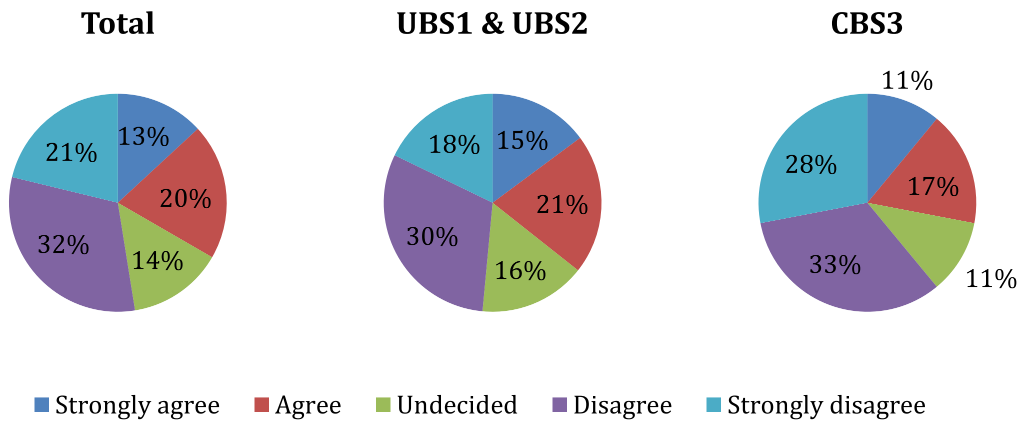


Figure 19 – I'm learning English because it is obligatory

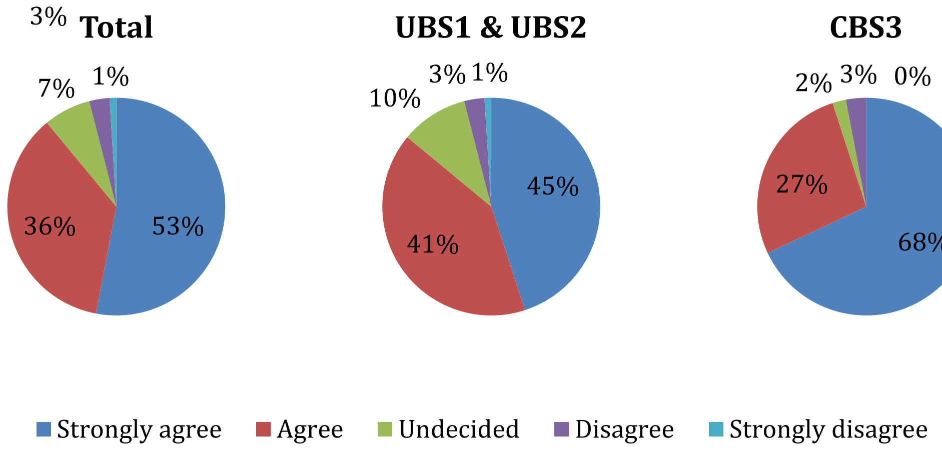


Figure 20 – Broadly speaking, I think learning English is important

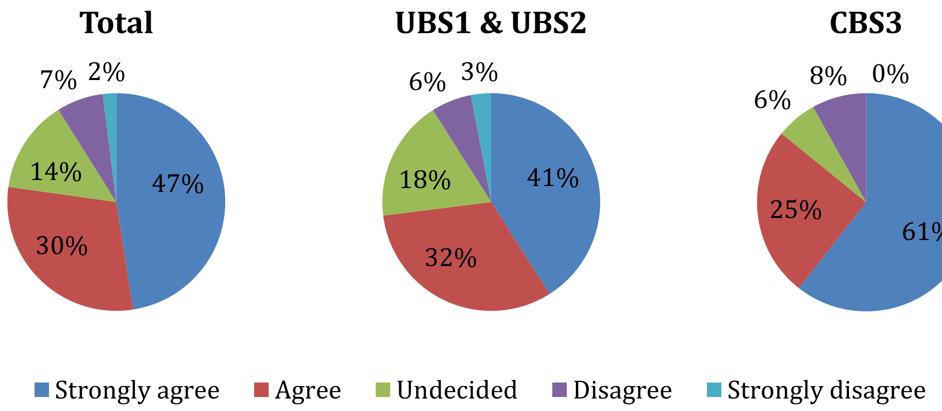


Figure 21 – In Hanoi, knowing English is necessary

More than half of the students (53%) disagreed that they were learning English because of external pressures (Figure 19). Nearly all of them (almost 90%) had internalised the importance of English, whether generally speaking or specifically in Hanoi (Figure 20 and Figure 21). Yet, it must be noticed that the students from the CBS in Hanoi seem to be more convinced of the importance of English than UBS students.

English prevails as *the* international language, in a globalised world, and especially in Vietnam (Huy Thinh, 2006), therefore, there is no choice: it is necessary to learn English at school in order later to be able to communicate and find a good job (Nunan, 2003).

6.2.2. Appreciation of English as a subject matter

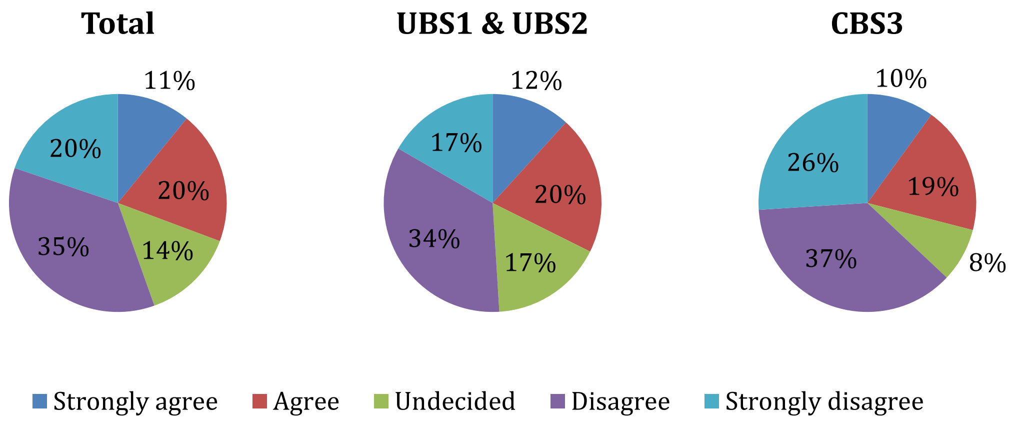


Figure 22 – I like English, but I do not like the English subject

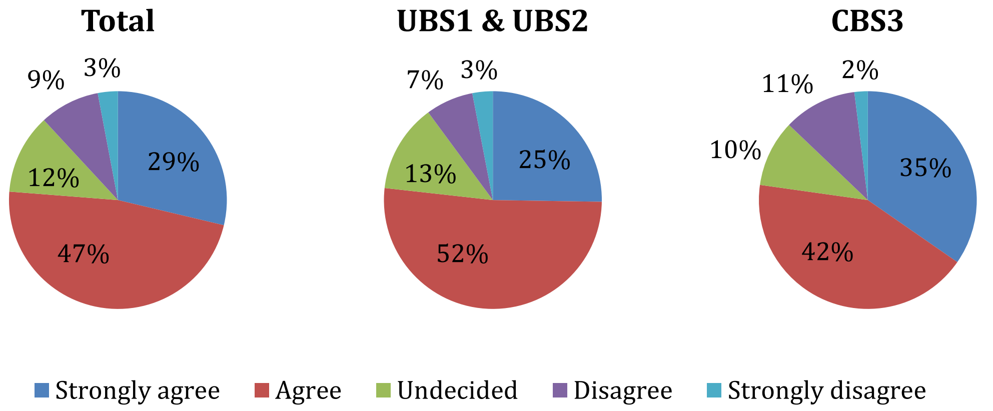


Figure 23 – Although it is obligatory, I like English

Appreciation of English as a subject was rather strong: more than 50% disagreed and only 31% agreed that they did not like English, and this notwithstanding the mandatory aspect of the English class (Figure 22). 29% strongly agreed that they liked English and 47 % agreed, which would certainly create a ceiling effect when we deal with the second questionnaire. But, on the other hand, it will also make it easier to decipher the extent to which the CLIL experience has affected their appreciation of English.

6.2.3. Factors which pilot their positive representations

The reasons for their appreciations are distributed between instrumental and integrative orientations and enjoyment.

6.2.3.1. Instrumental

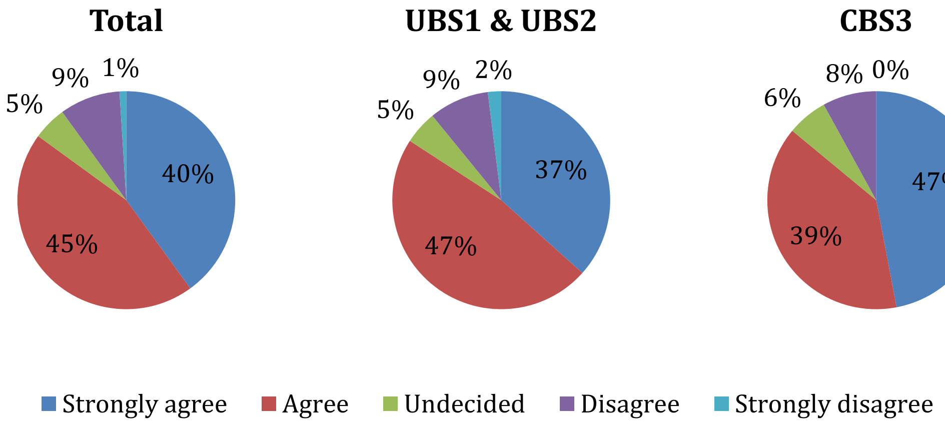


Figure 24 – I like English because it will help me to find a good job

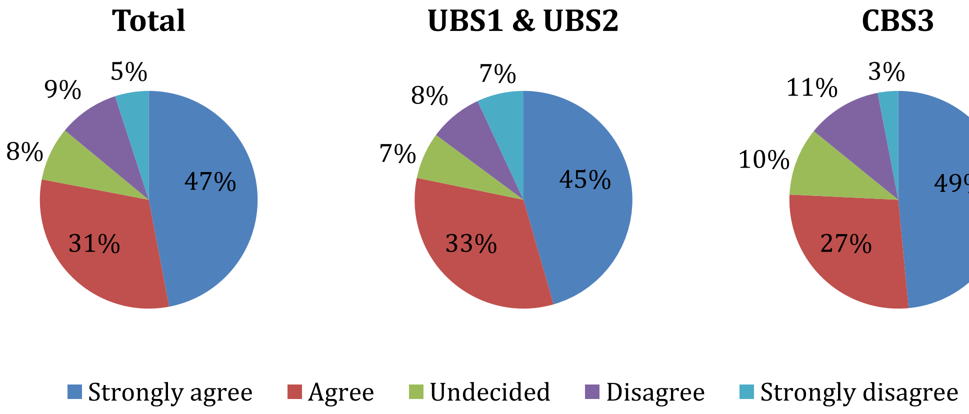


Figure 25 – I want to travel/study abroad and knowing English will help me

6.2.3.2. Integrative

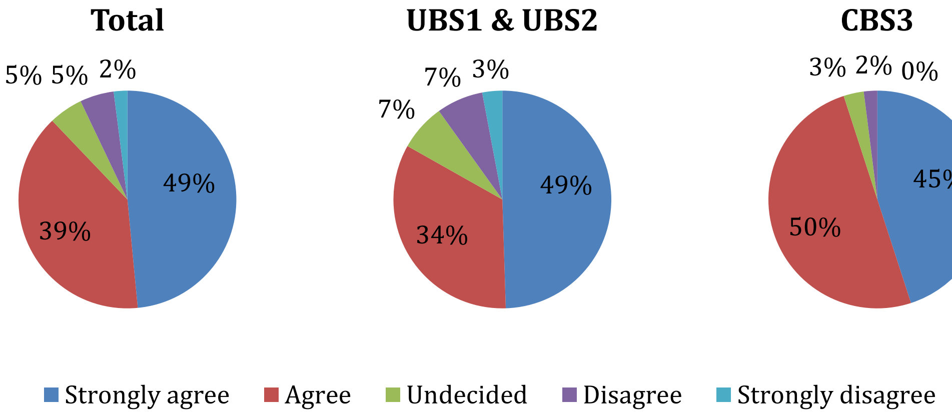


Figure 26 – I want to know English to be able to communicate with people from other countries

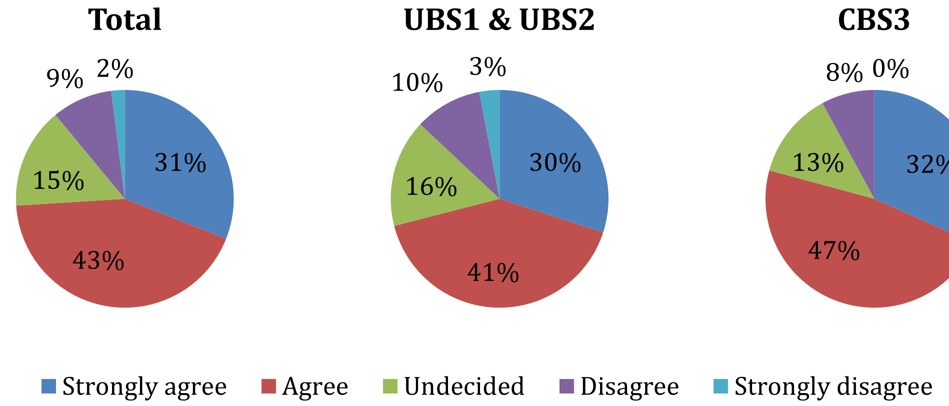


Figure 27 – I would like to get to know more English speakers

6.2.3.3. Enjoyment and learning pleasure

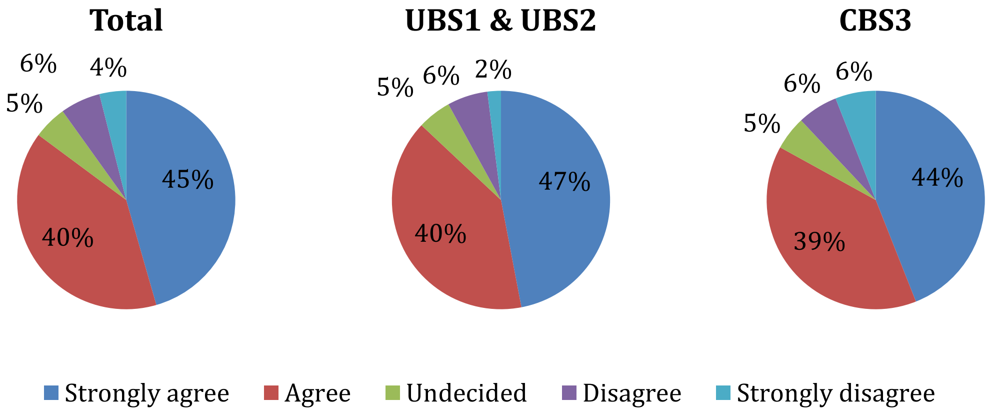


Figure 28 – I like music in English and I want to understand it

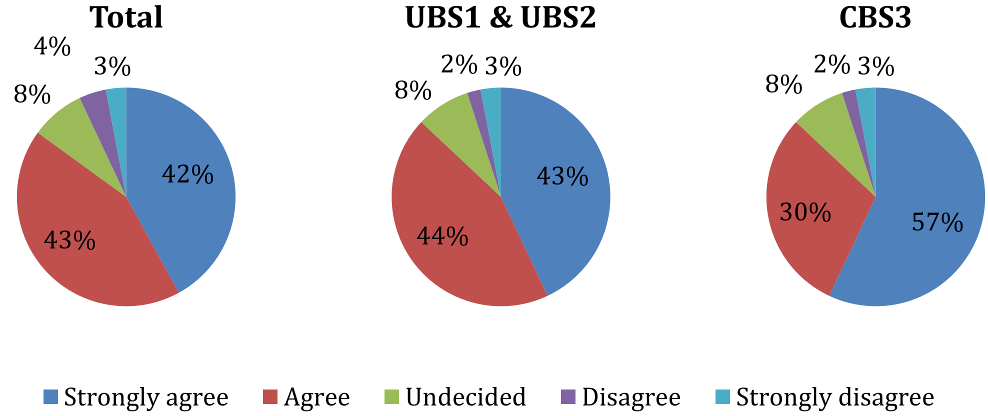


Figure 29 – I like watching films in English and understanding them

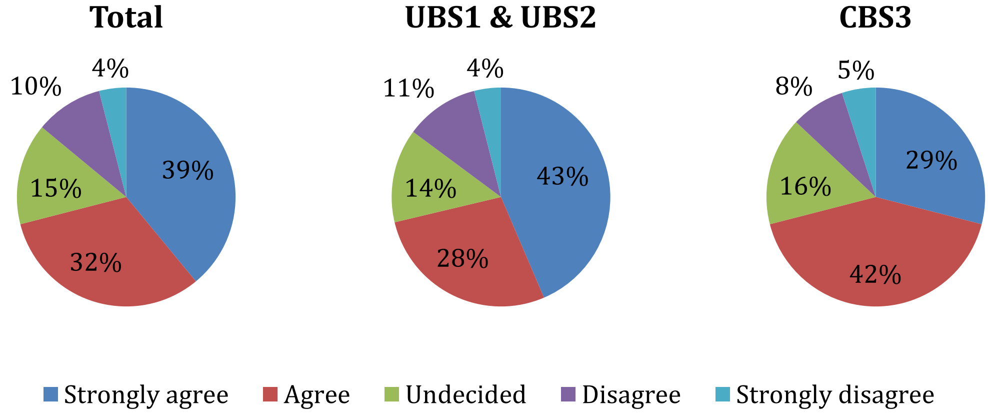


Figure 30 – Knowing English will help me to understand video games

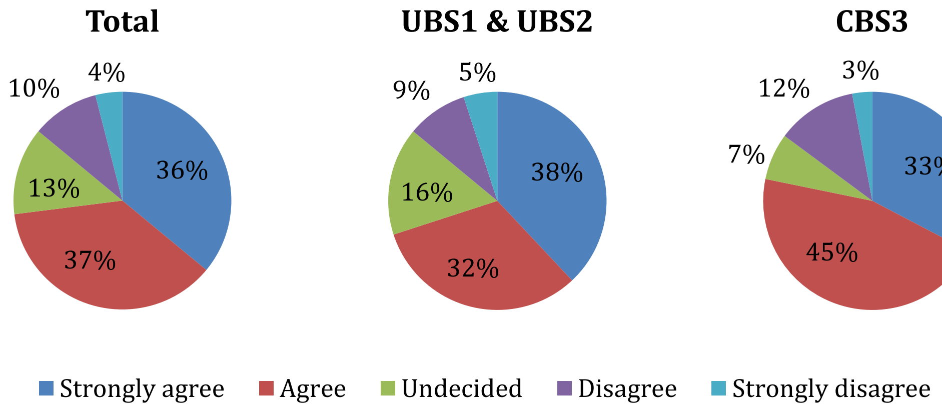


Figure 31 – I'm interested in learning other languages

English was clearly valued for cultural reasons. Charts concerning films (85% strongly agree/agree), music (85%) and video games (71%) show that the students were open to foreign cultures. In addition, 73% declared that they would enjoy learning another foreign language.

Their appreciations were consistent from one school to another and distributed between integrative and instrumental orientations and enjoyment.

Instrumental and integrative factors were of equal importance and both factors were overwhelmingly positive. No significant distinction appeared between the CBS and UBSs; the students' profiles remained remarkably consistent. These factors relate to goal theories which contend that a combination of both factors supports the increase or maintenance of motivation (Dörnyei, 2001).

6.3. ACTIONAL SELF-PERCEPTIONS OF THE EFL

6.3.1. Cognitive self-perception

These questions concern the four traditional language competences and relate to the difficulties of the learning experience.

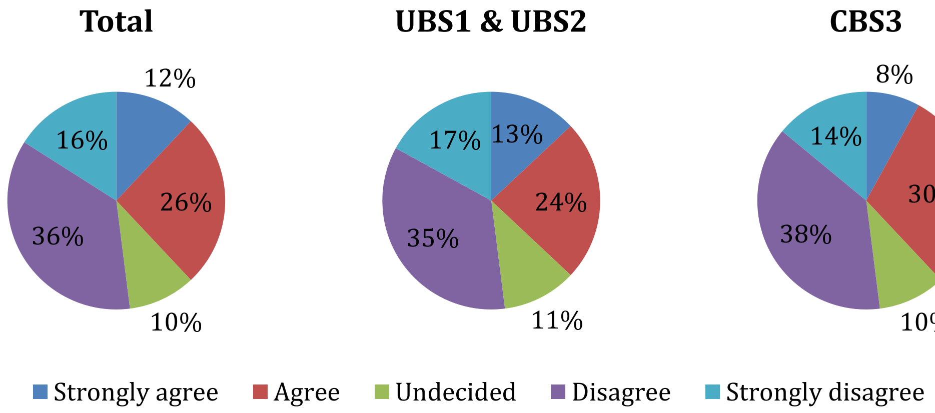


Figure 32 – Speaking English is difficult

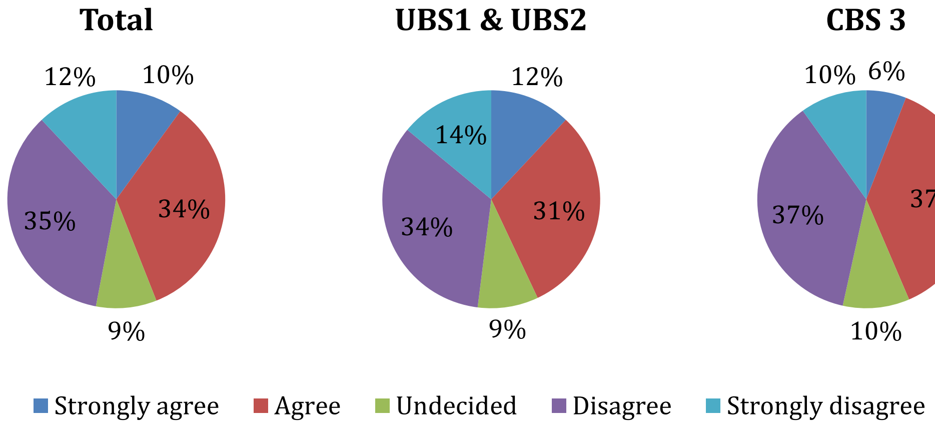


Figure 33 – Reading English is difficult

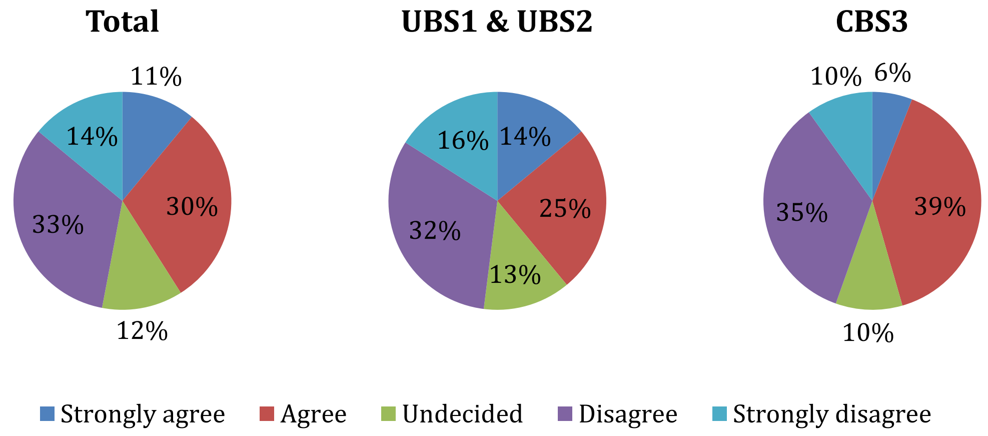


Figure 34 – Writing texts in English is difficult

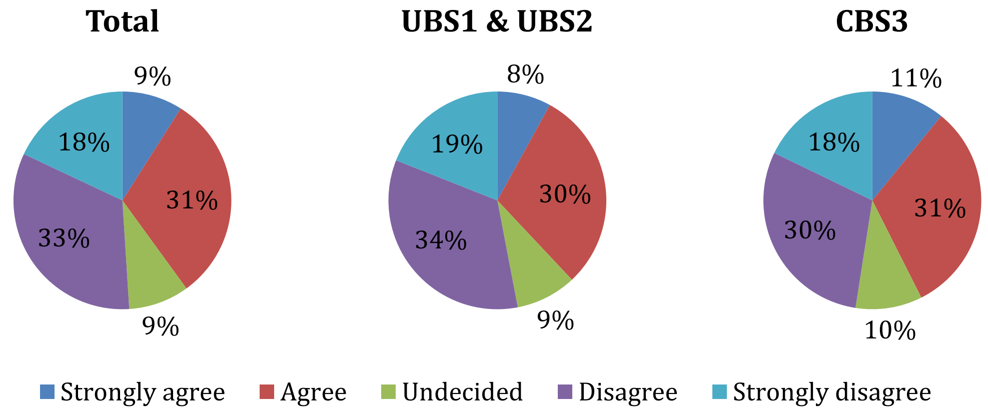


Figure 35 – Understanding spoken English is difficult

One can notice the consistency of results between the two kinds of schools and the fact that, whatever the skill, the distribution was fairly equal with a balanced proportion of the students who did not seem to find English too difficult and the same proportion who agreed that it was a difficult subject. However, the results concerning written skills seem to create slightly more difficulties. Considering the fact that the teachers highlighted the students' greater difficulty with discussions in English (see Chapter 7), this result is somewhat puzzling. In addition, since all the teachers explained that they largely use the Vietnamese language in the CLIL class and that **the only time when the students used English was when they wrote their papers**, it would be interesting to see how perceptions evolved later. The practice of writing in English should have helped to improve this skill.

6.3.2. Involvement

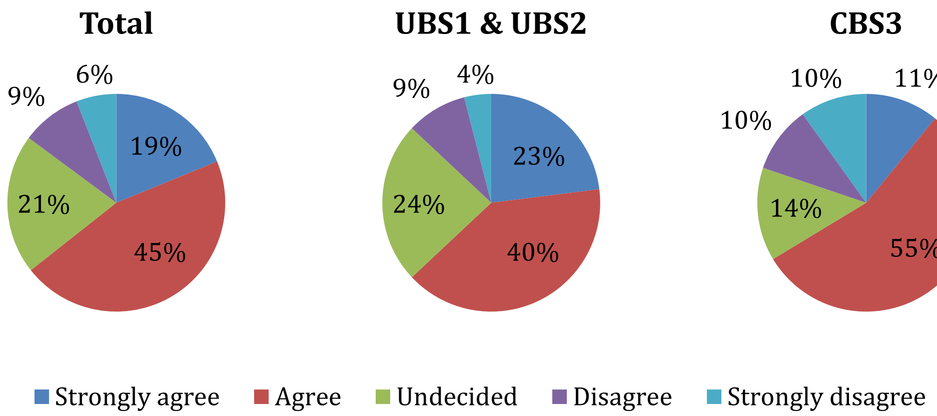


Figure 36 – I try very hard in EFL class

In a process model of motivation, as stressed in Raby's definition (see Chapter 3), the maintenance and the renewal of efforts, independent of immediate results, is an essential part of the concept. In Asia, pressure is especially strong for the students, who are constantly placed in a competitive situation. We cannot know if their answers are totally sincere, yet they show the symbolic importance of work and effort in their self-perceptions, which are culturally bound. This could be interpreted in the framework of *ought to be* selves versus *idealised* selves proposed by Siridetkoon and Dewaele (2018).

6.3.3. Anxiety

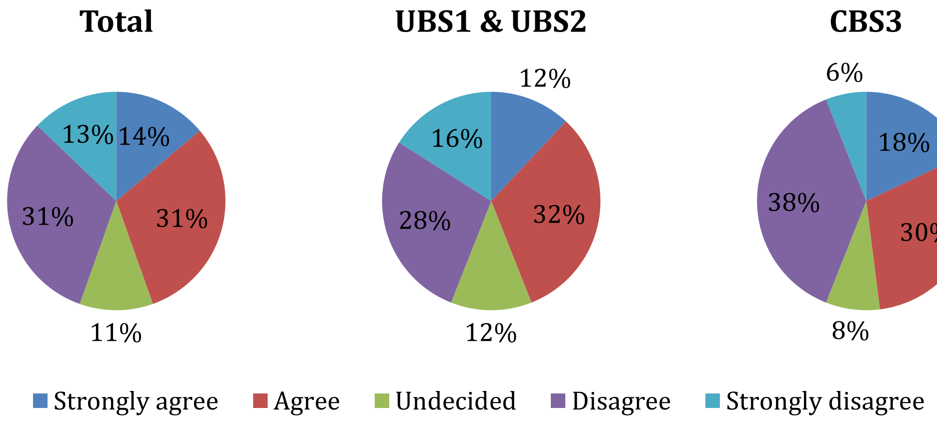


Figure 37 – I get nervous when I have to speak English

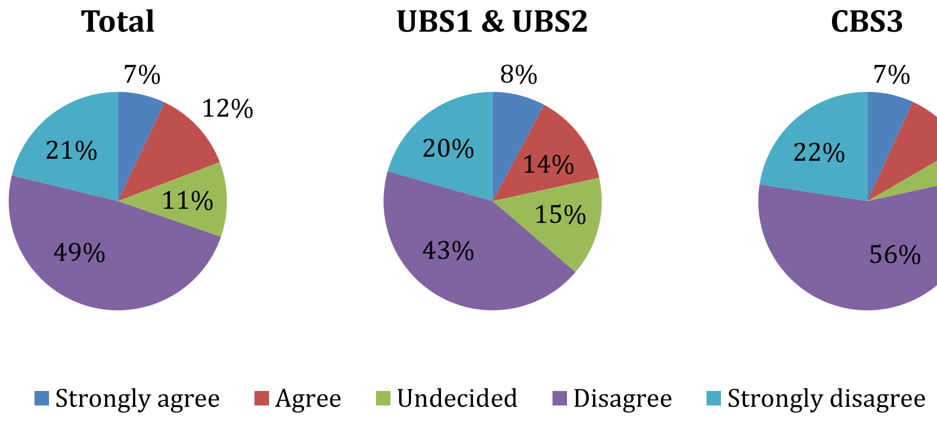


Figure 38 – I get nervous when I have an EFL class

Considering all skills, half of the students did not seem to consider that English was a difficult subject and the students claimed that they try hard in English classes. However, it is interesting to note that while some students seemed to feel nervous (44%) when they had to use *English in general* outside school (Figure 37), in class, a large number of them (70%) did not seem to feel any anxiety (Figure 38).

6.3.4. Conclusion about English as a General Subject

All in all, positive results prevail concerning the students' motivation for English as a subject matter, and this is due to the combination of different factors, both external and internal. The importance of English as the international language, the pressure put on high achieving students through selection, and competition explain that they have totally internalised the importance of English as a goal. Their *ought-to-be* selves and their *ideal* selves probably overlap (Ryan and Dörnyei, 2013). Moreover, internal factors concerning their good self-perception as English learners reinforce their motivation.

6.4. PERCEPTIONS OF THE CLIL *DISPOSITIF*

The CLIL *dispositif* was a totally new experience for 87% of the students (Appendix 5), which is not surprising since the system was only launched in 2008 as a pedagogical innovation (see Chapter 2).

The processing of the questionnaires was piloted by the debate about the positive or negative influence of CLIL on the students' motivation presented in Chapter 4. It may be useful to recall the terms of the debate before presenting the results. Coyle's 4Cs model summarises the potential good qualities of CLIL. The 4Cs framework for CLIL starts with content and focuses on the interrelationships between content (subject matter), communication (language), cognition (thinking) and culture (awareness of self and 'otherness') to build on the synergies of integrating learning (content and cognition) and language learning (communication and cultures). Not all these aspects are present in detail in the questionnaire, but the latter gives a fairly accurate representation of how the students felt about their CLIL classes after a few months' experience.

6.4.1. Beliefs about *content-subject* learning in English

It is necessary to retain the general expression ***content-subject* learning**, since the students were doing either mathematics, chemistry, biology or physics, depending on the school and class.

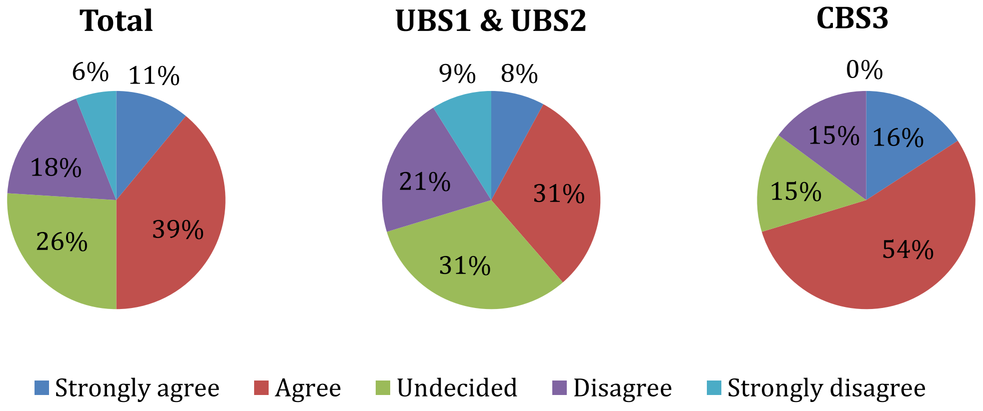


Figure 39 – Taking the content-subject in English is important, regardless of the subject taught.

Students from both UBSs and the CBS alike considered that it was important to take classes in English. 50% believed that taking the *content-subject* in English was important, 24% disagreed and the rest remained undecided at this stage, which seems quite logical.

6.4.2. Motivation

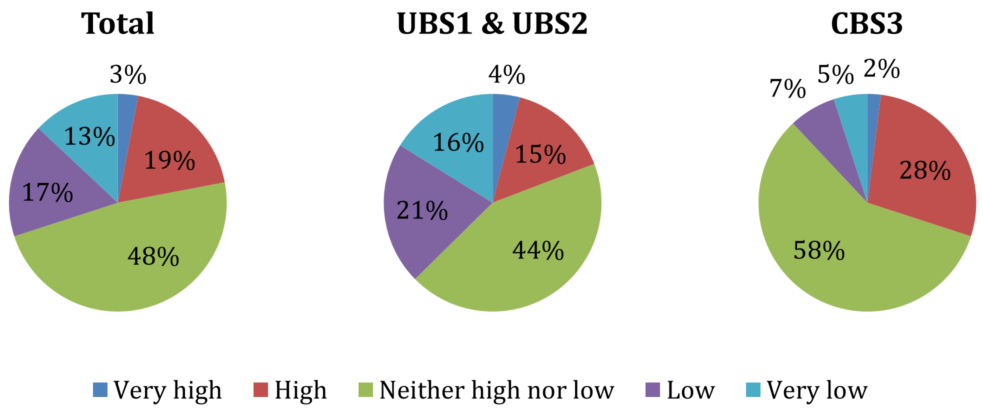


Figure 40 – My motivation in the CLIL class is…

In the context of this first investigation, motivation was not taken as the meta-concept dealt with in Chapters 3 and 4, but rather as the desire to attend a CLIL course. After a few months it was clear that CBS students' motivation seemed higher than those of the UBSs. This might be due to the fact that CBS teachers used better CLIL strategies since they had been actually trained, contrary to UBS teachers. Besides, the teachers from CBS seemed to prepare the course very carefully and collectively (see Chapter 8), which shows strong motivation on their part and points towards more efficiency. Moreover, the other differentiating criterion, i.e. the absence of the evaluation of the students, could also indirectly influence the teachers' involvement, but this was not confirmed by the interviews. But the more striking result is the fact that, taken together, the students seemed quite undecided. This should perhaps be interpreted according to Piaget's scheme theory, which explains that, when placed in a totally new *dispositif*, students go through an assimilation stage before being able to adapt to the new situation in the accommodation stage (Piaget, 1970). In the present case, the students might have been both attracted by the novelty of the activities (see below) and confused at having to use a foreign language to master scientific notions.

6.4.3. Motivational factors

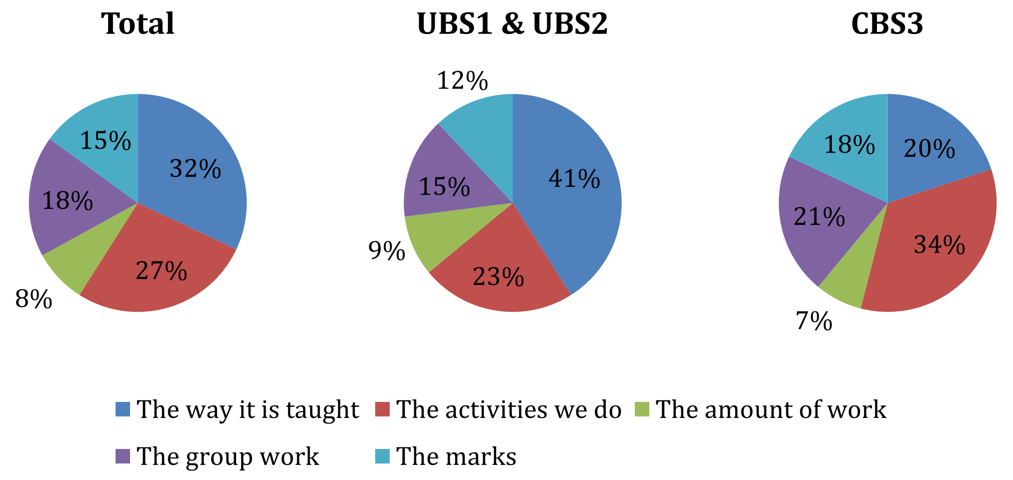


Figure 41 – What motivates me most in the CLIL class is...

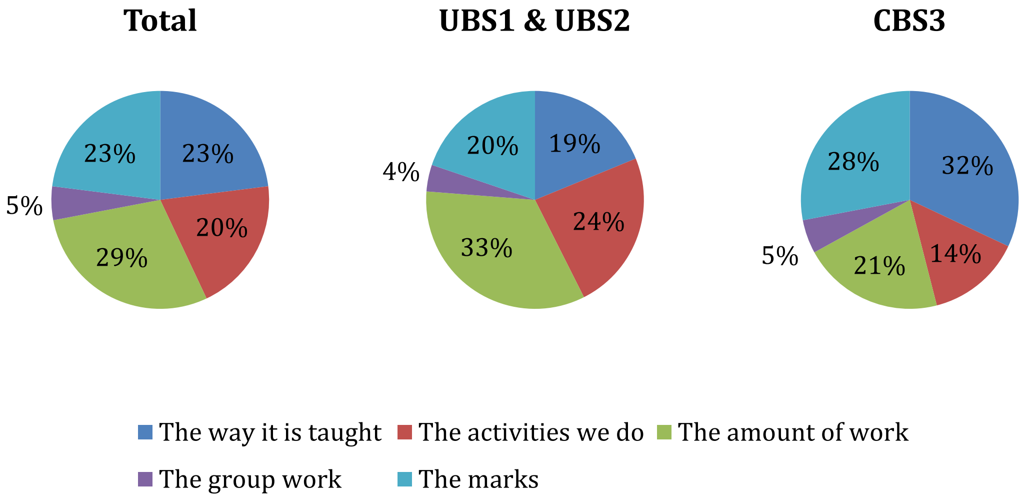


Figure 42 – What motivates me least in the CLIL class is...

Here again some interesting differences come to the fore. UBS students ranked the amount of work as the most demotivating factor and the teacher's pedagogy as the most motivating factor, while CBS students ranked class activities as the most motivating factor. Yet the two factors seem so close that, without more details, we can consider that both factors (the way it is taught and the activities the students do) refer to the teachers' pedagogy.

6.4.4. General appreciation of the CLIL course

Since the question focused on likes and dislikes, we put in different ways to check the stability of their perceptions.

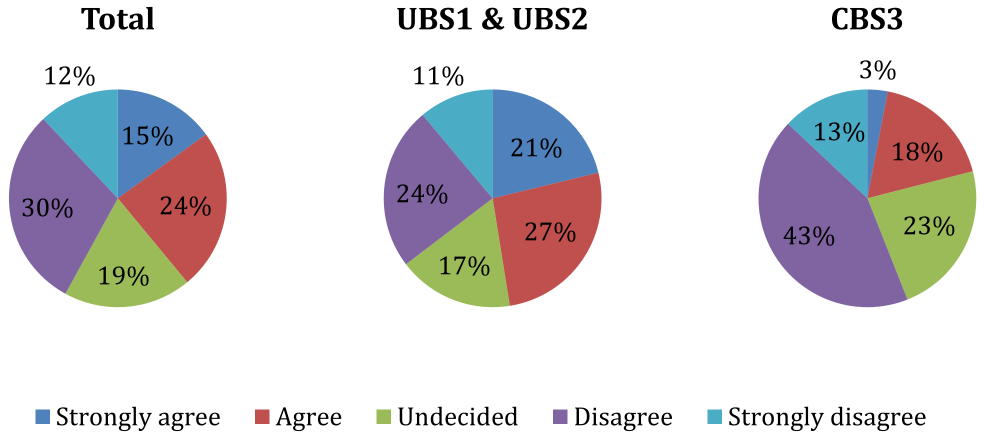


Figure 43 – I like English, but I do not like the CLIL class

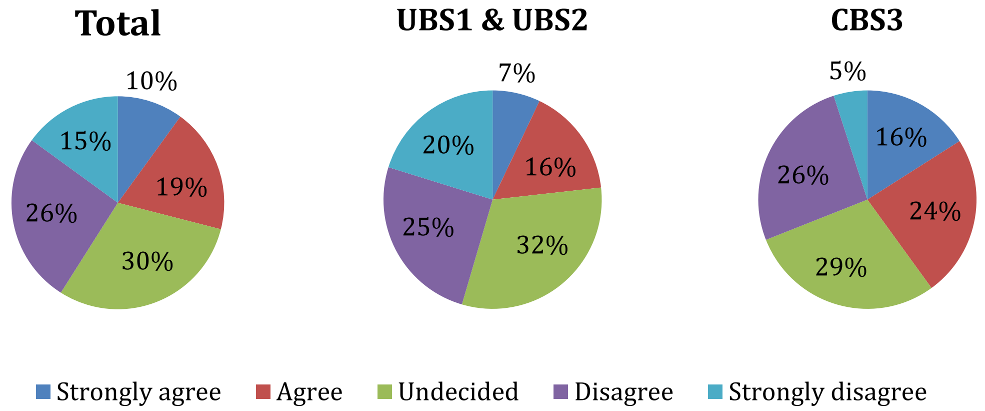


Figure 44 – I would be happy with taking another subject in English, apart from EFL

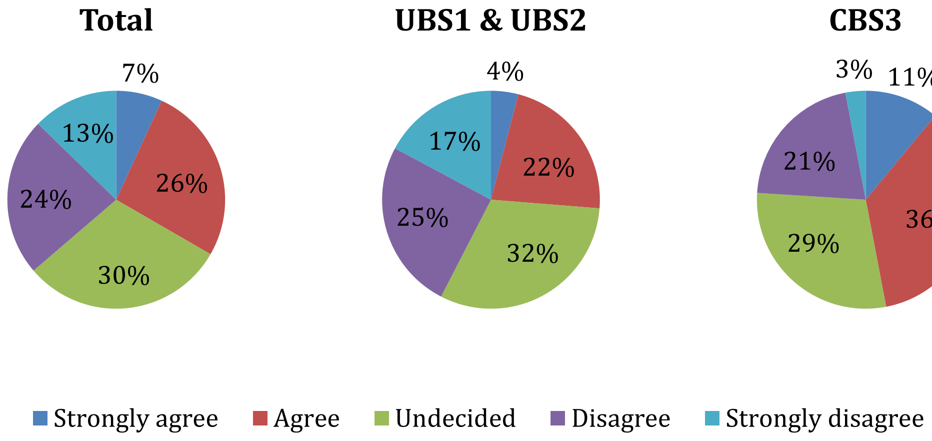


Figure 45 – I like taking mathematics (physics, chemistry, etc.) in English

Almost half the students from the UBSs agreed that they did not like the CLIL class, contrary to 60% from the CBS who disagreed or strongly disagreed, and we found similar differences when the students explained whether they liked or disliked taking a *content-subject* in English. When asked directly if they liked doing maths, chemistry, biology or physics in English, they did not seem very enthusiastic (33% strongly agreed or agreed). However, there was a marked difference between the two types of schools: in the UBSs, we found that 26% of answers were positive, while in the CBS 47% of answers were positive.

6.4.5. Achievement

Success being a well-known motivational factor (Dörnyei et al., 2014), it was necessary to extract the students' self-efficacy perceptions. This was broken down into two questions: one internal, that of the learned content, and one external, that of the mark.

6.4.5.1. General assessment

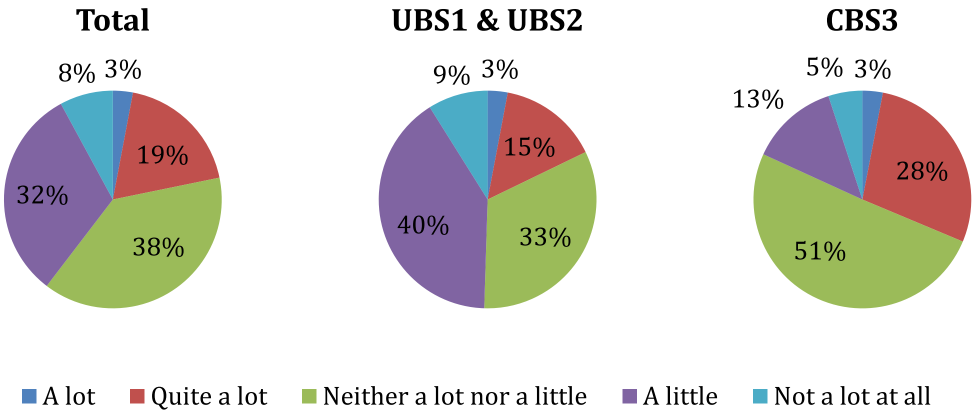


Figure 46 – In the CLIL class, I have learned…

We may assume that, when faced with these questions, the students met with difficulty since they were too general: content acquisition or linguistic acquisition? Yet, looking at the results more closely, one may again notice a real distinction between the UBSs and the CBS. While half of the UBS students claimed that they had not learned much, the same proportion of students from the CBS were just undecided. In the same way, while 15% from the UBSs claimed that they had learned a lot, this figure reached 28% at the CBS. However, if the amount of effort was taken into account, the results became consistent since it can be noticed that the students did not feel very rewarded. This lack of self-perceived reward might have damaged the students' motivation.

6.4.5.2. Impact of the CLIL class on English improvement

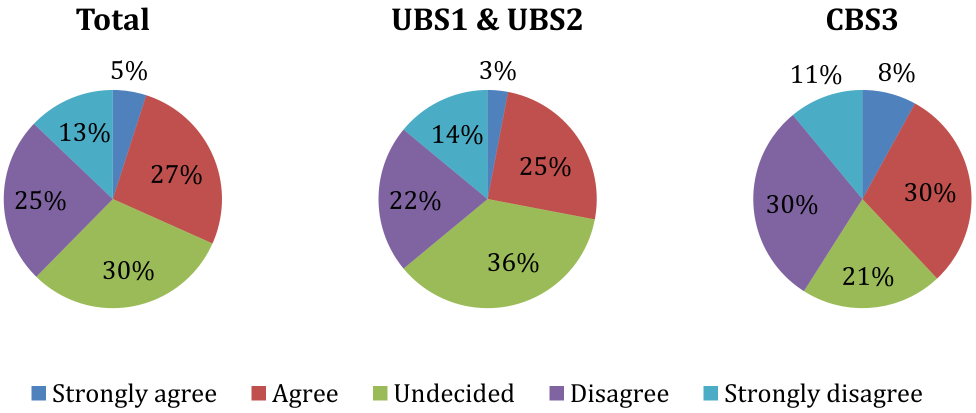


Figure 47 – My level of English has improved thanks to the CLIL class

It seemed that students from the CBS held slightly more positive opinions on the effect of CLIL on their English proficiency than those from the UBSs. While 28% the students from the UBSs agreed that CLIL had had positive effects on their English language, the figure for the CBS was 38%.

6.4.6. Cognitive assessment

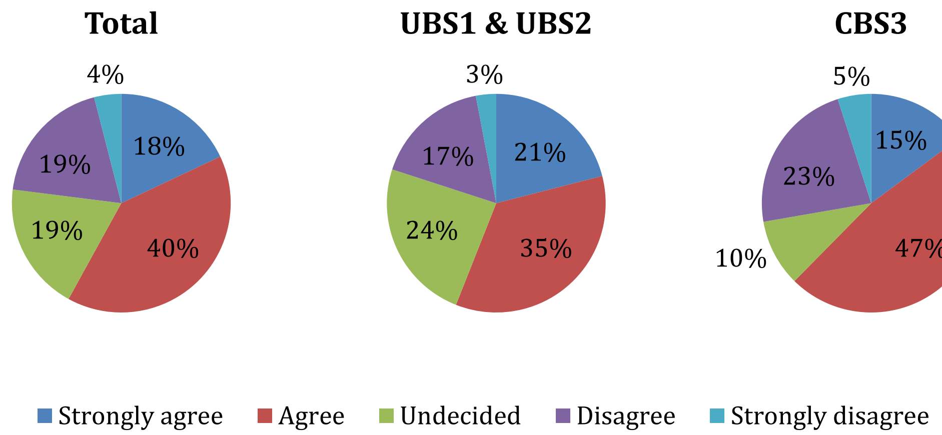


Figure 48 – Having a high level of English is crucial for understanding content-subjects in English

Concerning the cognitive value of English as a mediating tool, the majority of students believed that having high level of English was crucial for understanding the *content-subjects* in English. At the UBSs, 56% of the students agreed with the statement, 24% could not make up their mind and 20% disagreed. At the CBS, even more students agreed with the statement (62%, of which 15% agreed strongly), although the percentage of those who disagreed was also higher (28%).

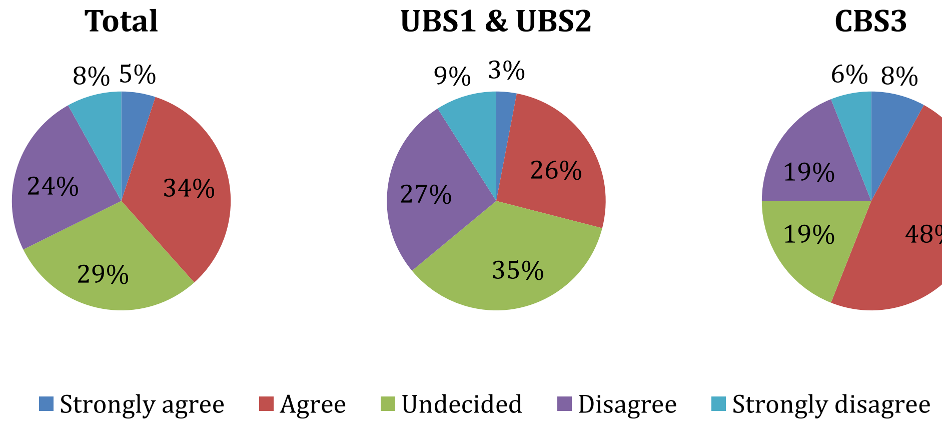


Figure 49 – Taking content-subjects in English is easier than I thought

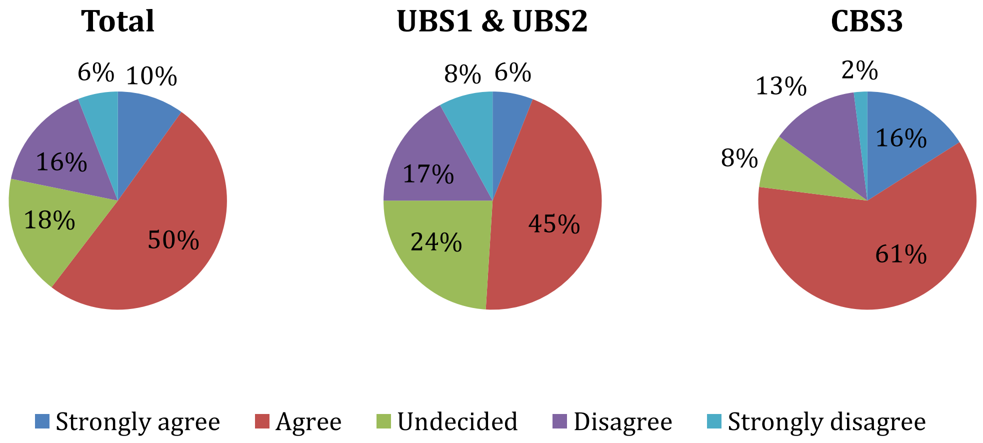


Figure 50 – I understand globally the content of the subject in English

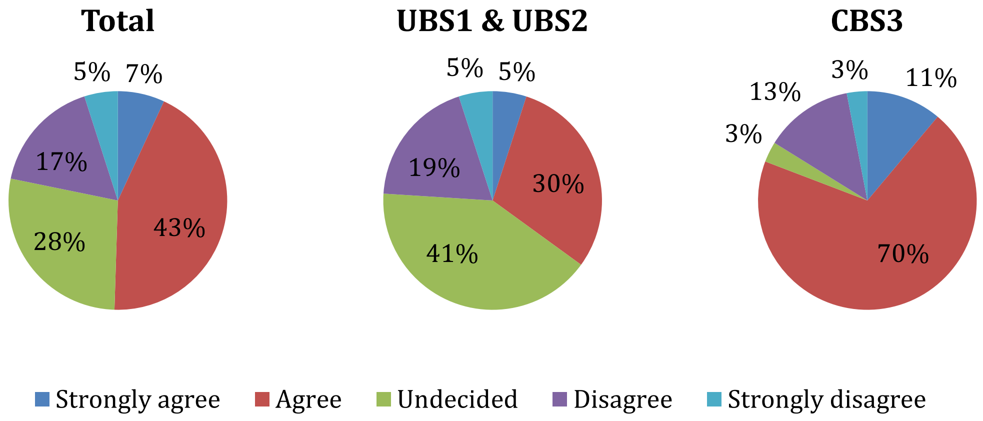


Figure 51 – The materials in CLIL are very useful

A majority of students agreed on a lack of difficulty in following the CLIL class (60%). Yet, while 77% of the students from the CBS gave a positive answer, only 51% did so from the UBS classes and more students from these schools remained undecided (Figure 50). As concerns the didactic help from the materials supplied for the English class, there was again a striking difference, with 81% positive answers from the CBS versus only 35% from the UBSs, while 3% of the students from the CBS could not decide while 41% of the students from the UBSs remained undecided (Figure 51).

Here again, it is the teachers' interviews that help us make sense of these results (see Chapter 8). Most teachers used English at the start but soon acknowledged their students' inability to follow the course and switched to Vietnamese. In the same way, students were allowed to answer and cooperate in their native language. It is not surprising therefore, being in an exogenous language milieu, that they found it difficult to discuss the content in English. This is in keeping with previous research on CLIL (Mehisto, 2008; Tan, 2011; Van, 2007).

6.4.7. Self-perception: how do students perceive their learning behaviour?

6.4.7.1. Efforts

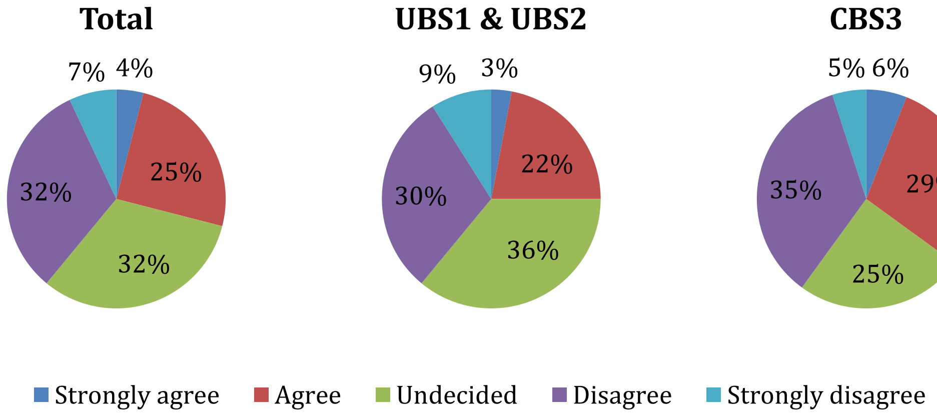


Figure 52 – I try very hard in CLIL class

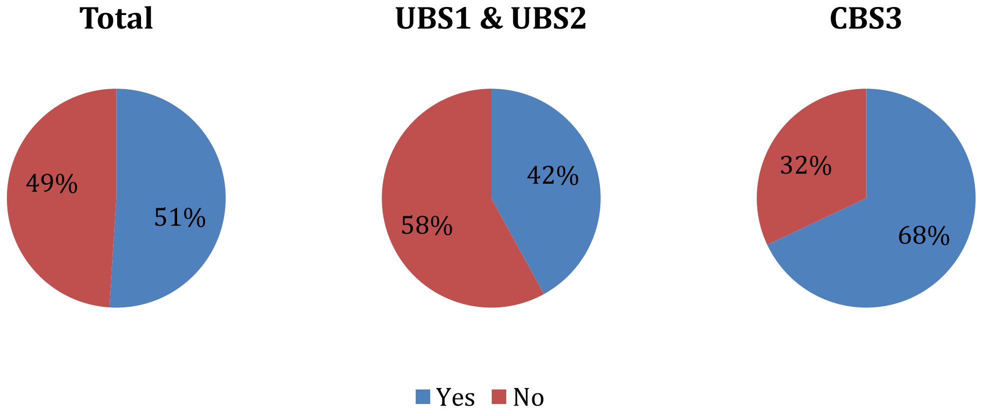
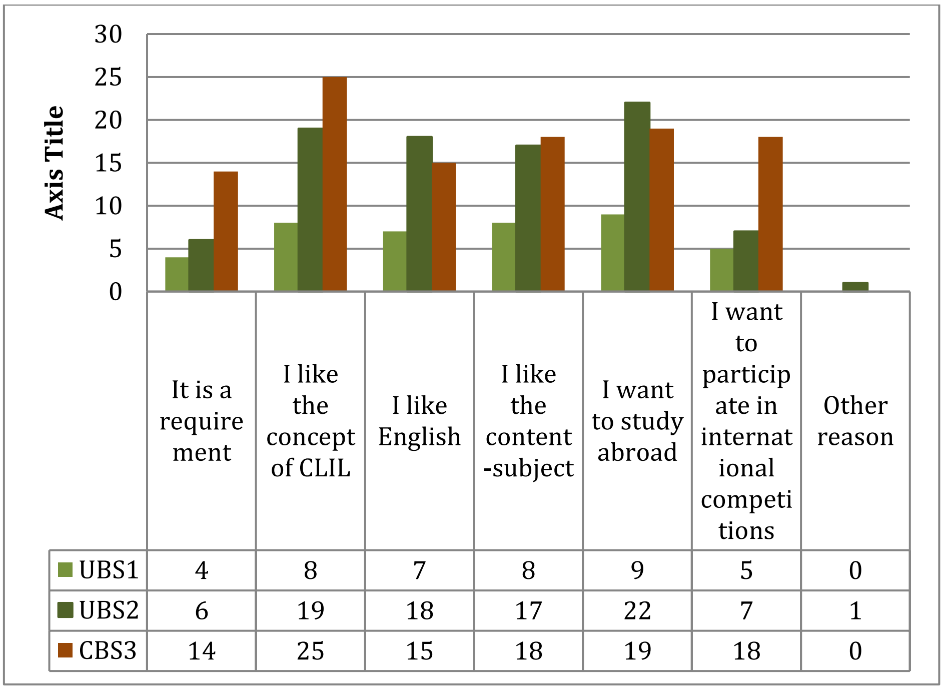


Figure 53 – Do you do best in your CLIL class?



	It is a requirement	I like the concept of CLIL	I like English	I like the content-subject	I want to study abroad	I want to participate in international competitions	Other reason
🟩 UBS1	4	8	7	8	9	5	0
■ UBS2	6	19	18	17	22	7	1
🟥 CBS3	14	25	15	18	19	18	0

Figure 54 – I do my best in CLIL class because…

One can notice that, broadly speaking, the students from CBS3 seemed more motivated and that the students from UBSs seemed less motivated. Again, it is interesting to remark that those who studied with trained CLIL teachers put the concept of CLIL first, and this is confirmed by what they said before about enjoying CLIL activities. This confirms mainstream research, which suggests that CLIL provides a naturalistic environment and challenging tasks, and are more motivating than traditional EFL courses (Maljers et al., 2007; Lorenzo et al., 2007; Dalton-Puffer, 2008; Dooly and Eastment, 2009; Lasagabaster, 2008).

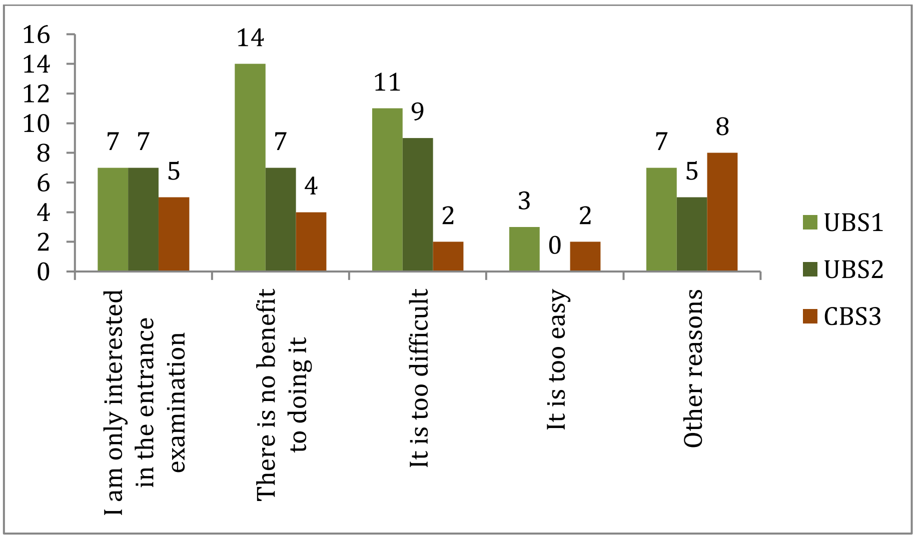


Figure 55 – I do not do my best in CLIL class because…

Concerning those students who did not make a lot of effort, here again, the differences are striking. The most important reason given by UBS students was that there was no point in making an effort. This is not surprising since, in these schools, there was no proper certification or test to evaluate students on the CLIL course. Also, the level of difficulty impacts students' efforts and the difference is significant, with 20 citations of this reason from the UBS schools.

Here again, the answers were consistent with the same motives ranking first and second, all schools considered. Strikingly, internal motives such as "I like the concept of CLIL" come first and instrumental motives such as the desire to work abroad come second. Both types of motives are internalised, which points to a balanced view in terms of their locus of control (Rotter, 1960).

6.4.7.2. Anxiety

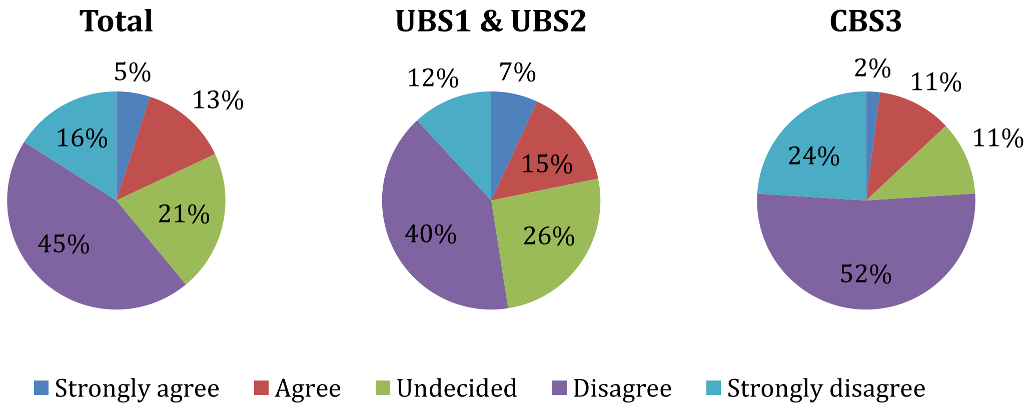


Figure 56 – I get nervous when I have a CLIL class

61% of the students denied being stressed. This shows that the CLIL experience did not damage their learning expectations or behaviour. Quite logically, it must be noticed that those students who underwent tests or evaluations seemed more anxious than their peers who were not evaluated.

6.4.8. The teacher factor

The teacher is an essential part of the *dispositif* since (s)he serves as a mediator between the students and the target knowledge and skills, whether in English or in the *content-subject*. The final questions were thus focused on the teacher factor.

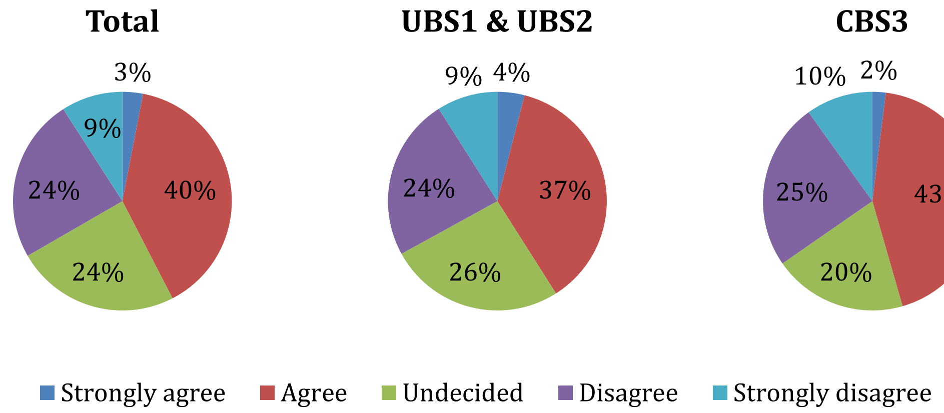


Figure 57 – Explanations provided by the CLIL teacher are clear

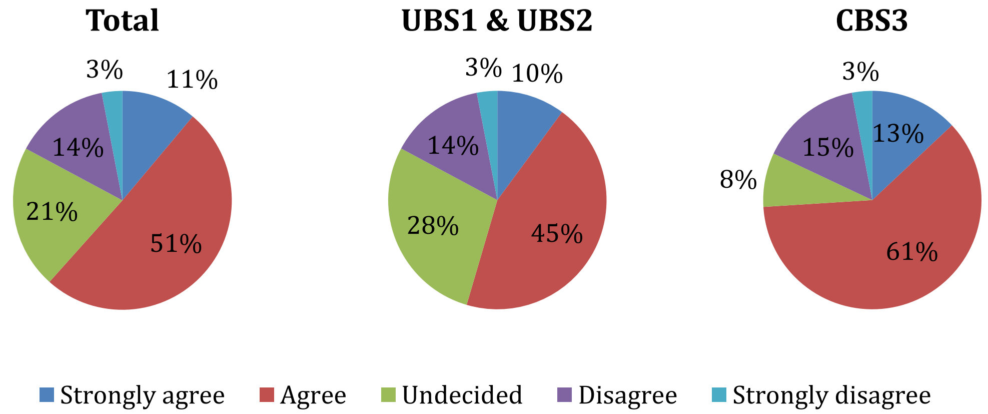


Figure 58 – The CLIL teacher helps us very much to follow the subject

The teacher seemed to be an efficacious cognitive learning instrument for a number of students (43%). Yet quite a few of them disagreed, almost 33%, and 24% remained undecided (Figure 57). On the other hand, the teachers are dramatically perceived as supportive, with 61% positive answers, but here again, teachers from the CBS do better (74%) than teachers from the UBSs (55%).

The results generated by this first questionnaire will now be cross-checked to those yielded by the second questionnaire administered after students had been on the CLIL course for a year and a half.

It will be interesting to see how the teachers' own self-perceptions evolved and either confirmed or contradicted their students' views.

6.5. SUMMARY

In this chapter, we have analysed the students' perceptions of *English in general* and EFL classes and CLIL classes. Firstly, broadly speaking, the results show that the students' motivation to learn English in both classes was fairly high, with students from CBS scoring regularly at a higher level. This result seems to indicate an impact of the *dispositif* on CLIL learning experience.

Secondly, CLIL appraisal confirms the previous research presented in Chapter 4 of the present thesis. The prevailing factors are the nature of the activities and the supporting role of the teachers. Yet it seems that while the students enjoyed CLIL classes, they were in two minds about their learning achievements.

Thirdly, in many cases, quite a few students remained "undecided". We have proposed to interpret those results in the framework of Piaget's scheme theory through assimilation and accommodation (Piaget, 1970). Assimilation is the first attempt at understanding new information and experiences relying on former experiences and schemes. Then, through repeating the challenging situation, a new scheme gradually emerges, providing new knowledge and strategies. The emergence of the new scheme is labelled the "accommodation process". Undecided students could be in an "in-between" stage, relying on their foreign language learning experience in EFL and having to come to grips with a new experience: English-Mediated Instruction of scientific content.

7.

RESULTS FROM THE SECOND QUESTIONNAIRE – EVOLUTION OF THE STUDENTS’ PERCEPTIONS

The processing of the first questionnaire was centred on the students' general language learning profiles and their perception of the CLIL *dispositif* at the outset of the CLIL experience. Using Raby's methodology, we administered the same questionnaire after a year and a half to observe potential evolutions. The goal was also to determine how the results enter into the debate about the CLIL potentialities mentioned in Chapter 4. As it turned out, unfortunately we were not able to administer the second questionnaire at the CBS because the authorities refused to allow it; however, we decided not to give up and we administered the questionnaire in the two UBSs. As concerns the results of the first part about *English in general*, we will mention the overall results, i.e. UBS1 and UBS2 put together. As concerns the results focused the EFL class and CLIL, the main target for our research, we have decided to compare results from UBS1 to results from UBS2, since a specific characteristic distinguishes them. At UBS1, they were given only maths CLIL classes, while at UBS2 they benefited from a variety of CLIL lessons in different scientific subjects. Here lies an important didactic difference, since it means more time and more experiences of CLIL, and this may have affected their learning evolution. (See appendix 6 for the complete results).

7.1. HAS THE CLIL EXPERIENCE HAD AN IMPACT ON STUDENTS' PERCEPTION AS ENGLISH LEARNERS IN GENERAL?

Beneath this question lurks the question of transfer: have the students been able to transfer strategies and knowledge pertaining to English learning from their CLIL experience? The process of *transfer* implies different factors: cognitive, affective, cultural and social, which, put together, help to account for the students' motivational process: goal perceptions, overall appreciation of English, and assessment of the learning experience.

7.1.1. Representation of English in general

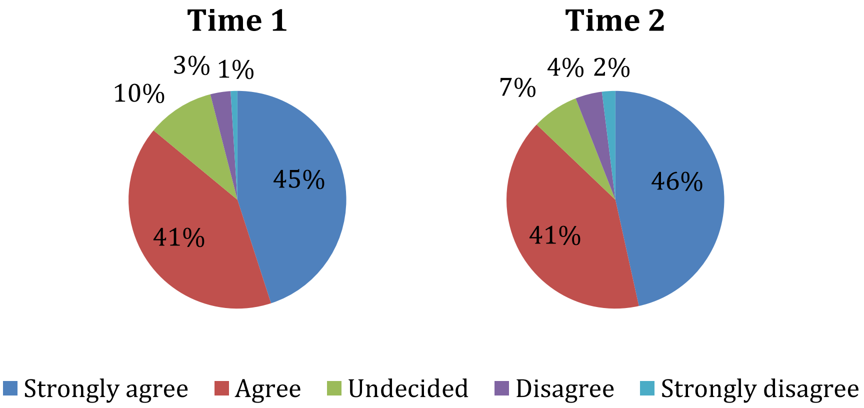


Figure 59 – Broadly speaking, I think learning English is important

In general, the students' perceptions of the importance of English did not change much over time. At Time 1, about 86% of the students agreed that leaning English is important. At Time 2, the proportion was 87%. Only 4% of the students disagreed with the statement at Time 1 and 6% did so at Time 2.

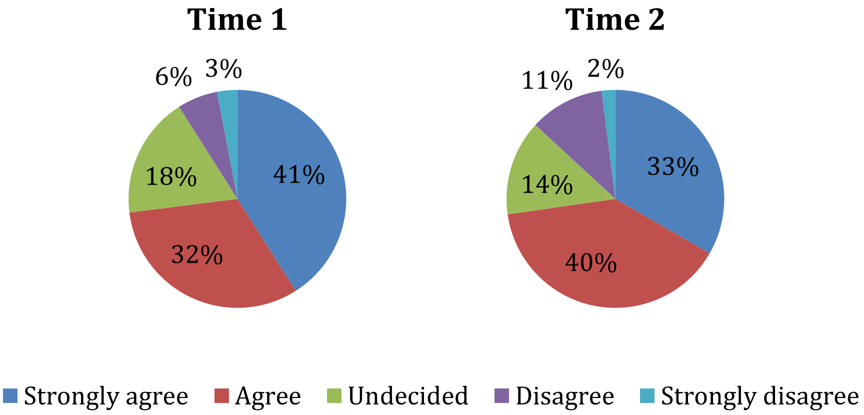


Figure 60 – In Hanoi, knowing English is necessary

About three quarters of the students agreed that knowing English in Hanoi was necessary (73% at both times). About 9% of the students at Time 1 and 13% of the students at Time 2 disagreed that knowing English in Hanoi is necessary. 18% of the students did not take a side at Time 1, and 14% did not at Time 2. There was very little change in the students' perceptions of this over time.

7.1.2. Factors

The reasons for their appreciations are distributed between instrumental and integrative orientations and enjoyment.

7.1.2.1. Instrumental

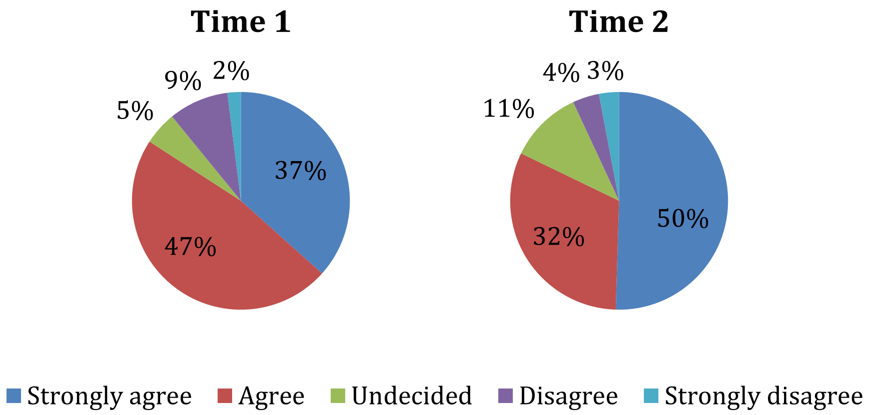


Figure 61 – I like English because it will help me to find a good job

It seems that the students' opinion about this instrumentality of English did not change much over time. Although there were slightly more students agreeing with the statement at Time 1 than at Time 2 (84% compared with 82%), there were more students showing a strong agreement at Time 2 (50% as opposed to 37%). The percentage of students who disagreed with the statement decreased from 11% at Time 1 to 7% at Time 2.

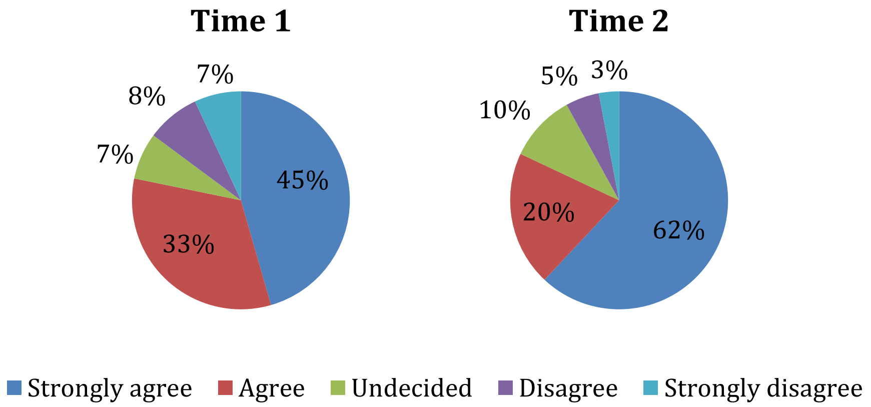


Figure 62 – I want to travel/study abroad and knowing English will help me

At Time 1, about three quarters of the students agreed that they wanted to travel/study abroad and that knowing English would help them. At Time 2, an even bigger proportion of the students (82%) agreed with the statement, in which 62% showed their absolute agreement. Only 15% and 8% disagreed at Time 1 and Time 2, respectively.

7.1.2.2. Integrativeness

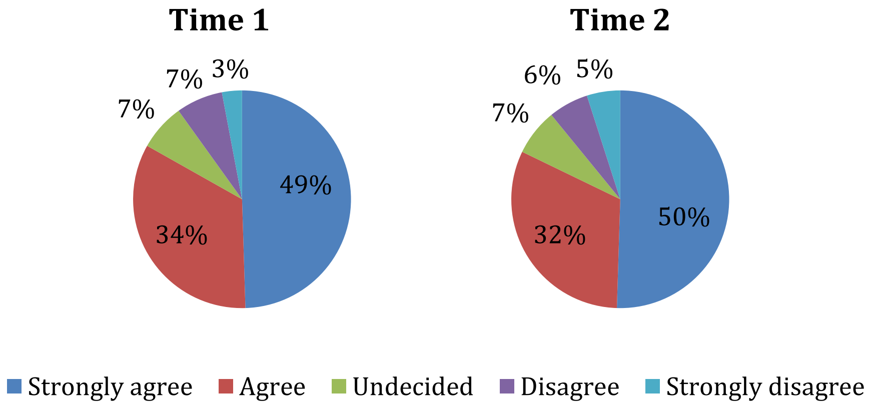


Figure 63 – I want to know English to be able to communicate with people from other countries

On willingness to communicate with international partners, an even greater proportion of the students showed their readiness to interact with foreigners. To be precise, at Time 1, 83% of students agreed that they wanted to know English to be able to communicate with people from other countries, while only 10% disagreed and 7% held a neutral opinion. The differences between the two times are negligible.

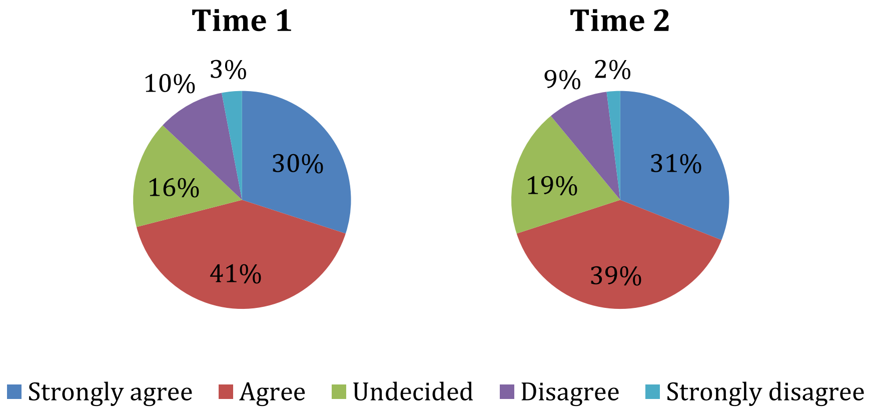


Figure 64 – I would like to get to know more English speakers

Nearly three quarters of the students expressed their wish to get to know more English speakers (71% at Time 1 and 70% at Time 2); only 13% of the students showed no interest in this aspect at Time 1 and 11% did so at Time 2. 16% at Time 1 and 19% at Time 2 refused to take a side.

7.1.2.3. Enjoyment and learning pleasure

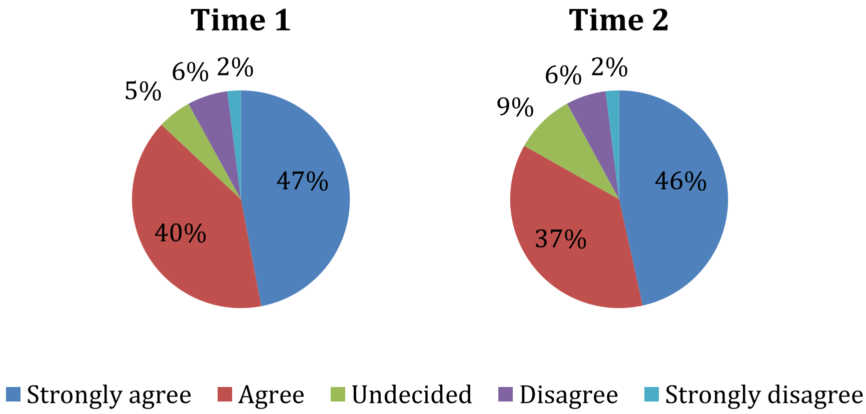


Figure 65 – I like music in English and I want to understand it

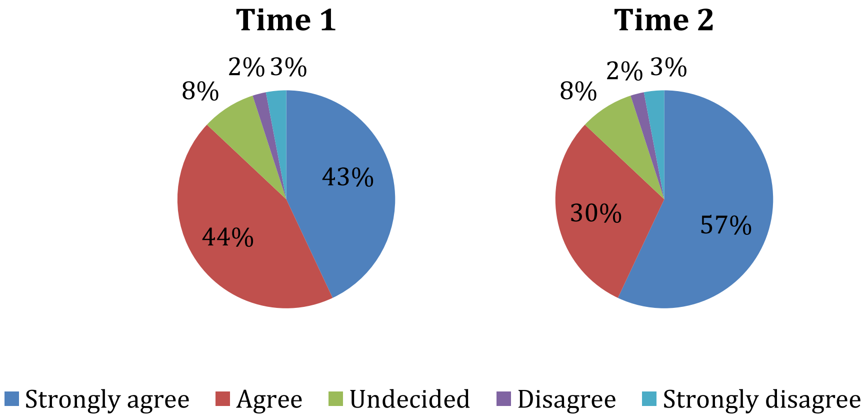


Figure 66 – I like watching films in English and understanding them

The majority of the students expressed their interest in English music and films, and they maintained their interest over time. Specifically, at Time 1, nearly 87% of the students agreed that they liked music in English and wanted to understand it, and only about 8% of the students disagreed. Similarly, about 85% of the students said that they liked English language films and wanted to understand them, and only 5% of the students disagreed. There was little difference between the two times.

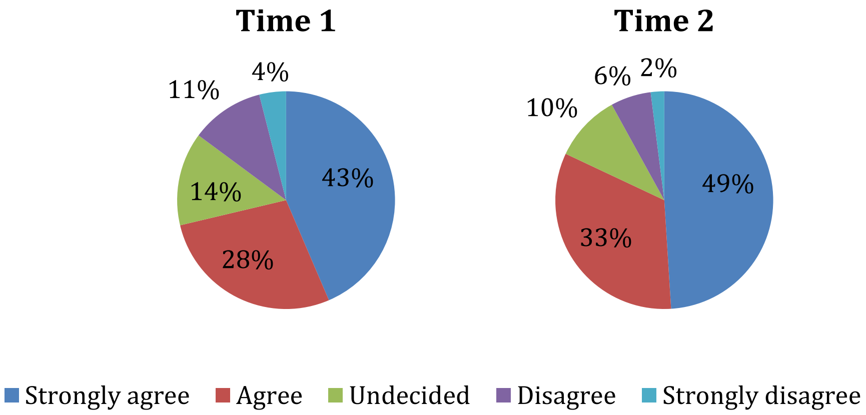


Figure 67 – Knowing English will help me to understand video games

The proportion of students who agreed that the knowledge of English would help them to understand video games rose from 71% at Time 1 to 82% at Time 2. Those who disagreed accounted for only 15% at Time 1 and 8% at Time 2. The rest of the students (14% at Time 1 and 10% at Time 2) did not take a side.

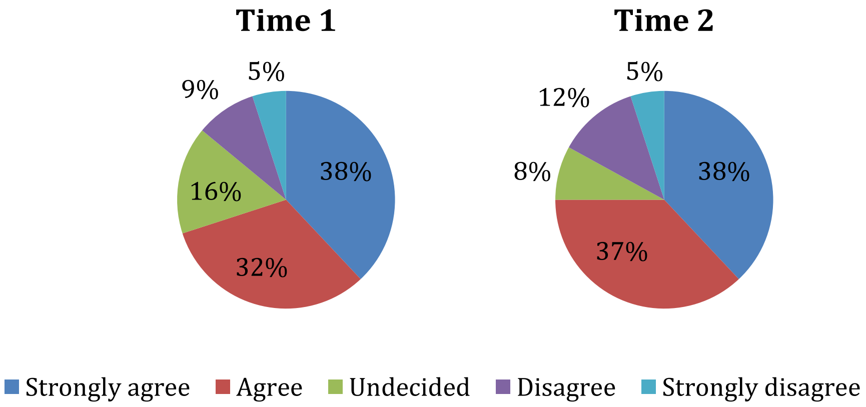


Figure 68 – I'm interested in learning other languages

In general, the students showed their interest in language learning on both occasions. About three quarters of the students (71%) agreed that they were interested in learning other languages. Only about one quarter of the students were not interested or could not decide. The differences between the two times were not significant.

All in all, the results are consistent and stable: there was no impact by CLIL practice in class on the students' general vision of English and this is not surprising, since what is at stake in CLIL is instruction and learning whereas in everyday life English is handled as a communicative and cultural tool.

7.2. HAS CLIL HAD AN IMPACT ON STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE EFL EXPERIENCE?

Cognitive self-perception

These questions concerned the four traditional language competences and related to the difficulties of the learning experience. Here again, the idea was to see if CLIL practice had modified their self-image.

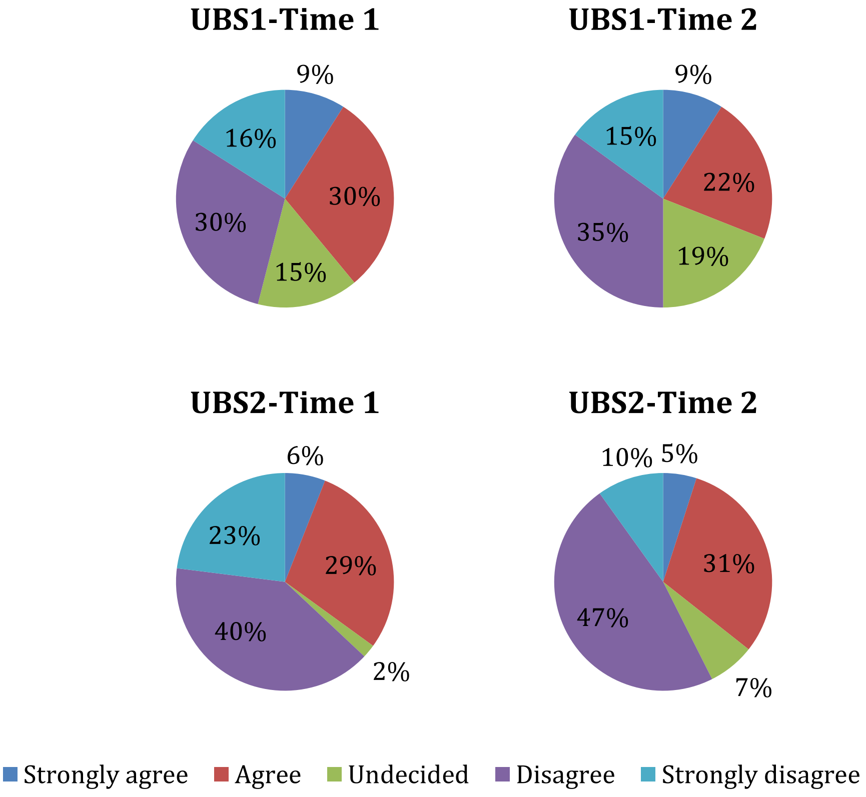


Figure 69 – Understanding spoken English is difficult

The results are balanced and consistent from one school to the other. Yet, in both schools, some students seemed to better understand spoken English at Time 2.

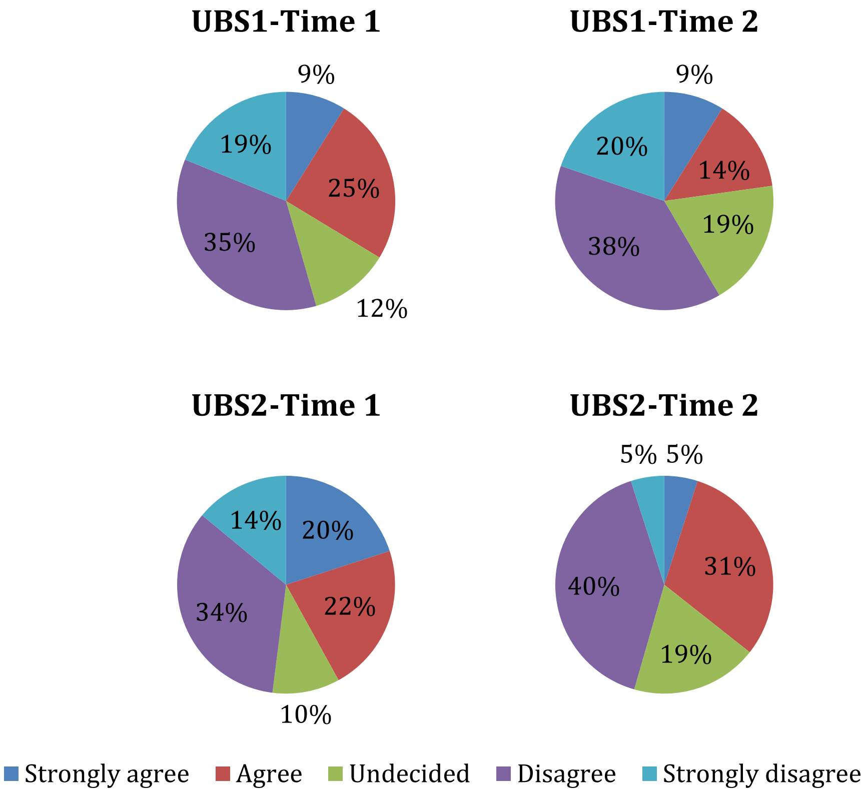


Figure 70 – Speaking English is difficult

More students agreed that speaking was difficult in Time 2 and, in both classes, those who agreed became more 'undecided'. This is not surprising, since we learn from the teachers' interviews (Chapter 8) and Anh (2012) that the speaking activity is the least developed in CLIL classes. As a matter of fact, due to their poor level in English, the students interacted among themselves or with their teachers in Vietnamese, but this did not seem to have a negative impact on their self-perception.

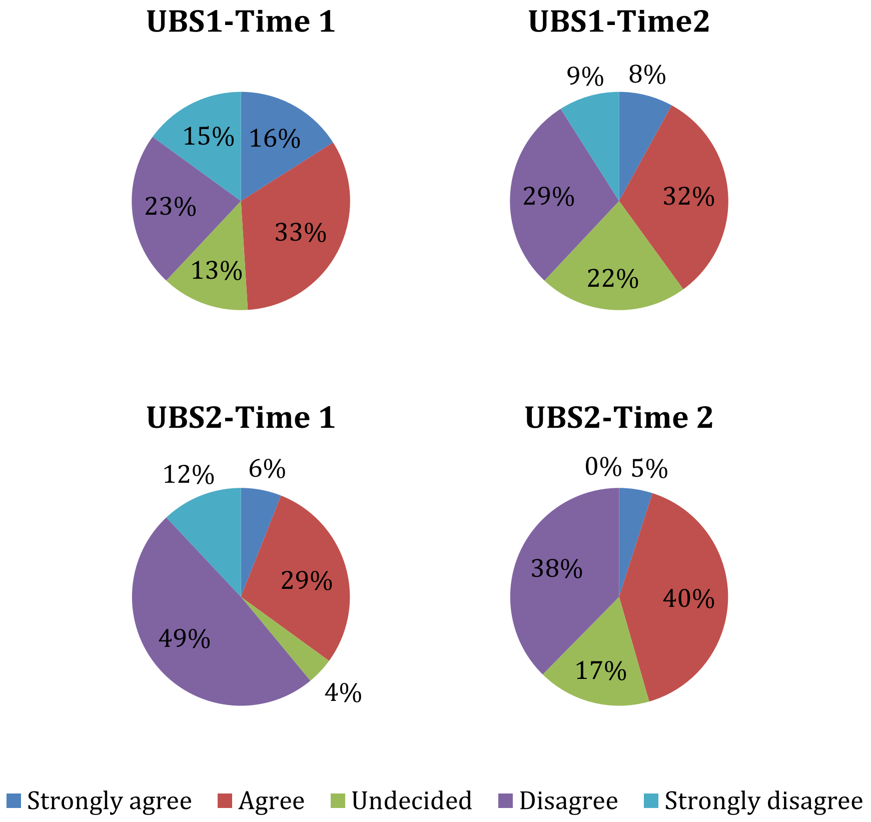


Figure 71 – Reading English is difficult

Reading did not seem to have evolved in the same way in UBS 1 and 2. The results of those students who did only maths did not change a lot: there were only slightly fewer students who strongly agreed and there was a move from 'disagree' to 'undecided'. Conversely, the students who benefited from a variety of CLIL lessons seemed to identify more difficulties with reading in Time 2. This could be explained by the fact that the class goal was actually piloted by content instruction. Different content (maths, biology, physics, and chemistry) implies different themes, different skills and different strategies, and this generated a heavier cognitive demand than having to deal with a single content. Therefore, it may be that the variety of content in CLIL classes created more difficulties in adaptation, but of course other variables might also have come into play.

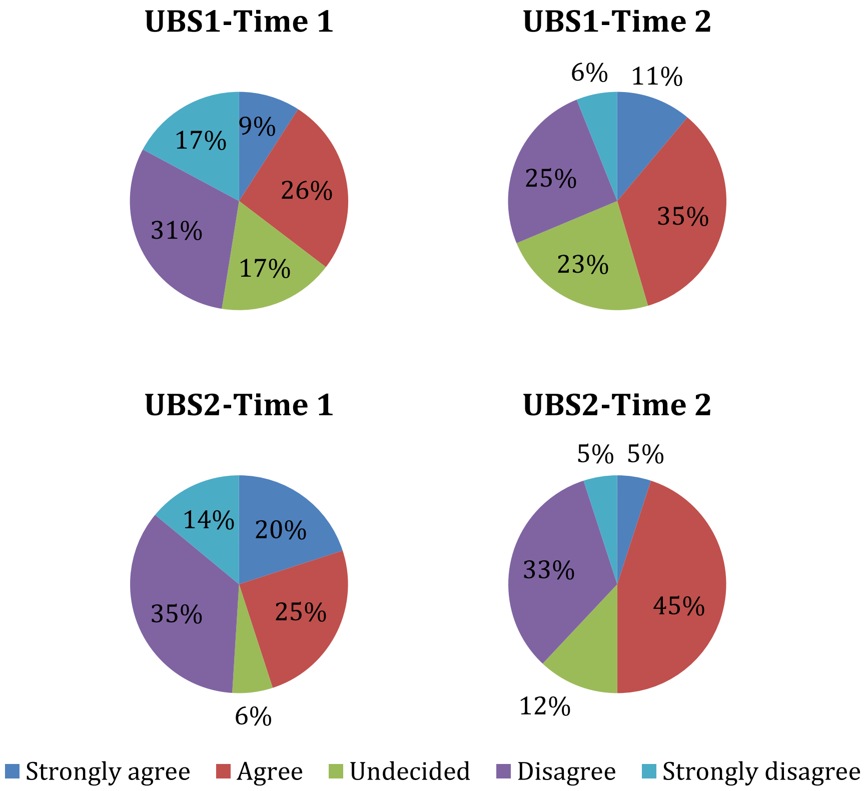


Figure 72 – Writing texts in English is difficult

This is a particularly important skill, since it was only on this occasion that the students had to stick to English. Here, the results are consistent. In both schools, more students agreed that writing was difficult and more students remained 'undecided'. This meant that having to write in English made them aware of their inability to really master the foreign language, whether they were writing in mathematics or in other subjects.

The evolution of the students' perceptions as English learners raises a number of didactic questions, which unfortunately could not be addressed in the present research and will be the object of further investigations. In particular, the exact relationship between content and language learning in English-Mediated Instruction is not tackled here. Yet, everything considered, some traits emerge:

1. No real impact of CLIL practice on the students' perceptions of their ability to speak, understand or write English was found. This is of importance if we consider that CLIL classes were launched by the MOET to improve the students' English proficiency. It also calls into question the nature of the CLIL *dispositif* implemented in Vietnamese schools, in which English learning is not the main goal of the CLIL class but content learning.

2. Since the CLIL practices were different, Maths CLIL versus Diversified CLIL, two contradictory results could be predicted. On the one hand, using cognitive load theory (Sweller, 2017), one might believe that having to handle different content (biology, maths, physics) with different teachers and different *dispositifs* might have created more difficulties in appropriating the foreign language. On the other hand, one could also predict that a variety of work situations involving CLIL favoured the knowledge transfer of English across situations (Raby and Zouari, 2008). At this stage, no clear difference can be found between the two schools and this is a result in itself. This result can be explained in the light of the teachers' strategies and their explanations about language use in the interviews. As a matter of fact, the teachers reported explaining the English terminology and phraseology in Vietnamese as soon as they felt that their students were in difficulty. In the same way, they explained that, most of the time, the students communicated in Vietnamese because they were not fluent enough to do so in English. Furthermore, the course was focused on content mastery, not the mastery of the foreign language. In addition, these results can also be interpreted in the light of Spiro's flexibility theory, which contends that complex content domains need specific complex teaching strategies.

> *"In so many different places, we're finding that the old linear, more mechanistic, single perspective approaches don't work," he says. "You need interconnected knowledge and knowledge in context. You need to be able to apply multiple perspectives, multiple knowledge sources, multiple points of view, and that's what we've tried to do." (Spiro, 2002)*

7.3. EVOLUTION OF CLIL PERCEPTIONS

This second part of the survey addresses the question of CLIL evolutions: how the students' perceptions of the *dispositif* and how their own self-perceptions have changed.

7.3.1. Beliefs about *content-subject* learning in English

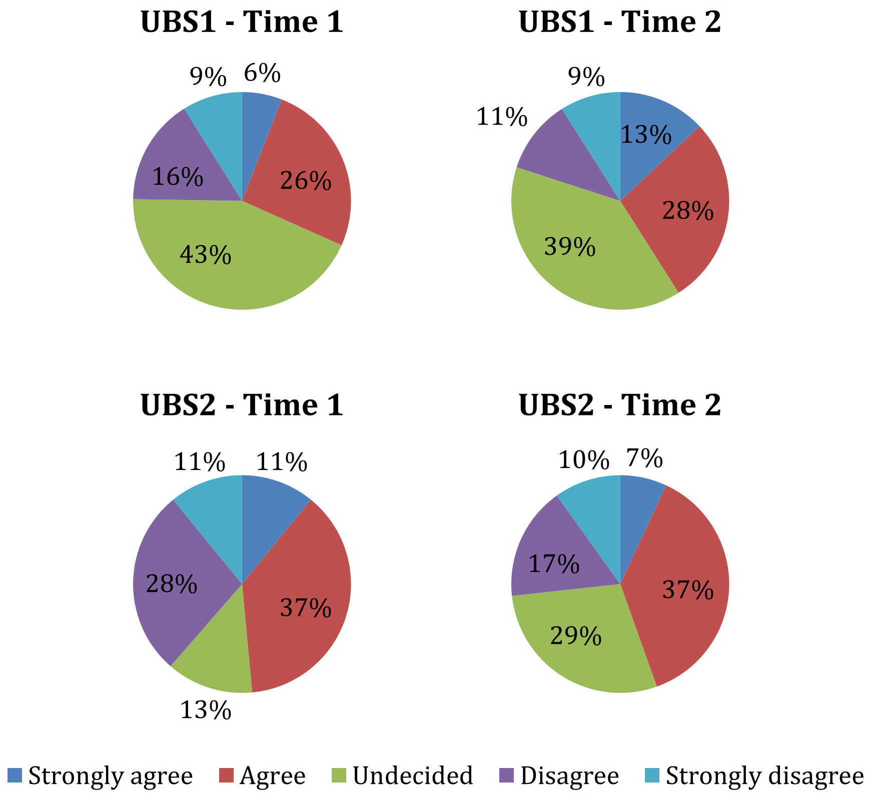


Figure 73 – Taking content-subjects in English is important, regardless of the subject taught

There is not a major change here. Yet the charts call for two remarks. The first is the consistency of the goal value of CLIL. CLIL practice has not undermined the appraisal of the *dispositif*, nor has it dramatically improved it, which is a result in itself. The second is that students move conversely from 'undecided' to 'agree' in the case of UBS1 and from 'disagree' to 'undecided' in the case of UBS2. However, broadly speaking, opinions remained stable. One interpretation is that the students have not yet seen the pre-professional interest of CLIL activities, a link with their future jobs.

> *'CLIL is not useful; especially for those who don't intend to study abroad.'*
>
> *'It might be useful in the future, but not now.'*
>
> *'I am Vietnamese. I won't study abroad. I find the course useless.' (Open answers, Appendix 7)*

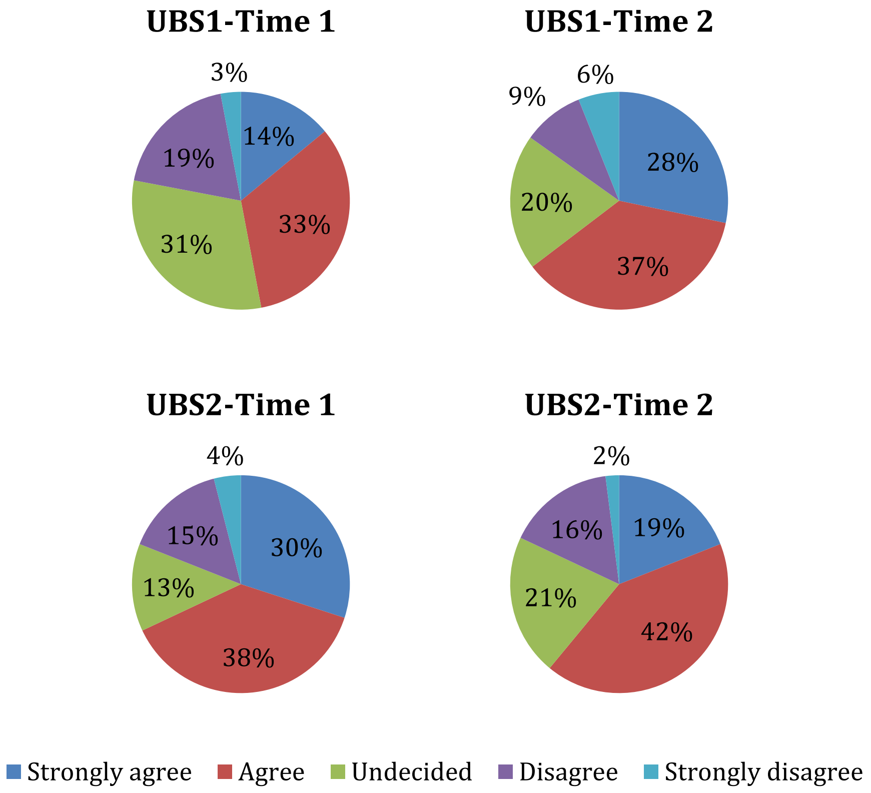


Figure 74 – Having a high level of English is crucial for understanding content-subjects in English

Here, UBS1 and UBS2 did not yield the same results. At UBS1, the move is clearly more towards 'strongly agree' or 'agree', with fewer students remaining undecided. Does this mean that they have met with more difficulties linked to their level of English? Unfortunately, the students' open answers do not offer a clear answer to this question. At UBS2, no significant evolution can be found, only the weight of the answers changes.

7.3.2. Motivation

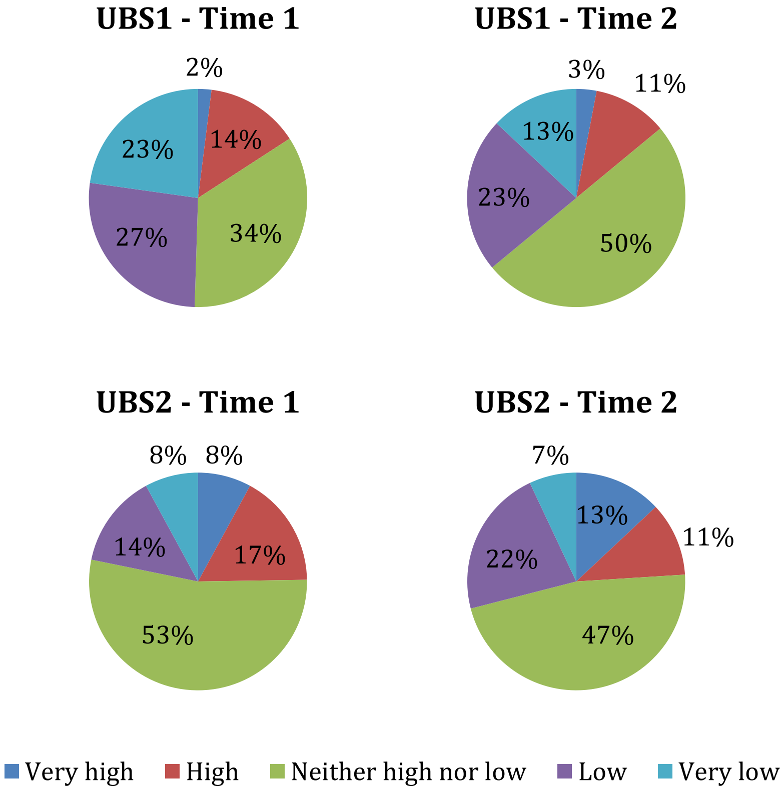


Figure 75 – My motivation in the CLIL class is…

At Time 1, the majority of the students did not seem very motivated, since more than 70% from both schools did not clearly claim to be motivated, and at Time 2 the proportions remained the same, with only a few more students moving to ‘undecided’.

7.3.3. General appreciation of the CLIL course

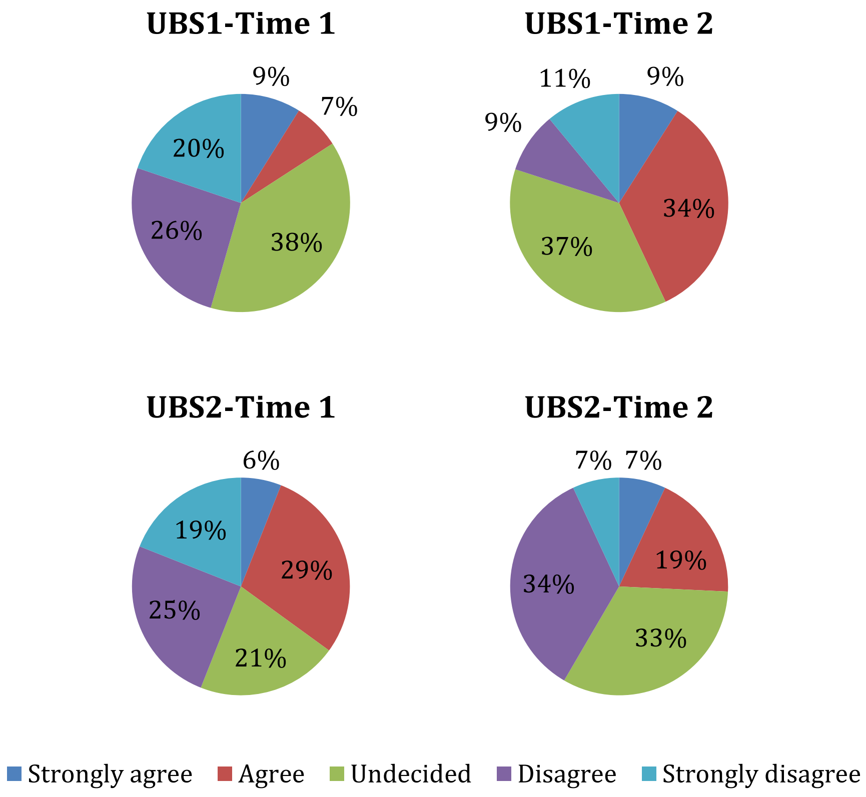


Figure 76 – I would be happy with taking another subject in English, apart from EFL

At UBS1, the change is noticeable since the proportion of agreement increased from 7% to 34%. The move came from the 'disagree' side, while the 'undecided' proportion remained the same. UBS2 opinions were less easy to interpret, since fewer people seemed to enjoy the CLIL class (19%) but fewer people strongly disagreed (7%). However, the large and greater number of those who were 'undecided' prevailed again.

7.3.4. Achievements

7.3.4.1. General assessment

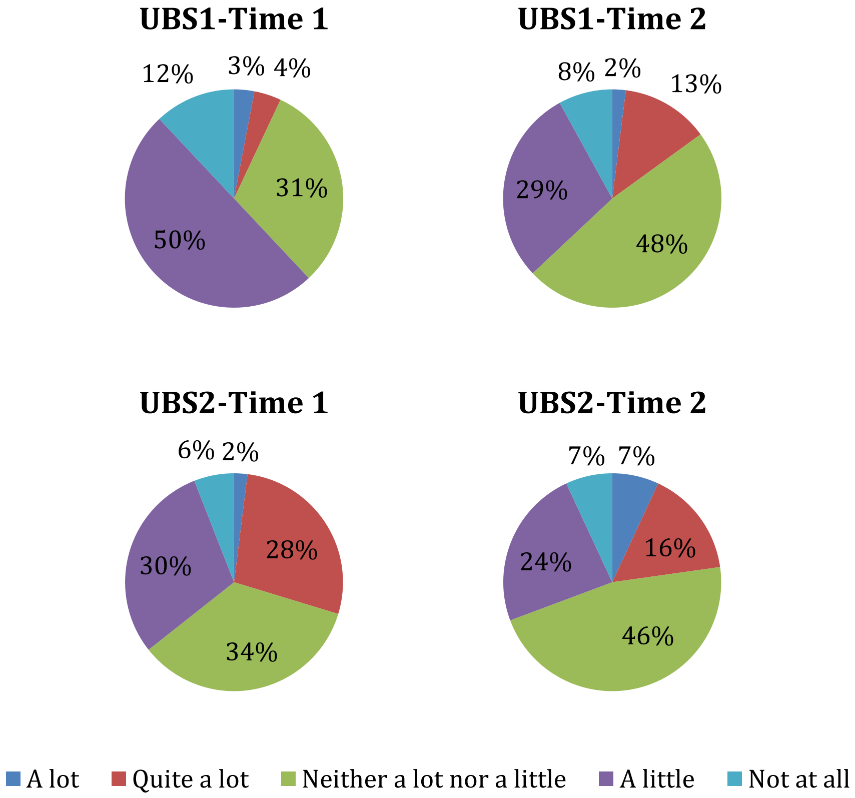


Figure 77 – In the CLIL class, I have learned…

The shift here is greater at UBS1, since at Time 1, 62% contended that they had not learned a lot, dropping to only 37% at Time 2. The students who were doing only one subject (maths) seemed to assess their learning acquisitions better than those who were doing diverse contents. However, all in all, the results are consistent with a progression towards 'undecided', and they come from both sides.

7.3.4.2. Impact of the CLIL class on English improvement

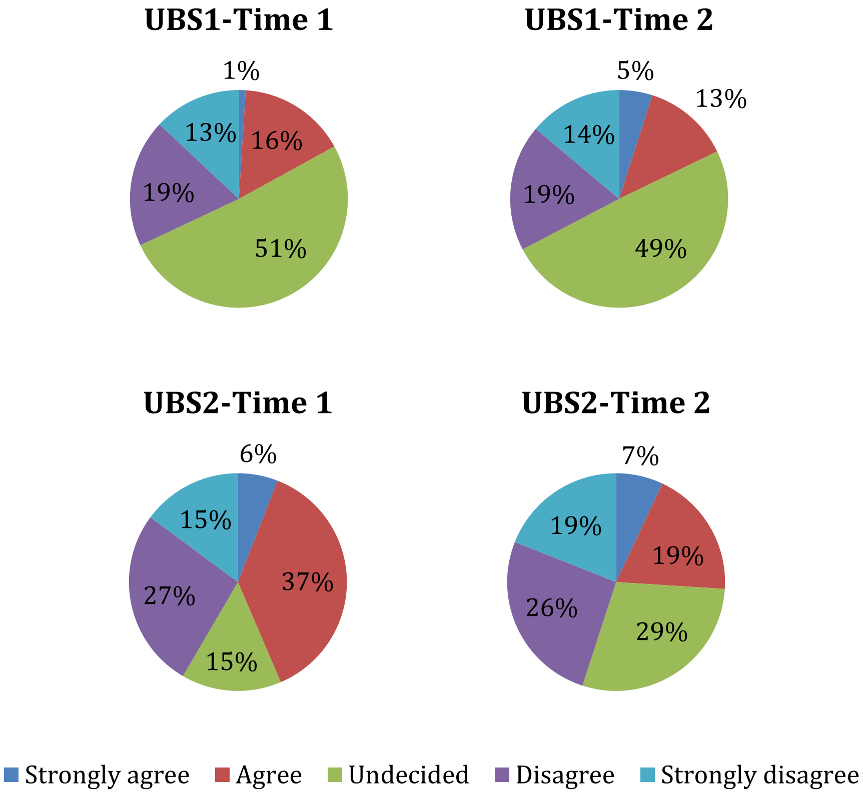


Figure 78 – My level of English has improved thanks to the CLIL class

At UBS1, the striking result is the stability of the results and the prevailing persistence of 'undecided'. While the students' perceptions of language gains at UBS2 seem to have decreased, they were more in two minds about their language progress.

In the open answers (see Appendix 7), the appraisal of the course is well-balanced between language gains:

"I have more chance to use English."
"I have learned a lot of English terminologies for Maths."
"CLIL helps me improve my English skills."

and content gains:

"CLIL helps me improve mathematics."
"I understand the content-subject more deeply."
"I understand the nature of maths, physics, and chemistry."

One reflection is particularly relevant:

> *"I find it easier to understand the content-subject in English. The exercises are more interesting."*

For some students, code switching from English to Vietnamese and vice versa seemed to sustain their mastery of the content.

7.3.5. Cognitive assessment

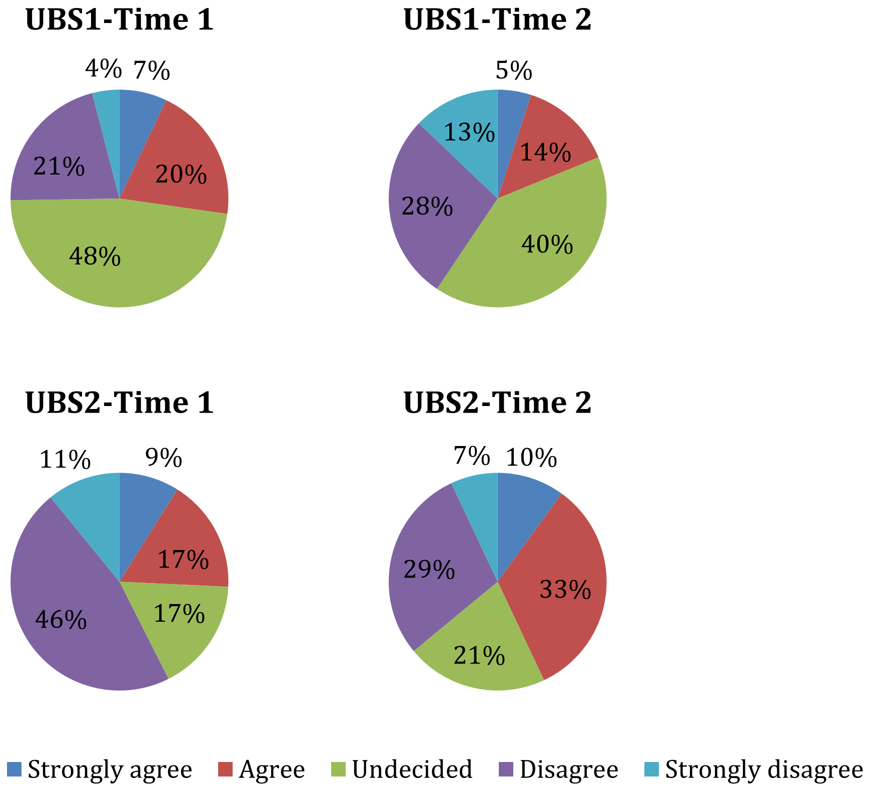


Figure 79 – I find it difficult to understand the content of the subject in English

At UBS1, the move is slightly towards less people agreeing, but the striking result is that half of the students remained undecided. This means that those students lacked the tools to self-evaluate their learning achievements, which raises the question of teaching goals and strategies. The proportion is quite different at UBS2, since the significant move is from 'disagree' to 'agree' or 'strongly agree'. Almost half of the students are clearly aware of their meeting with difficulties when faced with the foreign language mediation of the content.

Open answers provide more information about the different assessments of their potential difficulties.

Positive comments:

> *"It's quite easy, at least for me."*
> *"The content is reasonable, easy to understand."*
> *"The content of the CLIL lesson is quite similar to that in Vietnamese, so it's quite easy to understand."*
> *"[I like CLIL because] it's quite difficult."*

Negative comments:

> *"I'm not good at English. I don't understand any CLIL lessons. CLIL is useless for me. I would rather study all the subjects in Vietnamese."*
> *"It's too difficult. I don't understand English. There are too many difficult terminologies."*
> *"They should not be taught in English. I don't like CLIL because I understand nothing."*
> *"Too difficult."*
> *"The course is discouraging because it is too difficult. It makes me hate English."*
> *"It's too difficult. It's not suitable for my ability."*
> *"I'm not good at English, so I find it difficult to understand what the teacher is saying."*

7.3.6. The teacher factor

In Raby's motivational model, the teacher is seen as an instrument and a mediator in the students' learning process. Teachers are responsible for work's organisation, regulation and assessment (Zampa and Raby, 2001; Raby, 2009) and are *the* key factor for students' motivation in the EFL or SLA classroom. They are also social/affective mediators and the way they see and perform their roles obviously has a direct impact on their students' motivation, as mentioned earlier (Gobel et al., 2016).

7.3.6.1. Didactic qualities

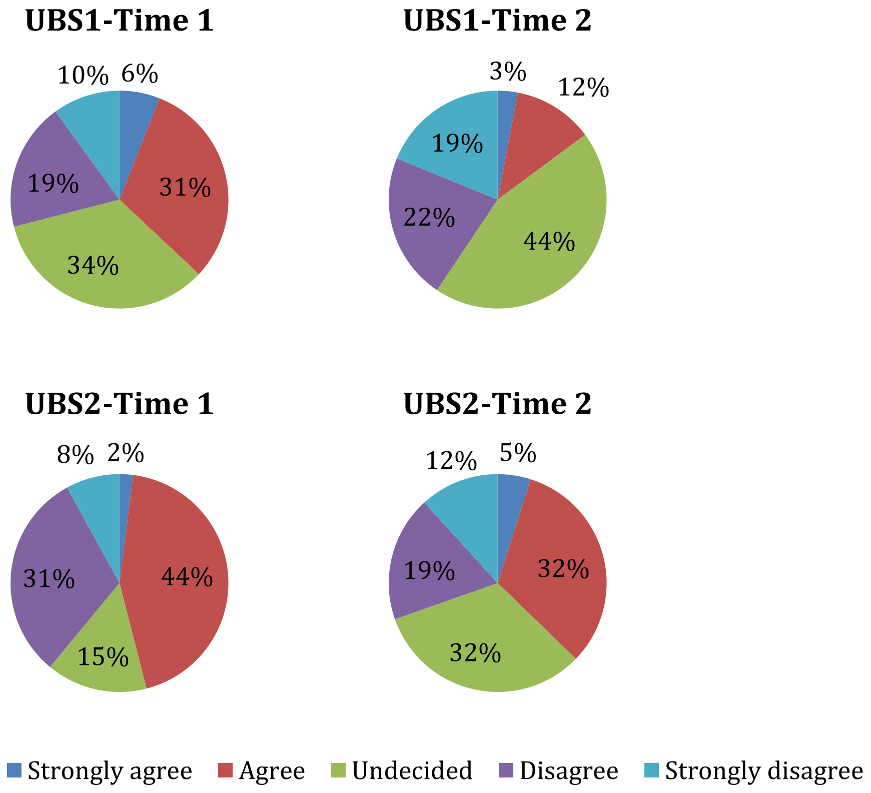


Figure 80 – Explanations provided by the CLIL teacher are clear.

At UBS1 at Time 2, more people disagreed that the teachers provided clear explanations, but the most significant result lies in the decrease in the number of those who seemed satisfied and became ‘undecided’. The move is the same at UBS2, but not so strong. There were still more people that agreed at UBS2 compared to UBS1.

7.3.6.2. Supporting quality

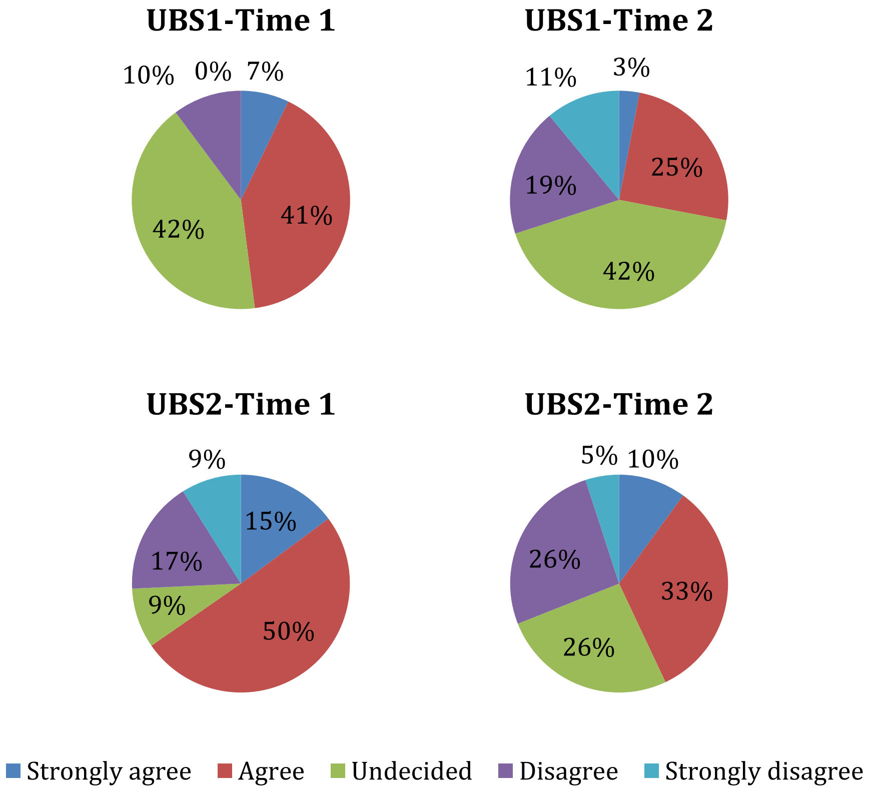


Figure 81 – The CLIL teacher helps us very much to follow the subject

At UBS1, there was a significant decrease in good opinions, while the number of undecided students remained exactly the same. At UBS2, more students agreed and more students disagreed at the expense of those who were undecided.

7.3.6.3. Open answers call for further reflections

We do not really know how the students understood the term 'help'. Was it didactic, affective/relational, or both? Their open answers provide some clarifications (see Appendix 7). Students were asked to state what they liked most and least in the CLIL class. The teacher factor ranked first, whether positively or negatively, at both times. Three sub-categories emerged from their statements: the teaching method, the teacher's competence, and the teacher's personality.

Method – positive statements:

"The teacher's explanations are clear."

"I like the teaching methods of the Physics teacher."
"The teacher slows down when it gets difficult."
"The teacher provides a lot of interesting examples."

Method – negative statements:

"The teacher is too fast sometimes."
"The teacher's teaching is too boring."
"The teacher does not organise or link the knowledge for students. Most of the time, she only deals with certain exercises without any connections."

Teacher's competence – positive statements:

"The teacher speaks English rather well."
"The teacher is qualified enough."

Teacher's competence – negative statements:

"Instead of translating every single word in the question, the teacher should teach us how to present the answer correctly to each type of SAT question."
"I think that the teacher should be more active in explaining in English. Her use of English is very limited. She often only gives the answer to the true/false questions and then explains the answers in Vietnamese."

Teacher support – positive statements:

"The physics teacher cares about the students."
"I prefer the teacher sharing her life experiences rather than doing exercises."
"The teacher often shares her life experiences."
"The teacher provides some useful information [that is not subject-related]."

Teacher support – negative statements:

"The teacher does not pay attention to the students."
"The teacher hates our class, so she is not enthusiastic. She didn't explain things clearly."

7.4. CONCLUSION

All in all, the results drawn from the second questionnaire do not unravel a lot of changes in the students' perceptions. This confirms the importance of the time variable when we consider an innovation. A year and a half is probably not enough time to properly appreciate the impact of the new learning experience. As a consequence, our interest in these results lies not so much in the answers they give as in the questions they raise.

When all forms are taken together, one remarkable trait is the balanced distribution of opinions and their stability from the beginning to the end of the experience. If we consider the diverse factors which make up motivation, those results confirm Raby's politomic and weighted model: according to the students, the same factor, such as the teacher, can be motivating, demotivating or felt as not really counting.

Regarding their appreciation of their CLIL courses, the students did not really seem enthusiastic from the start, and this did not change significantly. Besides, when they do change their minds, it is predominantly a move from 'a lot' to 'undecided'. Their further answers shed more light on this question: they were not unwilling to participate in the CLIL experience at the start, because of the potentialities of the system, yet, to many of them, the experience proved disappointing or did not conform to their expectations: not much achievement, difficulties in mastering both subjects, a lack of competence or support on the part of the teacher, etc. This strong result confirms the necessity to differentiate a learning system planned by the teachers and the actual *dispositif* seen as a dynamic system (de Bot and Larsen-Freeman, 2011) which involves a process of task interpretation and transposition on the part of its actors (Belleghem, 2018).

Regarding the reasons for this frequent move to 'undecided', these are the same: a lack of feeling of achievement and improvement, whether in the foreign language or the content subject, or disappointment with the teacher. Yet, on the other hand, the 'undecided' move may simply betray a difficulty in appropriating a learning system which is far too remote from Vietnamese cultural pedagogy. The CLIL *dispositif* probably puts the low achieving students in a state of disequilibrium which they neither assimilate nor accommodate, just reject.

Regarding the difference between single CLIL *dispositifs* versus multiple CLIL *dispositifs*, their motivation has clearly diminished in the single condition, while in the multiple condition the move is from 'undecided' to 'low' motivation. This result cannot properly be interpreted in the absence of information about the didactic organisation of the *dispositif*, but it raises a didactic question which will be at the core of my research back in Vietnam. Does a multiplicity of CLIL content favour appropriation because it generates a process of transfer from one CLIL class to another? Or, does it prevent appropriation because the students cannot make sense of a diversity of teaching CLIL practices?

In this chapter we have analysed the answers provided in the second questionnaire administered a year and a half after the beginning of the CLIL experience. Two main questions were at stake: the impact of the experience on the students' perceptions of *English in general* and the evolution of their motivation for the CLIL learning *dispositif*.

8.

RESULTS FOSTERED BY THE TEACHERS’ INTERVIEWS

This chapter presents the results yielded by the teachers' interviews with a few CLIL teachers who took part in the *dispositif*. As explained in Chapter 5, the interviews were analysed inductively. Several themes emerged: the role and the use of language in CLIL, the teachers' motivation, and the students' motivation.

Before presenting the results, it is prudent to recall the teachers' profiles presented in Chapter 5.

Table 19 – Teachers' profiles

	Subject	**Highest degree**	**English level**	**Teaching experience**	**CLIL experience**	**CLIL training**
Teacher 1 (female)	Maths	Master's (2005) (PhD candidate)	B2	15 years	5 years	No
Teacher 2 (male)	Maths	PhD (2009)	B2-C1	8 years	5 years	No
Teacher 3 (male)	Physics	PhD (2004)	9 years study and work abroad	9 years	4 years	No
Teacher 4 (female)	Maths	Master's (2010)	Not specified	13 years	7 years	No
Teacher 5 (female)	Maths	Master's (2008)	B2	10 years	6 months	Yes
Teacher 6 (female)	Biology	Master's (2015)	B1	8 years	6 months	Yes
Teacher 7 (male)	Chemistry	Master's (2010)	B1	12 years	2 years	Yes

8.1. BACKGROUND

We were able to interview seven teachers among the CLIL teachers of the three schools. There were two CLIL teacher-trainers (T1 and T3) and one teacher who had been invited to be a CLIL teacher-trainer by the MOET (but then refused) (T2). Two of them had been chosen to be CLIL teacher-trainers because they had studied abroad (PhD level) (T2 and T3). For the other one (T1), it was because she had qualifications and experience in teaching mathematics in French, and she was good at English as well. These three teachers did not receive any further training in CLIL.

There were two different training regimes: one organised by the MOET and the other by the local Department of Education and Training. The MOET offered two training courses each year for each subject, and each course lasted for one week (about 40 hours). The CLIL teacher-trainer (T3) used foreign-produced books and materials from the internet for those training courses. The local Department of Education and Training also organised training courses for the teachers. Each course lasted for three months and was divided into two parts: general English and English for specific purposes. The teacher-trainers in these courses were language teachers. One of the teacher participants commented: "*I do not find those courses [by the local Department of Education and Training] very effective/useful because the trainers are just ESP teachers.*"

Except for Teacher 2, who was a visiting professor from a university, all the other teacher participants were subject teachers in their schools and had been assigned to teach CLIL. Among those teachers, three teachers said that CLIL was something they had thought of and wanted to do even before the project was launched (T1, T3, and T5). The other three teachers were assigned by the school or the school subject sections on the basis of their level of English, their subject matter expertise, and their age (T4, T6, and T7).

8.2. THE USE AND THE ROLE OF LANGUAGE IN CLIL

All the participants said that it was impossible to use 100% English during the lessons because of the difficult *content-subject*, their limited abilities in English (the teachers' and the students' alike), and the time constraints. This confirmed Anh's (2010) findings.

> *T1: Using 100% English is impossible... If the content is too difficult, I have to speak Vietnamese so that students can understand... And I think in the end, in order to understand anything deeply, one needs to be taught in the mother tongue. […] I agree that English is important, but with natural subjects like mathematics, which requires a high level of thinking, teaching totally in English is impossible […] If you teach English, Vietnamese may be banned, but if you teach scientific subjects, it's not ok [to ban Vietnamese] at*

> *all.* ***The purpose of teaching is for students to understand****. English is just a means [a tool] of communication.*
>
> *T2: I would prefer to use the word 'encourage' to 'ban' because there are certain situations in which the use of Vietnamese is better. For example, when the use of English is too time-consuming, students can use Vietnamese instead.* ***After all, the important thing is that students understand the lesson****. After that, the teacher can help them express the idea in English.*
>
> *T3:* ***No, the use of L1 should not be banned, as it depends on the students' English level. The use of L1 cannot be banned****.*
>
> *T4: I used English about 70% of the time in CLIL lessons. When I introduce new concepts or when I explain something very difficult, I still have to use Vietnamese, or when I explain the ways to solve a difficult maths problem, I use Vietnamese. […] Their [the students'] ability to use English is quite limited. Some students are very good at English; others are not. Mathematics is difficult by itself. The time for CLIL lessons is not much. In fact, it is not obligatory to speak English all the time.*
>
> *T5: I think that the use of L1 in English lessons should be banned, but the use of L1 in the CLIL lessons should not be banned. There is difficult content in CLIL lessons.* ***The priority is the students' understanding****. The use of English is secondary to this. After all, this is a scientific subject. […] Now I feel more confident. But sometimes I still find it difficult to explain in English because my English is still not very good.*
>
> *T6: The terminology is specific for Biology, so it is very difficult [to understand], so I have to use Vietnamese. […] It would be good to ban L1 in CLIL lessons, but the teachers are not qualified enough to do so [smile].*
>
> *T7: I use 50% English and 50% Vietnamese. When there are some abstract concepts, or difficult content, I have to change to Vietnamese so that students can understand. […] At the moment, I think that it's not good to ban Vietnamese in CLIL lessons, as the teachers haven't been trained properly, and the students have just finished secondary school. Their English competence is still limited. But in five years' time, I think that Vietnamese should be banned in CLIL lessons.*

According to the *threshold hypothesis*, insufficient language skills may hinder students' cognitive development as well as content learning (Cummins, 1979, p.229; Zydatib, 2012, p.26). In contrast, Küppers and Trautmann argue that "CLIL does indeed work for everybody" (2013, p.292) and suggest that more research should address bilingual programmes in mixed-ability settings. Results from the teachers' interviews seem to confirm the *threshold hypothesis*. Success seemed to be heavily dependent on students' language competence.

We will now examine the three aspects of language in CLIL. As presented in Chapter 4, Coyle's language triptych "supports learners in language using through the analysis of the CLIL vehicular language from three interrelated perspectives: language of learning, language for learning, and language through learning" (Coyle et al., 2010, p.36).

8.2.1. Language of learning

The first aspect of the language in CLIL is the language of learning; i.e. language as curriculum concern. This is the kind of language needed for learners to access basic concepts and skills relating to the subject theme or topic. Learners need to acquire language specific to the subject (ESP), e.g. the language of science, language of mathematics, language of geography (Chaplier, 2012; 2015). This aspect was well presented in the teachers' interviews.

> *T1: It is not that students cannot use English, but they cannot use the correct scientific words. For example, in mathematics, we do not use 'cause/because', we use 'since' instead. Or there are some words which have different meanings, the everyday meaning and the mathematical meaning. For example, the word 'slope', for you, it means 'a rising or falling surface', but for us, it means 'the measure of the steepness of a line'. What I teach students regarding English is the mathematical terminologies, and the way to use English for mathematics. […] I myself compiled a dictionary for students, in which there is the pronunciation, and the meaning in both English and Vietnamese of the word. Besides, I send materials to students to help them with reading comprehension. Students' English level is quite good, but their 'English for mathematics' is not so good. However, students can understand the materials.*

> *T3: To help them with the vocabulary and grammar, at first, instead of speaking English... For the terminology, for example, I give them the Vietnamese terminology [translation]. Sometimes, I choose exercises with the purpose of learning English rather than learning science, gap-filling exercises for example. Sometimes, the IELTS, TOEFL training strategies should be included [smile]. […] With the students whose English is not good, the teacher cannot speak English with them all the time. The teachers have to give them more exercises on vocabulary and grammar. The teachers have more contact with them and correct their wrong scientific expressions.*

> *T4: We have to choose the content very carefully. Also, we have to teach students the skills to solve the maths problems and the skills to present their*

> *answers very carefully. First, we choose a topic that the whole class can follow. Then, for that topic, we choose certain exercises and help students do them very carefully. Anyway, English for Maths is not too complicated like other subjects which need a lot of words and expressions. […] All the content in CLIL lessons is taken from the Maths lessons in Vietnamese. The differences are the warm-up activities where I help students get used to the new words and pronunciations.*
>
> *T6: I only use 30% English in CLIL lessons. I use Vietnamese when I explain the meaning of some terminology. The terminology is specific for Biology, so it is very difficult [to understand], so I have to use Vietnamese. […] I find that students can use English quite well. Only when there are some difficult terms, which cannot be paraphrased in other words, can students use Vietnamese. […] I find that students seem not to have any difficulties when doing CLIL. The terminology might cause a few difficulties. Then, the teacher will help them. In a lesson, the difficult terminology, whose meaning cannot be found anywhere, make up just 10%. With the help of the teacher, students can do the tasks easily.*

It appears that the students were faced with many difficulties with the terminology of the subjects. This finding is very much in line with the students' open answers, which also indicated that the major difficulty of the CLIL courses was 'terminology'. This difficulty seems to be specific to those students whose mother tongue is not of a Latin origin, like Vietnamese, as indicated by Teacher 3:

> *T3: [The difficulty of implementing CLIL is that] Vietnamese people are not good at English because the natures of the two languages are so different, so English can become a barrier.*

However, the teachers also indicated that language in Mathematics was not as complicated as other subjects because of the symbolic universal nature of the specialised language.

> *T4: Anyway, English for Maths is not too complicated like other subjects which need a lot of words and expressions.*
>
> *T5: Besides, there are a lot of common mathematical symbols [in English and in Vietnamese], so students [can] easily guess the meaning of the words/expressions they don't know.*

8.2.2. Language for learning

Language for learning is the kind of language needed to operate in a foreign language environment. Learners need to be supported in developing skills such as those required for pair work, cooperative group work, asking questions, debating, chatting, enquiring, thinking, memorising and so on. This kind of language is very important for the success of CLIL lessons. However, this kind of language support seemed to be absent from the teachers' interviews. The fact that the students were required to write their answers in English but, at the same time, were allowed to discuss or speak in Vietnamese partly revealed that they were not provided with enough 'language for learning' (Chaplier, 2016).

> *T1: Of course, most of the time, students answer in Vietnamese, and then I help them to use English to express themselves. When they speak in a group, they also use Vietnamese. However, when they write, they are required to write in English. […] As I've said, students often speak in Vietnamese, and write in English. I use exercises from SAT tests in CLIL lessons. Students have to write the answer in English. Then I call some up to write the answer on the backboard. I correct their answer and help them use correct English.*
>
> *T2: I often help students prepare for the lessons beforehand. For example, before the lessons, I give them the reading text, so that they can prepare at home, they can use a dictionary and the internet to understand the text. During the lesson, I introduce the simple points first then move on to the more difficult ones, and I try to encourage them speak in English. […] Students' level of English is mixed. However, their reading skills are good, because they are gifted students. So I can solve the problem easily by giving them the reading text and learning materials beforehand. Often they don't have any difficulty in understanding the reading texts. Of course, their speaking skills are varied. Some of them speak very well, others, not so well.*
>
> *T3: When students speak in a group, they often speak Vietnamese. When they speak to me, and I refuse to listen to Vietnamese, then they are obliged to speak English, but this rule is applied to only some capable students. […] Students can speak both English and Vietnamese. I encourage students to speak English, but using their mother tongue is unavoidable. They have been using their mother tongue for years, it is very difficult to use a foreign language.*
>
> *T4: When students speak in a group, they can use Vietnamese. However, when they do written exercises or tests, they are obliged to use 100% English.*
>
> *T5: I think that students use about 50-90% of English. Sometimes they use a lot of English, but for example, when they speak to find an answer, they have to use Vietnamese first. […] When students don't know some English terms,*

> *they would ask me in Vietnamese. Or, for example, when we have difficult mathematics problems, we have to discuss them in Vietnamese first to find the answer, then we write the answer in English later.*

8.2.3. Language through learning

Language through learning is the kind of language generated in the process of learning. As a new meaning is learned, a new language is required and developed (Chaplier, 2016). The relationship between new meaning and new language (interlanguage) is illustrated in the following comments:

> *T3: English is a popular language. People have been using English to do sciences for a long time. So it is simpler to use English to describe a scientific phenomenon in English. Vietnamese is more suitable for literature and poems; it is not suitable for scientific purposes. It is better to think directly in English. Also, most of the scientific materials are written in English. If you know English, you have good access to the source of knowledge. There are very few materials in Vietnamese. Some students whose English is good find a lot of useful materials and information from the internet for themselves. They really have a broader horizon than those who only rely on very few Vietnamese books. In fact, most of the books in Vietnamese are translated books from English. We are not good enough to think of anything new. Therefore, students who are good at English have a good access to knowledge.*

Regarding language as an added value, the literature often suggests that the students, while using the language in a variety of situations, increased their linguistic competence because of the amount of linguistic stimulations they received. This is evidenced in the interview with Teacher 5, where the negotiation of meaning is also illustrated.

> *T5: In fact, I change my teaching technique continuously. Sometimes, I teach reading comprehension by finding suitable reading materials. Students already know some contents. Besides, there are a lot of common mathematical symbols [in English and Vietnamese], so students [can] easily guess the meaning of the words/expressions they don't know. Sometimes, I find some videos of mathematics lectures on the internet, where a professor explains and writes symbols on the board at the same time. I find that students can understand those lectures and they are interested in watching them as well. In that way, students can acquire the language naturally. […] I think CLIL may also help students improve their English. Students specialising in maths often don't like the English subject, so CLIL familiarises them with English.*

However, when asked directly whether or not she had noticed any changes in the learners' grade/competence of English, she did not confirm the relationship between CLIL and language improvement.

> *T5: It is difficult to say. I really don't know.*

All other teachers gave similar answers to this question.

> *T1: There is no relationship between these subjects [English, Mathematics in Vietnamese, and CLIL Mathematics]. The purpose of CLIL in this school is to prepare students who want to study abroad. Also, CLIL helps students learn about the maths programmes in foreign countries and compare them with that in Vietnam.*
>
> *T2: No, I think that there isn't any change.*
>
> *T3: I really don't know. Maybe there are changes, but we do not do surveys, so we can't know. We cannot guess.*
>
> *T4: The main objective of this CLIL is for students to integrate [themselves] into the world. It is difficult to evaluate the changes in their English skills or Mathematics because, firstly, I am not a teacher of English. Secondly, I do not teach them Mathematics in Vietnamese. However, I can see some positive changes in the learners when they get used to my way of teaching.*
>
> *T6: In my opinion, one obvious change is that students know more English terminology. […] I haven't noticed any changes in their attitude or motivation.*

In summary, the use of English in the CLIL lessons was still limited due to the limited English ability of both the teachers and the students, as well as the time constraints. Secondly, of the three aspects of language in CLIL, 'language for learning' seemed to be absent in the CLIL practice. Thirdly, the added value of CLIL is little evident in the teachers' interviews. This is due to the fact that their attention was more driven to the students' achievements in the *content-subject* than in EFL. Also, not being trained language teachers, they lacked the competence to actually evaluate language progress.

8.3. TEACHERS' MOTIVATION

Over the past century, learners' motivation largely prevailed as a research domain, although many leaders in the field repeatedly commented that teachers were perhaps *the* key factor in the motivational process (Dörnyei, 2001; Raby, 2009). Since then, research on teachers' motivation has significantly developed, as stressed by Watt et al. (2017).

While the present research focuses more on CLIL students' motivation, it is worth examining CLIL teachers' motivation to teach CLIL as well, because of the strong relationship between the teachers' motivation and the students' motivation. In fact, the teachers' values, beliefs, attitudes and behaviour, as well as the general level of their commitment towards the students, their learning and the subject matter, constitute some of the most prevailing influences on student motivation (Dörnyei, 2001; Raby, 2009). Also, the relationship between teacher and student motivation is an interactive one, and can be either positively or negatively synergistic (Deci et al., 1997). As Dörnyei (2001) added, teachers are the designated leaders of the class groups; therefore, they have a special responsibility for maintaining their own commitment to the teaching process.

Dörnyei (2001) identified four motivational aspects that particularly featured with respect to teacher motivation from the scanty research on the subject:

1. It involves a prominent *intrinsic component* as a main constituent. The intrinsic dimension of *teacher motivation* is related to the inherent joy of pursuing a meaningful activity related to one's subject area of interest, in an autonomous manner, within a vivacious collegial community, with self-efficacy, instructional goals and performance feedback being critical factors in modifying the level effort and persistence (see also Lauermann et al., 2017).
2. It is very closely linked with *contextual factors*, associated with the institutional demands and constraints of the workplace, and the salient social profile of the profession. The contextual influences can be separated into two main categories that affect teacher satisfaction in different ways: (1) *School-based extrinsic factors* (micro-level) exert a varied impact, ranging between satisfying and dissatisfying, primarily as a function of the school leadership. Among these factors, the 'perceived expected effort' is one of the key determinants of teachers' work effort; and (2) *Systemic/societal-level factors* (macro-level), such as the status and image of teachers or the imposed educational changes, over which teachers and school have little control, function as major 'dissatisfiers'.
3. Along with all the other types of career motivation, it concerns an extended, often life-long, process with a featured *temporal axis* (which is

most clearly reflected when talking about career structure and promotion possibilities). (Zhang, 2017).

4. It appears to be particularly *fragile*, that is, exposed to several powerful negative influences (some being inherent in the profession). In addition to the possible economic issues (in some countries), Dörnyei (ibid) listed five general demotivating factors responsible for the erosion process: (1) the particularly *stressful nature* of most teaching job; (2) the *inhibition of teacher autonomy* set by curricula, standardised tests, imposed teaching methods, government-mandated policies and other institutional constraints; (3) *insufficient self-efficacy* on the part of most teachers due to inappropriate training; (4) *content repetitiveness* and *limited potential for intellectual development;* and (5) *inadequate career structure.*

The work of Pennington (1995) revealed that *moral values* and *social services,* then *creativity, achievement* and *ability utilisation* are the most motivating factors for ESL practitioners. All these elements are related to intrinsic job satisfaction. The least motivating factors were revealed to be *advancement* and *compensation,* followed by *supervision scale* and *company policies and procedures.* These results were consistent with earlier arguments. Similarly, Doyle and Kim (1999) investigated ESL teacher motivation with two sets of teachers of very different types – western instructors in a second language acquisition context and oriental instructors in a foreign language learning context. The results showed a general consensus among the participants that the main motivating factor for them is the intrinsic interest in teaching and helping students (Padwad and Dixit, 2017). The factors leading to dissatisfaction included: low salary, lack of respect from the school administration, mandated curricula and tests. The results showed more commonalties than differences among the two sets of participations.

8.3.1. The components of teacher motivation- Positive factors

Among the seven teacher participants, five teachers (T1, T2, T3, T5 and T7) said that it had been their choice to teach CLIL. One teacher (T4) said that although she had been assigned to teach CLIL, she still intended to continue to teach CLIL if it was her choice to make. Some teachers even stated that teaching CLIL was something they had always wanted to do.

T1: For me, for example, I can earn much more if I give preparation courses for the entrance exam whereas the time and the amount of work needed for CLIL is much more... I have only love for it.

I: If it were up to you to decide, would you use CLIL methodology to teach these days?
T1: Of course, it has always been my choice whether or not to teach CLIL.
T2: Yes, of course. As I said before, I thought of teaching in English long ago. I find it new and attractive.
T3: Doing CLIL has always been my own decision.
T5: When I was studying at university, I thought about teaching Mathematics in English. At that time, no one ever talked about that. I love English and I thought about teaching mathematics in English back then when no one knew about it.

I: Do you plan to keep using the CLIL methodology in the next years as well?
T1: Of course, like when you've fallen in love, you just continue, you don't know any other way.
T4: Yes, because it's quite interesting.

8.3.1.1. Task relevance

In order for the work to be motivating, it must first and foremost be meaningful (Hackman, 1991). It is clear from the teachers' interviews that all of the teachers perceived teaching CLIL as meaningful work. All the teachers agreed on the importance of English and of promoting English in the modern world. However, surprisingly, each teacher perceived the purpose of CLIL differently.

Firstly, there was an absolute consensus that CLIL was considered as a way of promoting English.

I: Do you agree the use of English should be encouraged in CLIL lessons? Why?
T1: Yes, of course. English is important, that's why we teach mathematics in English.
T3: Yes, of course, because English is the international language. In comparison with other languages, English is quite easy to learn to speak, and it is rich enough for scientific descriptions. For scientific purposes, using English is quite simple. It is not as complicated as French or Russian, which are suitable for literature.
T4: It's obvious. If not, why do we bother studying English or CLIL?
T5: Yes, of course, because it is the international language. More and more people are using it. […] I think CLIL may also help students improve their

> *English. Students specialising in maths often don't like the English subject. So this CLIL familiarises them with English.*
> *T6: Yes, it's possible to encourage the use of English in CLIL lessons. By encouraging the use of English, they can use it better, just like when we study general English.*
> *T7: Of course, English should be strongly encouraged. We can see it clearly from the success of Singapore. Singapore is a strong country because its people speak English well. If we do not promote the use of English, we cannot be successful.*

This seems to be contradictory to what the teachers said about whether or not they noticed any changes in the learners' grade/competence in the foreign language or in any other subjects after they had begun using CLIL during their lessons (see 8.2.3). This could be explained by two reasons. Firstly, perhaps the teachers (and perhaps their students, as well) felt that they had not met the course objectives. However, this does not seem to be the case, as the teachers claimed that at least a proportion of students did (this will be discussed in 8.3.2). Secondly, the teachers may not have perceived any connection between English in CLIL and English as an EFL because, as mentioned earlier, they were not English teachers.

Secondly, the purposes of CLIL were perceived differently by different teachers. For Teachers 1 and 4, the main purpose of CLIL was to prepare students who had the intention of studying abroad, although not all students in their classes intended to.

> *T1: They can do SAT tests more easily, and they better understand what is taught in foreign countries... It benefits students who want to study abroad. In my classes, about 50% of students want to study abroad. […] The purpose of CLIL in this school is to prepare students who want to study abroad. Also, CLIL helps students know the maths programmes in foreign countries and compare them with that of Vietnam. […] They improve their SAT score considerably. They now know different types of mathematical problems. And of course, if they study abroad, they won't find it too strange.*

> *T4: The main objective of this CLIL is for students to integrate [themselves] into the world. […] First, CLIL improves their mathematical [thinking] skills when they have to use many languages. And they understand that mathematics is the same in English or in Vietnamese. Secondly, CLIL helps them better integrate into the world. For the students who have the intention to study abroad, CLIL helps them do better at foreign schools.*

For Teachers 2 and 3, CLIL was considered as a better way of accessing knowledge. According to them, English was *the* language of scientific communication, and more and better scientific materials are in English. Therefore, if students were good at English, they were sure to obtain a good access to knowledge. It therefore followed that being fluent in English was seen as a kind of asset.

> *T2: Students who do CLIL have better access to materials. They can understand a topic more deeply and profoundly.*
>
> *T3: English is a popular language. People have been using English to do sciences for a long time. So it is simpler to use English to describe a scientific phenomenon. Vietnamese is more suitable for literature and poems; it is not suitable for scientific purposes. It is better to think directly in English. Also, most of the scientific materials are written in English. If you know English, you have good access to the source of knowledge. There are very few materials in Vietnamese. Some students whose English is good find a lot of useful materials and information from the internet for themselves. They really have a broader horizon than those who only rely on very few Vietnamese books. In fact, most of the books in Vietnamese are translated books from English. We are not good enough to think of anything new. Therefore, students who are good at English have a good access to knowledge.*

For Teachers 5 and 6 (both from CBS3), CLIL helped the students prepare for international competitions. In addition, Teacher 5 considered CLIL as a way of changing teaching and learning methods, thus better motivating the students.

> *T5: I find that CLIL is useful for students, especially gifted students as in this school. Recently, there have been many contests in English, like HOMC [Hanoi Open Mathematics Competition] or AMC [American Mathematics Competition] or some other international maths contests. CLIL helps them a lot when they take part in these competitions. […] CLIL helps mathematics lessons be less 'boring'. Mathematics lessons in Vietnamese are quite 'dry' [boring]. But in CLIL lessons, students watch videos, and that is more interesting. Students have a chance to compare the two educational systems. They know how something is defined in another language. I find CLIL very interesting and useful.*
>
> *T6: This CLIL increases students' vocabulary, especially terminology. CLIL helps them understand the questions in international competitions or materials from the field. It is also the objective of this CLIL project of the Ministry of Education and Training.*

Teacher 7 gave a more complete picture of the purposes and benefits of CLIL, confirming Coyle's model (developed in Chapter 4).

> *T7: There are three strengths to CLIL. Firstly, for students who will study abroad (about 20% of students in my class), this CLIL helps them a lot. Even if students get a very high score for IELTS, they still have to take a preparation course in which they learn English for Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, and other academic subjects. If they can prepare themselves in Vietnam, they can shorten the time abroad, and better integrate in the foreign country. Secondly, this CLIL helps gifted students better prepare for international competitions. Recently, there have been many competitions. (In my class, about 40% of students will participate in one or more international competitions). When students work with CLIL, they have access to more materials. Thirdly, this CLIL helps promote the teaching and learning of English in high schools in general. […] MOET is very keen on innovating teaching methodology […] The project 2020 is supposed to be quickly applied to all high schools. Those schools who have applied CLIL are considered to be the pioneers in changing teaching methodologies. Apparently, this will have positive effects on other high schools in Vietnam. For the gifted schools themselves, this CLIL has many positive effects. In order to teach CLIL successfully, teachers have to apply new teaching methods. If they keep the traditional white chalk and blackboard method, students won't listen to them.*

8.3.1.2. Intellectual challenge

A "lack of intellectual challenge" has been mentioned as a negative influence on teacher motivation (Agustiani, 2016). In a typical school setting, many teachers teach the same subject matter year after year, without any real opportunity from teaching to discover or acquire new knowledge, skills or abilities. Indeed, meeting the prescribed requirements and covering the imposed course content in the same specialised sub-area of the curriculum does not allow many teachers much leeway to include variations and 'intellectual detours', and the classroom procedures can easily get routinised (Pennington, 1995). This is particularly true in the public education system in Vietnam, where the curriculum, the time allowance, and even the methodologies are fixed and imposed on the teachers. This CLIL project was clearly a real opportunity for the teachers to 'discover or acquire new knowledge, skills or ability', and be a 'new spark' in their teaching career. This is well covered in the teachers' interviews. Moreover, the teachers also considered the task of teaching CLIL as challenging, as something that 'not everybody can do'. Therefore, accomplishing the task can bring about a greater sense of accomplishment. These are the sources of their intrinsic motivation. This is not to mention the fact that in Vietnam, speaking English or a foreign language is considered to be 'chic', 'intelligent', and 'superior'. Video clips of celebrities or political figures speaking English are spread over social media networks with numerous compliments and great admiration.

> *T1: It [CLIL] is very good for the teachers as they have to be very active. CLIL is good for the so-called 'formation continue'. In Vietnam, [the fact] that you study for four years at a pedagogical school doesn't mean that you can become a teacher. You may have certain knowledge of the field, but not the 'teaching skills'. To be able to teach, you need to have two more years of teacher training, and then you have to be continuously trained and retrained weekly, monthly. But in Vietnam, there are no such things. CLIL forces teachers to self-study.*
>
> *T2: For the teachers, they have to improve themselves to respond to the new challenges.*
>
> *T3: Any teacher who wishes to do CLIL can do it. In fact, teachers are encouraged to do CLIL because it is considered to be an opportunity to improve themselves.*
>
> *T4: In fact, I don't have any qualifications in English. However, through the seminars at the school, people know each teacher's strong points and weak points. I was chosen to teach CLIL. You can say CLIL teachers are chosen for their professional knowledge and communication skills. […] CLIL is a challenge, and teachers have to try their best to respond to it.*
>
> *T5: CLIL also brings a lot of benefits for teachers. As for me, I have to read a lot. I have to improve my English skills, although it's also my hobby. I devote more time and effort. […] CLIL motivates me to improve myself. I am forced to study English and English for Mathematics.*
>
> *T7: When the Ministry of Education and Training launched the project, the school chose the teachers who were willing to do or who had some English ability to do CLIL. My school often has foreign visitors. Through their contact with the visitors, the school can find out the English ability of some teachers. That's how I was chosen. […] In order to teach CLIL successfully, teachers have to apply new teaching methods. If they keep the traditional white chalk and blackboard method, students won't listen to them.*

8.3.1.3. Autonomy

In comparison with all the other subjects at schools, CLIL teachers have much greater autonomy. In Vietnam, the curriculum, the textbooks, and the content of each lesson are strictly controlled by the schools, the Department of

Education and Training and the MOET as well (Trang and Baldauf, 2007). With CLIL subjects, the teachers have much greater autonomy, if not absolute autonomy, in their teaching. Teachers themselves choose the content, and there is no evaluation or control at all. This might be a motivating factor for the CLIL teachers in Vietnam.

> *T1: There are similarities and differences in the content of the two programmes. Teachers decide what to teach, and they themselves choose the content.*
>
> *T2: The content of the CLIL lessons is mostly taken from the content of Mathematics lessons in Vietnamese. The teachers decide what to teach themselves.*
>
> *T3: Students have two hours per week for each subject [CLIL mathematics, CLIL physics, CLIL chemistry]. The content is very flexible. Teachers themselves decide what to teach. It is not necessarily similar to the Vietnamese programme, because it would bore students. However, as the curricula in high schools are quite similar all over the world, there are a lot of similarities in the content of the Vietnamese programme and CLIL. The teaching and learning methods are different. The content may be more practical. In short, CLIL in this school is very flexible.*
>
> *T5: As CLIL is still new in our school, the teachers decide the contents of the lessons. We usually choose content that is similar to that of lessons in Vietnamese. However, CLIL lessons cannot cover all the content of lessons in Vietnamese because there is only one period per week.*

CLIL teachers were also encouraged by their schools to attend conferences and training courses. The conference fee and training fee were either paid by the MOET, the Department of Education and Training, or the schools. The school allowed teachers to attend those courses and assigned substitute teachers if needed.

However, absolute autonomy was not always seen as a motivating factor for all teachers. Some teachers felt the need for more guidance or instruction.

8.3.2. The components of teacher motivation-The negative influences

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) listed five general demotivating factors responsible for the erosion process: (1) the particularly *stressful nature* of most teaching jobs; (2) the *inhibition of teacher autonomy* set by curricula, standardised tests, imposed teaching methods, government-mandated policies and other institutional constraints; (3) *insufficient self-efficacy* on the part of most teachers due to inappropriate training; (4) *content repetitiveness* and *limited potential for intellectual development;* and (5) *inadequate career structure.* Among these five factors, *insufficient self-ability* was the most common theme mentioned by CLIL teachers.

8.3.2.1. Insufficient self-ability

As mentioned earlier, of the seven teacher participants, only one teacher (Teacher 6) did not want to continue to teach CLIL if it was her choice. The overall theme emerging from the interview with her was the 'insufficient self-efficacy'. In particular, her limited English competence was a recurrent theme in the interview.

> *T6: It would be good to ban L1 in CLIL lessons, but the teachers are not qualified enough to do so [smile]. As you already know, even teachers of English who have been trained for years are not qualified. As for us, we have taken only some short training courses for a certificate. Our English may not be as good as the students'. Some of them even have IELTS 8.0. It's impossible [to ban L1]. […] Our English is not good enough to translate Vietnamese textbooks into English. […] We cannot teach difficult content like in Vietnamese lessons, we are not good enough. […] I find teaching CLIL very difficult. It really is a big challenge.*
> *[Has your attitude to CLIL changed in any way over the years?]*
> *No, I still find it very difficult. In fact, I find it more and more difficult as I teach. My English is not good at all.*
> *[If it were up to you to decide, would you use the CLIL methodology to teach these days?]*
> *No, you see, when you teach something, you must be very good at it. You are very sure about what you are teaching. At least, you must be better than the students. Now, we are even not as good as the students [at English], how can we teach them? How can we be confident to teach them? […] If it was up to me to decide, I wouldn't do it next year. It is too difficult for me, as I've already told you.*

Some teachers found teaching in English was difficult not only because their own English was limited, but also because the students' level of English was also sometimes too limited.

> *T2: I find explaining the subject matter in English extremely difficult. This is because of a number of reasons: how the teacher speaks, how students can*

> *discuss it, how teachers can guide students, how students can understand. All these things together make teaching CLIL difficult.*
>
> *T3: Preparing for CLIL activities is difficult because students have mixed abilities. One activity may be suitable for this group, but it is not suitable for another group. This demands a lot of effort from the teachers. […] Another difficulty is that students have quite mixed levels of English, so the lesson preparation and design is also difficult.*
>
> *T4: Explaining the subject matter in English is difficult. Just like teaching in Vietnamese, with the more able students, they just understand right away. But with the less able students, you have to repeat again and again. Searching for a correct proportion of English and Vietnamese is also difficult. The objective of CLIL is to help students use English for Mathematics, but students also need to understand the lessons, and feel interested.*
>
> *T5: But for some other teachers, they have no choice. There are four gifted high schools in Hanoi. In each of these schools, there must be a certain number of teachers who teach CLIL. Some of the teachers are obliged to do CLIL even though they do not like it. They are not qualified enough. They do not feel comfortable when they are forced to do CLIL; they do not feel confident. Sometimes the students may laugh at the teacher when he/she speaks English badly, not as well as the students. This is a reality.*

Another difficulty mentioned by some teachers was the insufficient training in the CLIL methodology. This was well covered in the interviews with Teacher 1 and Teacher 5.

> *[How would you evaluate your first impression and experience with CLIL?]*
> *T1: [Laughs] Uhm, worried, nervous, I had to 'feel my way', without any instructions... like someone who is walking in the dark without knowing what is in the dark. But then I felt that I could do it, and I found some way to do it. For example, I understand that CLIL is not like teaching mathematics in English. The first thing is to make students know what we learn in Vietnam and what they learn in other countries, and how we study and how they study. It is very meaningful to answer these questions. It is not like the teacher is 'showing off'. Students will never understand anything if the teachers speak English all the time. The teachers should speak both English and Vietnamese.*
>
> *[How do you evaluate the difficulty of these tasks as a CLIL teacher?]*
> *T5: Organising a CLIL lesson is difficult. This CLIL lesson is half science lesson, half English lesson. I am just a science teacher; I'm not used to organising a language lesson. I think that language lessons have specific features. I am inexperienced in this. […] I think that there are many obstacles to extending the use of CLIL methodology. The biggest obstacle is the teacher.*

> *There are very few teachers who are qualified for CLIL. Ideally, the school should send teachers abroad to observe how foreign teachers teach [maths].*

8.3.2.2. Beliefs about age and training

An important theme that emerged was 'age'. Teachers had a perception that learning something new was a privilege of younger teachers, not the older ones. This was well presented in the interviews with Teacher 1 and Teacher 6.

> *T1: To be honest, retraining the current teachers is just a 'surface' treatment. In order to improve the situation, it is important to train new teachers from the start. That is the root. The current teachers are 'hard'. They are 'permanent' teachers, they themselves do not have the need to change. And in fact, it is impossible to change them, so it is important to train new teachers. The pedagogical colleges need to recruit students and train them so that they can become CLIL teachers for the future. Each college even needs to open a specialist class in mathematics in English [for high school level], everyone is interested in specialist classes. Then, these students need to continue to be trained at college level.*

> *T6: I was assigned to teach CLIL because I had just got a Master's degree, and they said that my knowledge was still fresh. Also, other teachers are already old. […] I think that in order for this CLIL project to work, teachers must be officially trained by the university to teach in two languages. I've heard that Hanoi University of Education has offered this kind of training course from this year. This would be much better. For us, we have to teach and study at the same time, that just doesn't work.*

> *T7: I think that in order for this CLIL to work nationwide, the Ministry of Education and Training has to prepare a good source of CLIL teachers. Also, the materials must be sufficient. The Ministry of Education and Training must provide a curriculum backbone that teachers can refer to.*

8.3.2.3. Little guidance or instruction

As mentioned earlier, CLIL teachers had absolute autonomy in their lessons. They decided what to teach and how to teach, and there was even no evaluation (at UBS1 and UBS2). This was considered to be a 'motivating factor' for some teachers. For some others, this was considered to be a demotivating factor, at least at the beginning, since the lack of guidance and instructions might turn into a demotivating factor. Theories of the selves, mentioned in Trang and Baldauf (2007), and mainstream research on the selves (Dörnyei, 2009a) insist that guidance and evaluation are of paramount importance for the development of the teachers' identity and motivation.

> *[How would you evaluate your first impression and experience with CLIL?]*
> *T1: [Laughs] Uhm, worried, nervous, I had to 'feel my way', without any instructions... like someone who is walking in the dark without knowing what is in the dark…*
> *T5: I only use 'Campbell Biology' as the textbook. We have to find the materials ourselves. There are four gifted high schools under the [purview of the] Hanoi Department of Education and Training. Teachers in these schools find the materials and share them. Each teacher is in charge of a part. There is no official curriculum, requirements, or evaluations whatsoever assigned by the Ministry of Education and Training. We have to manage all by ourselves. It is very difficult. At least for CLIL Mathematics, there is a textbook.*

8.3.2.4. Few financial incentives for CLIL teachers at school

As mentioned in the first chapters, Vietnamese teachers' salary is very low (around 200 euros per month for newly-recruited teachers and around 400 euros per month for senior ones). In the big cities, teachers cannot survive on this salary alone; therefore, it is a common practice that teachers have other extra classes outside school to support themselves. CLIL teachers are no exception. CLIL lessons may be paid better than 'normal' lessons. However, this amount is still not adequate. This is one demotivating factor for teachers when teaching CLIL.

> *T1: Teachers in general, not me, do not receive decent salaries or any incentives when teaching CLIL, so why waste their time and energies to study and teach CLIL? For me, for example, I can earn much more if I give preparation courses for the entrance exam, whereas the time and the amount of work needed for CLIL is much more. When you do just fine to teach just mathematics in Vietnamese, you won't bother learning new things (without better income or incentives). When teachers don't have the motivation, they won't learn to teach CLIL, and they cannot teach CLIL as a matter of fact... So the bottom line is the policy. In Vietnam, what matters is the policy. CLIL teachers do not receive any incentives. Then they have to train themselves for CLIL, improve their language skills. Only the mad do so. Therefore, it is very hard to find CLIL teachers. So we often call CLIL a 'solitary subject'. I have only love for it. But only when we have good [financial] conditions can we can afford to pursue our love. But the thing is that this comes when we are old, and when we are old, we cannot study languages. I know there are a lot of teachers who want to do CLIL, but they are too old to study a foreign language. The younger*

> *teachers need to earn money to support themselves, and they cannot earn money by doing CLIL.*
>
> *T3: The payment for CLIL lessons is twice as much as Vietnamese lessons, but in fact, I don't care much about the payment.*
>
> *T4: But what the school can do now is to create financial advantage for CLIL teachers. Also, the school should have some way to encourage the enthusiastic teachers to continue to be enthusiastic.*

In summary, CLIL teachers were intrinsically motivated to teach CLIL as they perceived the meaningfulness of the task, they considered CLIL as a challenge to take on, and also they enjoyed great autonomy in the work. On the other hand, insufficient self-ability, a lack of guidance and few financial incentives appeared to be demotivating factors for CLIL teachers.

8.4. STUDENTS' MOTIVATION (AS PERCEIVED BY THE TEACHERS)

As stated earlier, the relationship between teacher and student motivation is an interactive one that can either be positively or negatively synergistic. How the teachers perceived their students' motivation to learn is also an important factor in maintaining their own motivation to teach. Although no question in the interview guide asked directly about the students' motivation, it appeared to be an important theme in the interviews. The four sub-themes that developed in the interviews are: (1) a lack of intrinsic motivation, (2) urgency, (3) external demands and (4) difficulty.

8.4.1. The lack of intrinsic motivation

The teachers in general felt that the students didn't have or had low motivation to learn CLIL as it only benefited a small number of the students. To the teachers, 'motivation' meant 'an external demand'. Intrinsic motivation, or the pure pleasure to learn in and of itself, is something strange in the Vietnamese culture of teaching and learning. There must always be 'a reward', or 'an exam' to study for. This is well illustrated in the teachers' interviews.

> *T1: There are many difficulties. The root of all of them is the motivation of the teachers and the students. Teachers do not have the motivation to teach CLIL*

> *and students do not have the motivation to learn CLIL either. When you don't have the motivation, you cannot do anything... Students don't have the motivation to study, either. They do not know why they should study mathematics in English. Not all students have the intention to study abroad huh?*
>
> *T2: I find it difficult to motivate students because in Vietnam, CLIL is not obligatory in the sense that there are no incentives for students who do CLIL. So there must be some policies so that students have the need to do CLIL. […] As I said before, students lack the motivation for CLIL so their responses to CLIL lessons are not as good as lessons in Vietnamese.*
>
> *T3: If learners' responses to lessons in Vietnamese is rated 10/10, then I would give their responses to CLIL lessons 3/10. This is because not all students are motivated to study in English, and also, their English level is mixed.*
>
> *T4: I find it most difficult to motivate students to do CLIL because not many students have the need to study Mathematics in English. Only the ones who have intentions to study abroad have the need to do CLIL. In my class, there are about 20% of students who have the intention to study abroad. The others may be interested in CLIL at first. However, in the long term, they will lose interest when there is no demand. It is like when you buy some item of [warm] clothing. You find it beautiful. You wear it when it is cold. At first, you might also wear it when it is not very cold. However, some days later, when it is not very cold either, you won't wear it. […] The main weakness of CLIL is that it is very difficult to motivate students because CLIL in our school is imposed on students, there is little demand for it.*

This seems to contradict the results of the students' questionnaire, where the students said that the concept of CLIL was the most motivating factor (see Section 6.4.7.1). This seems also to contradict what Teacher 5 found in her CLIL lessons. It appeared, in her answers, that the students did in fact take an interest in some aspects of the CLIL lessons.

> *T5: Sometimes, I find some videos of mathematics lectures on the internet, where a professor explains and writes symbols on board at the same time. I find that students can understand those lectures and they are interested in watching them also. […] The only thing I can say is that students are most interested in listening to native speakers, watching videos. Students are also interested in solving mathematics problems in the Olympic contests. So I often find suitable problems in those contests for them. […] My objective is to make students feel interested, maybe they do not need to fully understand or learn something new. I have observed many other teachers' lessons. And I found that a lot of students*

> *were doing private things; they didn't pay attention to what the teacher was saying. So at the moment, my objective is to make students feel interested, pay attention and participate in the lesson. […] CLIL helps mathematics lessons be less 'boring'. Mathematics lessons in Vietnamese are quite 'dry' [boring]. But in CLIL lessons, students watch videos, and that is more interesting. Students have the chance to compare the two educational systems. They know how something is defined in another language. I find CLIL very interesting and useful.*

8.4.2. Urgency

On the same lines, Teacher 3 explained that the students did have the need to study English; however, this need was not as urgent as the need to be accepted to college. Entering a university is a unique opportunity, whereas 'learning English' can wait until later. Therefore, the students were not very motivated to improve their English, whether using CLIL or not.

> *T3: It is most difficult to motivate students to study as the students themselves do not feel the urgent need to study in English. There are only a few students who wish to study abroad who are motivated to do CLIL. In a class of 30-40 students, there are about 4-5 students who have that intention. Others, although they know the importance of English, think that it is not urgent. They can study later, when they are at college. Now, the most important goal is to enter university first.*

8.4.3. External demands/extrinsic motivation

For the teachers, only a small proportion of the students who had the intention to study abroad were motivated to study CLIL. They had the need to study in English in order to pass SAT exams or to better integrate themselves in their new countries.

> *T3: One thing I can tell is that students in my private centre improve both mathematics and English during the course. Of course we cannot compare students in my private centre with students at this school because students in my centre have their specific goal of studying abroad and they pay for the courses and they are motivated.*

In order for the CLIL project to work for everybody, the teachers proposed various ways to promote CLIL. All of them involved creating an external demand for CLIL: create specialised CLIL classes (Teacher 1), create competitions and examinations (Teachers 1 and 3), and incorporate a small proportion of CLIL questions in the national examinations.

> *T1: Each college even needs to open a specialist class in Mathematics in English [for high school level], everyone is interested in specialist classes. Then, these students need to continue to be trained at college level. […] Secondly, in the national examination, there should be some kind of 'incentive' for students who do mathematics in English. This is important because the Vietnamese education system is examination-oriented. When CLIL is part of the national examination, then all students have the need to study it. Teachers also have the need to improve themselves for it.*

> *T3: I find all these steps important. The most important step may be to organise a school competition with CLIL tasks. As for Vietnamese people, examinations are important factors to motivate learning. Vietnamese people study to test/to take exams. In my private centre, students have the intention to study abroad, so they study hard to take the [SAT] test. […] However, in order to promote CLIL, as I said before, Vietnamese students only study what is [will be] tested, so it is important that the Ministry of Education and Training, and the schools also organise CLIL competitions, examinations. The prizes should be recognised. In fact, I have presented my ideas at conferences that, in the national examinations, 1/10 points should be for CLIL questions. In that way, students would be motivated to do CLIL.*

This is directly in line with the results of the students' questionnaire, where the students from CBS3 seemed to be better motivated than their peers from the UBSs, where there is no evaluation for the CLIL courses.

8.4.4. Difficulty/low achievers

The very first remarks on this theme are that the students have little difficulty with the content, according to the teachers, since the content of the CLIL lessons is simple. Besides, the students in the CLIL project are gifted students and most of them are specialists in the content domains. They have good cognitive skills, too.

> *T3: In fact, the content of CLIL programme is no more difficult than that of Vietnamese, so it is not a problem for my students.*

> *T5: In fact, there is no problem for students in terms of content. The content in CLIL lessons is easy to understand. It is even easier for students specialised in Mathematics. Even the worst students in the class find it easy. Of course,*

> *sometimes I give them more difficult mathematical problems, but most of the time, the content of CLIL lessons is easy.*
>
> *T6: This class is the class specialised in Biology, so students are very good at Biology. They have no difficulty with Biology. There may be some students whose English is not as good as the others. However, in general, there is no problem.*
>
> *T7: In fact, the content of CLIL lessons is not difficult. I only choose the content that is taught to normal students, so it is simple for gifted students. Students have difficulties* ***only with English, not with Chemistry.***

The difficulties in terms of language learning have already been pointed out and discussed earlier in this chapter – the use and the role of language in CLIL, the difficulties posed by the terminology due to the different nature of the first language and the target language, the limited use of the target language due to the absence of 'language for learning' in CLIL lessons, and the students' mixed ability in English.

However, the teachers did not actually seem to care about doing much in order to integrate the students with more difficulties. This is a very important finding, as the low achievers seemed to be left behind in the educational process. It is a common practice in Vietnam that teachers teach 'the curriculum', not the students. That is to say, managing to cover all the content of the lesson plan is the priority, not students' improvements. The fact that CLIL teachers rely on well-established goals and procedures behave in exactly the same way as in traditional teaching, although they are entirely free to decide on their programme or teaching methods, shows that they are still at the stage of assimilation (Piaget, 1970).

> *I: What strategies did you use to integrate students with more difficulties in terms of language?*
> *T1: Actually, to say that 100% of students understand the lesson is impossible. My objective is for 70% of students to understand. The rest, they have to try their best themselves. In other words, I teach for about 50% of the students with average understanding. Students who are worse have to try their best, and students who are better have to find additional work themselves. I do not teach for the worst students. That way, I would ruin the whole class.*
>
> *T2: The students' level of English is mixed. However, their reading skills are good, because they are gifted students. So I can solve the problem easily by giving them the reading text and learning materials beforehand. Often they don't have any difficulty in understanding the reading texts. Of course, their speaking skills are varied. Some of them speak very well, others not so well.*

> *T3: I can only provide general help like that. For specific students, it is impossible. They have to try hard themselves. I can only do all my responsibilities for that within 1-2 hours per week. […] It is very difficult to evaluate [whether students can achieve the course objective or not]. There is a group of students who study very well, they actively participate in the lessons. Also, there is another group, who do not study. It is difficult to evaluate this group.*
>
> *T4: In fact, our duty is quite limited. You know, we have a very short time in class. For students with more difficulties in terms of English, I provide them with more learning materials, more homework. We also encourage them to speak more even though their English is not perfect.*
> *T7: In fact, it is a difficult problem, and I haven't found any solutions yet. It is one of the difficulties when teaching in English. In my class, there are four or five students whose English is very poor. They seem not to understand anything in my CLIL lessons. I don't know what to do yet.*

In summary, the teachers held a belief that the students could not be intrinsically motivated to study CLIL. In order to motivate the students to adopt a CLIL methodology, it was necessary to create external demands, e.g. by creating competitions, examinations, etc. Also, the demand for learning English was not high in the high school students, who have a more urgent need to enter university. Lastly, the low achievers are often left behind in the educational process.

8.5. SUMMARY

The interviews with CLIL teachers revealed a number of important results. Firstly, the use of English in the CLIL lessons was still limited due to the limited English ability of both the teachers and the students, as well as the time constraints, which seemed to confirm the *threshold hypothesis* (Cummins, 1979, p.229; Zydatib, 2012, p.26) and Bruton's argument (2010; 2013). In addition, of the three aspects of language in CLIL, 'language for learning' seemed to be absent in the CLIL practice in Vietnam. Also, the added value of CLIL was little evident in the teachers' interviews.

Secondly, regarding the teachers' motivation, CLIL teachers were intrinsically motivated to teach CLIL as they perceived the meaningfulness of the task, they considered CLIL as a challenge to take on, and also they enjoyed great autonomy in the work. On the other hand, the insufficient self-ability, the lack of guidance, their beliefs about age and L2 learning, and few financial incentives proved to be demotivating factors.

Lastly, regarding the students' motivations, there was a contradiction with the results of the students' questionnaires. While the students cited learning experience as an important motivating/demotivating factor, the teachers held a belief that the students could not be intrinsically motivated to study CLIL. According to the teachers, in order to motivate the students to adopt a CLIL methodology, it is necessary to create external demands, e.g. by creating competitions, examinations, etc. Also, the demand for learning English is not urgent among high school students, who have a more urgent need to enter university.

9.
CONCLUSION

9.1. GOOD AND BAD QUALITIES OF CLIL

Borrowing from field investigations around the world, we were able to propose a balanced synthesis of the benefits and difficulties generated by CLIL systems (Chapter 4). Further discussions following this research involve comparing our research with this model. Although the picture generated by the questionnaires and interviews remains rather blurred, some general characteristics emerge.

Table 20 – Main findings

CLIL benefits	**Our investigation**
CLIL and language attainment	
– CLIL creates an authentic communicative context, with a focus on meaning (Marsh and Langé, 2000). – Interaction in FL is very often absent in CLIL classes (Bruton, 2013). – Empirical studies prove that CLIL improves language competence (e.g. Lasagabaster, 2008; Lorenzo et al., 2007). – If the content is complicated or unfamiliar, this might hinder language development (Bruton, 2013).	– The notion of communicative content is not present, and interactions in English are very often absent. What we found is the notion of meaningful and diversified tasks. – We did not have access to the students' evaluations so we cannot answer this question. Yet students did not seem to have made a lot of progress, with a possible ceiling effect for some of them. Teachers did not acknowledge any real foreign language improvement. – A basic language level (content and skills) seems necessary for both students and teachers to master the content in a foreign language.
CLIL and culture	
– CLIL leads to greater intercultural understanding, thus better preparing students for internationalisation (Coyle et al., 2009).	– Our investigations confirm Bruton's results, since the *dispositifs* are focused on the curriculum and not on pre-professional situations.

CLIL benefits	Our investigation
– Students are particularly interested in English for its instrumentality, not the culture (Bruton, 2013).	
CLIL motivation	
– The natural use of language in CLIL can boost a youngster's motivation and hunger towards learning a language (Marsh and Langé, 2000).	– The language in CLIL classes is not everyday language. – In the majority of cases, students are motivated by the tasks rather than by the mediation of a foreign language. Their motivation strongly depends on their perceived abilities in the foreign language and on their teacher's competence and personality.

9.2. SOME ERGONOMIC RECOMMENDATIONS

The ultimate goal of our research was to provide some direction for the improvement of CLIL teaching in Vietnam. Here are a few recommendations which might be of interest to the MOET and the teaching community.

Didactical propositions

- Provide content teachers with real language training.
- Provide content teachers with real pedagogical training.
- Create teams of teachers involving both language and content teachers in order to collaboratively build up didactic strategies.
- Create work situations in which the language level of the students is taken into account.

Institutional propositions

- Establish a web network of CLIL teachers with a view to sharing their experiences and propositions, and put best practices online.
- Secure early pre-service training at university for pre-service CLIL teachers.

- Hire CLIL teachers on the basis of their free will and not compulsory decisions.
- Provide better financial rewards for those teachers who volunteer for CLIL projects.
- Encourage students and teachers to participate or initiate CLIL programmes in Asia, and support their participation in Asian conferences, internships, and study abroad programmes, with a view to promoting culturally-bound CLIL exchanges and debates.

9.3. FURTHER RESEARCH

We have insisted that, with all its limitations, this research constitutes a first step towards a better knowledge of CLIL practice in Vietnam. Back in Vietnam, we plan to extend our investigations in further directions with regard to the research questions and the research methodology.

It is necessary to have a clearer picture of the diversity of CLIL *dispositifs* and practices in Vietnam. In this perspective, a national comprehensive survey could be launched, such as has been carried out by LAIRDIL in recent years (e.g. Yassine-Diab and Monnier, 2014)

The question of the interactions that take place between the content, language and actors of the *dispositif* will be at the core of our future research, as has previously been exemplified by Larue's doctoral work (2015). One of the main research questions from our research is: to what extent does the content taught in a foreign language influence the foreign language learning process?

The question of the appropriation of the *dispositif* by the learners will be addressed using Raby's cross-checking methodology through a rigorous, triangular cross-checking procedure. We are planning to observe a few classes and later to interview students and teachers, and compare these with the observations in this thesis. Eventually, we will seek to know in what way students' performances, both in content learning and foreign language learning, can enlighten our observations.

This will require building up new theoretical frameworks, calling forth some epistemological reflections concerning the relationships between content and language in CLIL training (Chaplier, 2015; Chaplier and O'Connell, 2015) and in Vietnam. In particular, new perspectives on language learning as being culturally-bound are required (Carton et al., 2015).

As a matter of fact, the bulk of research on motivation around the world is culturally bound by western boundaries. Independently from the country they come from or from the theories that have developed, leading figures are overwhelmingly Anglo-Saxons. Consequently, they put forward concepts such as 'internality' and 'selves' as the key words and mottos of motivation. However, recent studies carried out by Asian authors have shown that, because of a cultural bias, those western theories or models may very well miss the point when addressing an Asian public. Some authors have stressed the fact that, in many Asian countries (not all of them, of course), teaching finds its philosophical roots in Confucianism, which still penetrates the hearts and minds of the people. This is particularly true in Vietnam, where external pressures such as the parents' or staff's demands have been so deeply internalised from the start that the 'internality' versus 'externality' dichotomy has partly lost its interpretative power (see Chapters 1 and 2). In this context, attribution theories, for instance, so important for understanding the maintenance or collapse of motivation, also need some revision (Gobel et al., 2016).

For the same reasons, the distinction between all the 'selves' – 'ought to be selves', 'idealised selves', even 'possible selves' – as dynamic systems (Dörnyei et al., 2014) may not be relevant. The debate is in full swing and has fostered a new concept: the WEIRD concept.

> *The fact that most motivation studies take place in WEIRD (western, educated, industrialised, rich and democratic) countries raises the question of whether any of the existing theories of motivation apply in 'non-WEIRD' cultural contexts (Henrich et al., 2010). (Fellner et al., 2017, p.2).*

With this in mind, our reflections will also include teachers' perspectives, especially those on the professional and cultural identity of Vietnamese teachers and its impact on their CLIL motivation.

To conclude on our future research perspectives, lessons from the present research encourage us to implement a rigorous methodology, interdisciplinary collaborations and user-based investigations, which make up the basis of an ergonomic approach that is always more focused on improving work situations than producing scientific universal truths. We are very aware of the main challenge that lies ahead: learning and teaching processes, *dispositifs*, can no longer be studied in a 'determinist' paradigm, as stressed by Complex Dynamic System Theories. As a matter of fact, and as summed up by de Bot and Larsen-Freeman, "if the process is nonlinear, how is possible to make any predictions that are likely to hold up?" or "if everything is interconnected, how is it possible to study anything apart from everything else?" (de Bot and Larsen-Freeman, 2011, p.18). To face this challenge, rather than going directly into the field, in the first stage, we are planning to implement CLIL simulations (during teacher training periods) in order to describe and understand the interactions fostered by CLIL in controlled situations. This will give rise to micro-analyses of short video sequences of CLIL teaching, and data will be analysed in the framework of highly dynamic environments (Raby, 2009). In so doing, we hope to be able to elicit and interpret different interactions which combine in the *dispositif*.

10.
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TITRE : Enseignement d'une Matière Intégrée à une Langue Etrangère : Evolution des perceptions des étudiants et des enseignants dans une dispositif innovant

Résumé

Cette recherche porte sur un dispositif d'enseignement d'une langue étrangère innovant au Vietnam, de type EMILE (Enseignement d'une matière intégrée à une langue étrangère) et promu par Le Ministère de l'éducation et de la formation en 2008. IL s'agit d'une recherche exploratoire et qualitative visant à extraire les représentations d'élèves de 1ère et 2ème année au lycée. Un premier questionnaire administré au début de la mise en œuvre de l'EMILE porte sur leurs perceptions/motivations au sujet de l'anglais en général, les cours d'anglais et les cours de type EMILE. Un deuxième questionnaire a été administré après une année et demi de pratique de l'EMILE. Parallèlement, les enseignants de spécialité qui participaient au dispositif EMILE, ont été interviewés. Le traitement des données a permis de confronter les perceptions des élèves et des enseignants à propos du dispositif innovant et d'en identifier les qualités et les défauts. Les résultats soulignent le décalage qui existe entre la perception des potentialités du dispositif et les nombreux obstacles concrets qui entravent leurs réalisations.

Mots clefs : EMILE, English language learning, perceptions, motivation, Asia, innovation

TITLE: Content and Language Integrated Learning in Vietnam: Evolution of Students' and Teachers' Perceptions in an Innovative Foreign Language Learning System

Abstract

The present research examines Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), an innovative language learning system in Vietnam launched by the Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training in 2008. This exploratory, qualitative investigation was first centred on the perceptions of high school students, obtained through two questionnaires. The first one was administered at the outset of the CLIL implementation, with a view to identifying their perceptions about and motivations for English in general, English as a Foreign Language and CLIL. A second questionnaire was administered after a year and a half of CLIL practice to evaluate potential motivational changes. At the same time, the content teachers of the project who taught their speciality in English were interviewed. Data processing made it possible to cross-check students' and teachers' perceptions of CLIL, its assets and its drawbacks. The results point out the discrepancy which exists between the perceived didactic potentialities of CLIL and the many concrete impediments that hamper their full realization. In the wake of this survey, some recommendations are made to improve CLIL implementation in Vietnam, particularly with regard to the content teachers' training in the foreign language.

Keywords: Content and Language Integrated Learning, English language learning, perceptions, motivation, Asia, innovation

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Discipline : Didactique des langues
Unité de recherche : LAIRDIL – Laboratoire Interuniversitaire de Recherche en Didactique Lansad

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