Content-based learning projects

A way to enhance motivation in the foreign language classroom?

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Abstract

Motivation is by many considered to be a crucial factor when learning a language. However, motivation is also a complex psychological system. Hence, motivation in language learning also generates a series of questions. This review considers the possibilities of enhanced motivation in Content-based Learning Projects (CBLP). CBLP is used as an umbrella term for Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), Content-based Instruction (CBI) and Project-based learning (PBL), which are all considered in the review. Definitions considering immersion, CLIL, CBI, PBL, motivation as well as language learning theories of motivation are included. The research overview presents research conducted in the field of motivation and CBLP. Moreover, the results from the research are examined and described. The results show positive effects on the enhancement of motivation, however, with a few exceptions. Finally, suggestions for future research are put forth.
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1 Introduction

Research on language motivation proposes that a language learner, regardless of aptitude or level of proficiency, gains from motivation and accelerates students’ target-language development if a sufficient level of motivation is acquired (Wigfield & Wentzler, 2007). Thus, it is important to look at how to enhance motivation amongst language learners. It is accepted, although no empirical studies can prove it, that motivation is a key factor when one is acquiring a foreign language (FL). Hence, the difficulty for teachers, students and researchers is to find the construct of motivation. This is easier said than done, since motivation is a complex phenomenon (Nicholson, 2013).

The research on motivation in the field of foreign language learning (FLL) is extensive and a huge amount of variables have been accounted for. However, the effect of specific FLL projects on language learning motivation is a branch of knowledge yet to be thoroughly researched.

I am interested in how motivation in language learning can be enhanced through different projects. Therefore, the focus of this review will be directed towards different projects and how they can enhance language learning motivation amongst the students. However, the research on motivation in language learning in Sweden is scarce, why the studies in this review is taken from a wide range of different locations.

Backgrounds, regarding motivation and the different concepts used in content-based projects, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), Project-based Learning (PBL) and Content-based Instruction (CBI), are incorporated (see 1.2.2). The review looks at the research in the field. A discussion regarding implications and conclusions drawn is included as well as a wish for future research. Furthermore, for the sake of the review, Content-based Learning Projects (CBLP) will in the discussion be used as an umbrella term for CLIL, PBL and CBI. Furthermore, the background of immersion teaching is included. The concept of CLIL emerged as a direct consequence of immersion teaching in Canada (Sylvén, 2010), and several studies in the review considers CLIL and language learning motivation.

[CLIL – Content and language integrated learning, CBI – Content-based instruction, PBL – Project-based learning, FLL – Foreign language learning, L2 – Second language, CBLP – Content-based learning projects]
1.1 Aim
The aim of this review is to examine research on motivation in *content-based learning projects* (CBLP) in FLL and to see if there are arguments for this kind of learning to enhance motivation.

1.2 Definitions of terms

1.2.1 Immersion

Björklund (2012) states, that he first time the term *immersion education* was used, was during the 1960s in Canada. A new program for language learners of French was launched. One could see that, when teaching in the target language, a higher proficiency was achieved without having any cost for the students’ first language development. To explain immersion, one can divide it into four essential features.

First, the definition of an immersion program is that it is an additive program, which goal is to upgrade the students’ bilingual competence. Most immersion programs focus on the local/regional populations’ perception of the necessity of the language in the program and how it might help them in, for example, the job market and the everyday life. Hence, “[…] most immersion programs are set up as *second language immersion programs* (e.g., French immersion in Canada, Welsh immersion in Great Britain, Swedish immersion in Finland)” (Björklund, 2012, p. 1). However, there are also *foreign-language immersion programs*. These kinds of programs focus on getting the students more of a global multilingual future (ibid).

The second feature of immersion is, that it is defined through that it is the medium in a number of subjects. Genesee (2004) proclaims that, a criterion for a program to be an immersion program is that “[…] at least 50% of the prescribed non-language-related curriculum of studies for one or more years” (p. 549). This is an important aspect, since many other *content-based instruction* (CBI) programs or *content and language integrated learning* (CLIL) do not automatically have this long-term criterion in their definitions (Björklund, 2012).

Third, the majority of immersion classes are linguistically homogenous groups (i.e. monolingual students who’s mother tongue is the language the majority of the population shares in the respective regions). However, there are exceptions in several cases (Björklund, 2012).
Fourth, immersion programs are optional, that is, it is up to the students and the parents to choose if one want to partake in an immersion program. This has led to that immersion programs often have motivated and high-achieving students (Björklund, 2012).

Lastly, it is important for the sake of this review to emphasize the differences between immersion and the concepts used in the studies included in this text. Although, immersion is the foundation on which CBI, CLIL and project-based learning (PBL) rest upon there are fundamental disparities. CLIL and immersion are both optional and long-term programmes that the students choose to partake in, however, the major difference here is that CLIL does not have to include 50% of the non-language-related curriculum, but only one or a few subjects. The difference to PBL is that it is not optional for the student to partake, if the teacher chooses to initiate a PBL project, the students in the class will have to partake. Often, a PBL project does not come anywhere near the longitudinal character that an immersion program has.

1.2.2 CLIL, CBI, PBL, FLL and L2

Deriving from the successful implementation of immersion teaching in Canada in the mid-1960s, which has been followed up and monitored closely, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) teaching in Europe is a lot less researched compared to the studies in Canada. However, it is now an ever-growing field of research (Sylvén, 2010). The main focus in CLIL is described by Sylvén (2010): “The overall aim of the CLIL method is to integrate the learning of content matter, for instance mathematics, with the acquisition of another language. In many cases the target language (TL) is English, but it could be any language” (Sylvén, 2010, p 11). Some regions in Spain have made some extensive changes in their educational system. The concept of CLIL has been tried and the implementation has been quite successful (Sylvén, 2013). In the Netherlands CLIL education has become increasingly popular since the beginning of the 1990s. Belgium and Luxemburg each has a long tradition of schools where the language medium is not the mother tongue of the students’ (Sylvén, 2010).

According to Iakovos (2011) Content-based Instruction (CBI) is increasingly used in education and second language (L2) teaching and learning. In CBI, there is a focus on content and what that might do for the appropriation of the subject and to aid the learning. Grabe and Stoller (1997) encourage CBI in schools and argue that it covers all four language skills, that is reading, writing, speaking and listening. This might seem as an obvious point, since most other language learning theories have to defer to this as well. Relying on the research of Singer (1990) and Anderson (1990) Iakovos (2011) argues that students’ learning can be more
easily facilitated if they can organise the new information thematically, something CBI would enable students to do, if used correctly. Furthermore, meaningful information is easier processed, which in turn leads to a deeper understanding and meta-cognitive processing. CBI, according to Iakovos (2011), also leads to more interested and motivated students. Without sounding too biased, there are some interesting aspects put forth by Iakovos.

As cited in Iakovos (2011), Becket (2006) argues that a natural step from CBI is the integration of Project-based Learning (PBL). PBL is a concept deriving from the research and theory of Dewey and Kilpatrick (Iakovos, 2011). Within the concept of PBL, students should learn how to track solutions to problems by asking questions, discuss ideas, make predictions, collect and examine information, draw conclusions, ask more questions and finally create a final product, commonly referred to as an artefact (Blumenfeld et al, 1991). The problem the students investigate should not be a nontrivial problem, but a problem that is complex and takes time to answer. The students can be the creators of the research question and also responsible for the way they want to present it and how they want to conduct the activities. However, the conclusions and products of the question can in no way be predetermined. What the students embark on is a journey over a longer period of time than a regular school assignment, and it should be at least two or three weeks. The artefacts created, are the students’ final products and can be anything from a review or an article to a movie or a play. Since they are specific and explicit they can be assessed and critiqued by their peers and their teachers (ibid).

As mentioned, the problems are nontrivial and should be constructed so that students can contextualise them into real-life situations or problems and they should not be exclusively in-school material. They should be able to see the problems in their daily life, which in turn evoke a satisfactory feeling of purpose (Blumenfeld et al, 1991).

There is a richness to a good project that can be exploited by teachers and students. Projects can increase student interest because they involve students in solving authentic problems, in working with others, and in building real solutions (artifacts). Projects have the potential to enhance deep understanding because students need to acquire and apply information, concepts, and principles, and they have the potential to improve competence in thinking (learning and metacognition) because students need to formulate plans, track progress, and evaluate solutions.

(Blumenfeld et al, 1991, p. 373)
It should be mentioned that PBL originally derives from the sciences with case studies in medicine. From there, it has developed and tried out in different settings of learning. However, in comparison to the sciences it is quite seldom used in language learning.

Moreover, in this review foreign language learning (FLL) is used because of the variety of languages used in the different studies. However, the lion part of the review consists of studies on English as a foreign language (EFL) and in those, respective, studies EFL will be used.

Furthermore, second language (L2) is, in this review, used as a language you learn after your mother tongue. This is important since, some, researchers define it as a language needed to live your every day life. In, for example, India English is a language you need to know in order to be able to deal with institutions such as hospitals, the police, government etcetera, although your first language might be Hindi. This is not the definition used in this review.

1.2.3 Motivation

Researchers and other professionals (e.g. teachers) sometimes refer to the concept of motivation as something taken for granted, that is they use it in such a way which makes it difficult to pinpoint what aspect of motivation is being addressed. Just motivation, Dörnyei (1998) argues, is an insufficient term and needs to be specified.

It also happens that researchers take the concept of motivation for granted and refer to it without specifying in what sense they use the term: as affect? cognition? motivated behaviour? a personality trait? some kind of a process? mental energy? inner force or power? attitudinal complex? set of beliefs? stimulus appraisal? behavioural response to stimuli? directional choice? abstraction? latent, aggregated concept? or simply the score of motivation tests?

(Dörnyei 1998, p. 118)

The research on motivation originated in the study of psychology and the major part of the research, hence, derives from that field (Dörnyei, 1998). In order to understand our latest view on motivation in L2 learning, Dörnyei stipulates what language is and gives us three different explanations: a communication coding system; an integral part of the individual’s identity and a channel of social organisation. A communication coding system is something that can be acquired in school and learnt, such as grammar, formal language, vocabulary etcetera. An integral part of the individual’s identity refers to that language is something which defines you and contributes to one’s identity and person. Finally, language is something which is
rooted in our culture and contributes to our relations with others. Since language is complex we need to be careful when approaching motivation that has to do with it in order to not use it incorrectly. Subsequently, language is fundamentally different from other subjects. Also, language bares strong connection to culture and identity in general and that could be a motivating factor and an opportunity for the teacher to motivate his/her students.

In motivational psychology it is expectancy-value theories that have caught the most resonance during the last decades beginning with Atkinson’s research on achievement motivation theory in the 1970s (Dörnyei, 1998). Expectancy value theory contains two key factors, the expectancy of success when approaching a given task and the value that the individual connects to the task if carried out successfully. Hence, if either of these two principles are missing it is unlikely that one will invest time and effort in order to complete the given task.

Within expectancy of success lies three components that are of greater value from an educational point of view, namely: attribution theory which entails the individuals processing of past experiences; self-efficacy theory which has to do with how one judges one’s own skills and capabilities; and finally how to uphold one’s selfesteem which is called self-worth theory (Dörnyei, 1998). The main point in attribution theory is that one’s past affects how we take on future endeavours. Past failures will be ascribed into future or present tasks. Furthermore, relying on Weiner’s research Dörnyei (1998) explains how stable and uncontrollable factors such as one’s ability further lowers or heightens the expectancy of accomplishment in contrast to factors one can control such as how much effort and time one is willing to invest in the task at hand. Self-efficacy is the judgement one has on one’s own competences or the belief in being able to succeed. Hence, people with a high level of self-efficacy are more likely to go about a problem in a problem-based manner rather than a self-diagnostic manner. Consequently, people with a low level of self-efficacy might see difficulties in a task as a personal threat and concentrate on personal deficiencies instead of focusing on the problem and possible solutions to it. Self-worth has to do with self-confidence and ability. It is common that, in a school setting, students try to camouflage their low ability for others by not studying the amount of hours required for a test in order to fail a task with “honour” or conversely hide the amount of time invested in a task in order to show high ability to their peers or teacher (ibid).

When it comes to the value component of the expectancy-value theory, four different components are put forth: attainment value; extrinsic value; intrinsic value; and cost (Eccles & Wigfield, 1995). Attainment value has to do with subjective feelings towards the task at
hand, how important it is for you and what need/s it is going to fulfil. *Extrinsic value* refers to how beneficial and practical the task will be for oneself in future situations. There are many examples of how *extrinsic value* often seems to be the commonest motivational factor in educational situations, whereas *intrinsic value* is the pleasure and satisfaction the task generates. The last component, *cost*, is the negative feelings a task brings about, for example effort, how time consuming a task is and what negative emotions it will generate (Dörnyei, 1998). Furthermore, *extrinsic value* has been shown to undermine and eradicate natural intrinsic curiosity for example compulsory reading in school. Although, there are circumstances when extrinsic motivation can be combined with intrinsic motivation. There are even cases when extrinsic motivation can lead to intrinsic motivation. This has been shown by Deci and Ryan (1985) who introduced the *self-determination theory* (SDT). To fertilize intrinsic motivation, *SDT* focuses on competence, relationships/relatedness and autonomy. According to Ryan and Deci (2000), these three needs, appear to, foster intrinsic motivation amongst learners.

Locke and Krishof (1996) report on meta-analyses of over 400 studies, which unambiguously show that goals that are both specific and difficult lead to higher performance than do vague goals or goals that are specific but easy. Through Locke’s and Latham’s (1994) *theory of goal-setting*, Dörnyei (1998) unveils this theory as important in L2 learning. He argues that passing certain goals (i.e. exams, projects etc.) can have a strong impact on students’ L2 motivation since the primary goal is rather distant (i.e. mastering the L2) and passing these “sub-goals” will generate a feeling of progress.

### 1.2.3.1 Language learning theories of motivation

In the field of second and foreign language learning motivation Gardner, Lambert and Dörnyei are the main names to consider. The former two initiated the research on second and foreign language learning motivation by studying Canadian students and their motivation when learning a new language. With their study, Gardner and Lambert (1959) lay the foundation of instrumental and integrative motivation, their study is described in more detail in 2.1. Relying on the research of Gardner and Lambert, Littlewood (1984) explains how these two relate their research to two types of motivation, namely: *integrative* and *instrumental* motivation. A learner with integrative motivation wants to learn the language in order to communicate with people speaking the specific language, and the learner has a genuine interest in the language community and culture. A learner with instrumental motivation, however, wants to learn the language in order to fulfil other goals such as
studying abroad, or maybe has work related needs and therefore has to learn the language. The latter one, Dörnyei, could on the basis of the former two develop the field of research which is now more complex than ever. Through an extensive study on Hungarian students, Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) is able to question Gardner’s theory of integrative motivation and states that it is out-dated in the modern globalized world. Dörnyei’s and Csizér’s study is also described in more detail in 2.1.

The latest theory in L2 motivational psychology is a theory put forth by Dörnyei (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009), which is called the L2 Self. It can be broken down into three components, the Ideal L2 Self, the Ought-to L2 Self and the L2 Learning Experience. The ideal L2 Self represents all the qualities a person would like to enjoy. If mastering a L2 is something a person would like to be able to do and to be active and proficient in the L2, the person can be described as having an integrative motivation. The Ought-to L2 Self is something that is similar to being extrinsically motivated. That is, something one should possess in order to circumvent negative outcomes or to reach a goal because of one’s perceptions of what other people request or wish, such as parents, teachers or a significant other. The L2 Learning Experience has to do with factors, directly associated with the learning environment and the person’s experience of the same. This could be the classroom, textbooks, tasks, the teacher etcetera.

Even though, Dörnyei challenges parts of the traditional language learning motivation theories (i.e. integrative motivation) it is still a fundamental part in the research conducted. Hence, both Dörnyei’s theory of the L2 Self and Gardner’s and Lambert’s work, which lead to integrative and instrumental motivation, is considered in the review.

Furthermore, achievement theory is, as mentioned before, the foundation on which several other theories of motivation is based on. However, for the sake of the limited size of this review, and the broad area of achievement theory, there will be no greater focus on this theory in the review.

2 Research overview

2.1 Trendsetting research

R. Gardner’s and W. Lambert’s study on English-speaking Canadian students was the study that first put language learning motivation as a subject on the map of research. The study consisted of 76 English-speaking high school students taking French courses (Lambert & Gardner, 1959). This study gave birth to the concepts of instrumental and integrative
motivation. Moreover, one found that integrative motivation seemed to enhance the language learning motivation more, as opposed to instrumental motivation. However, generalizing this study might prove difficult since cultural aspects are different from time to time and from culture to culture. Instrumental motivation might prove more effective for L2 students in other cultures. As mentioned, this was the first study conducted in the subject of second language learning motivation and the concepts of instrumental and integrative motivation have been debated up to present date. The main argument against these concepts seems to be that of them being too narrow or in some cases even out-dated in today’s globalized world (Lamb, 2004).

With 8593 participants Dönyei and Csizér (2002) conducted a large-scaled survey in Hungary. The students who partook in the study were 13-14 years old and studied English. One wanted to see to what extent globalization affected motivation and concludes that it is globalization that now has language learning motivation in its grip. Furthermore, Dörnyei states that, as mentioned in 1.1.2.1., integrative motivation is no longer valid in certain areas of the world (Dörnyei, 2009). With this statement Dörnyei also makes language learning theories more complex and dynamic. Because of this extensive study, one must now consider the factor of globalization when looking at language learning motivation. However, one cannot neglect previous research on the subject.

2.2 Motivational research in CBI

In a study conducted in Southampton, McCall (2011) found that when incorporating football as content in the subject of French, motivational gains were seen amongst the students. The study was conducted on approximately 800 pupils, at the age of 12. Football as content was chosen after extensive research regarding interests among boys and girls in Southampton. The study was primarily focused on boys, since their motivation in French was seen as the most faltering. The data received, came from the answers of 634 students and the 20 teachers involved in the project. The study was a success and motivational gains were indeed seen among a majority of the students in general and amongst boys in particular.

Huang (2011) conducted a study on young learners in Taiwan, trying to see if CBI enhanced motivation in EFL. The pupils were aged from 6 to 7 and participated in a summer course. There were 25 students divided into two classes. One, which was taught on the basis of language-input and one which was taught on the basis of content-based language instruction (CBLI). The students were recorded on two occasions, week 2 and week 6. Since the pupils were young, no questionnaires were used due to the fact that the concept of
motivation was considered too hard to understand for the children of the study. Instead, the video recordings and the field notes written by the researcher were the data analysed. Furthermore, since motivation is hard to pinpoint without questionnaires, the general attention, on the teacher and the task at hand, of the students were monitored. The results show no sign of more motivation amongst any of the two groups, although, the group in the CBLI classroom showed greater skills in constructing sentences and the use of more complex words. Furthermore, a slight difference in engagement was seen amongst the student in the CBLI class, probably due to that a class based on CBLI requires more interaction than a language-input class.

2.3 Motivational research in PBL

In a study conducted in Malaysia, Nor (2008) shows that PBL has positive effects on motivation. The study does not show motivation in the L2 (English), but rather towards the form of teaching PBL. However, the students did show instrumental motivation, in that they through PBL, to a greater extent, saw the necessity of learning English. No generalisations can be made from this study, since it contained 55 test subjects enrolled in higher education (students in engineering). Furthermore, the methodology can be questioned since it only contained questions and no interview and the questions are not shown in tables or appendix. Nevertheless, it still points towards some interesting ideas regarding PBL.

In a study conducted in Turkey, Bas (2011) states that PBL seems to have a positive effect on students’ motivational attitudes towards English courses in school. The study is based on 60 students with a mean age of 14.5 years, 55% boys and 45% girls. The students were divided into two groups, one control group and one experiment group. The control group received ordinary EFL lessons with lessons based on a textbook, whereas, the experimental group partook in lessons based on PBL. The classes were randomly picked from a larger Turkish high school and, according to previous test results, the students had similar academic achievements in English. Firstly, the students performed an academic pre-test and were to answer a questionnaire of their attitude towards English. Secondly, five weeks of lessons were held by the teacher and monitored by the researcher. Lastly, a post-test were written and a questionnaire, similar to the first one, of the students’ attitudes towards the subject was answered. The students, experimental and control group, received the same content during the study, only different methods were used. The post-tests revealed significant differences between the groups, as opposed to the pre-test, where no significant differences were distinguished. The experimental group in the study performed better academically and had
more positive attitudes towards English in school than the control group. Bas (2011) concludes that his study supports the findings in other studies (Meyer, 1997; Chen, 2006; Özdemir, 2006; Sylvester, 2007; Erdem and Akkoyunlu, 2002; Bas & Beyhan, 2010 etc.) where PBL seems to be successful for learners, not only in English but other subjects as well.

In conclusion, Bas’s study supports the use of PBL in EFL both academically and motivationally. It must be pointed out, that the results cannot be generalised since it only contains a small number of students and was conducted in a Turkish school which might diverge to other countries with different environments. Also, one has not taken any consideration to that the students’ motivation might be due to that PBL is a new learning phenomenon for the students and that the fact that it is a new way of learning makes them more interested. Not that it is PBL per se, but only something different from traditional textbook-based lessons.

Eguchi and Eguchi (2006) conducted a study in Japan, with sophomore students at the University of Shimane. There were 44 participants in the study and they belonged to a group where the proficiency level in English was low compared to their peers (there were two other groups of students taking the English course, grouped into medium and high level of proficiency). In the study the students were surveyed when being exposed to PBL based lessons and their goal was to produce a magazine in English. They finalised two magazines during the course of one semester, the first one taking two months to produce while the second one took one month to finish. The study was investigated through questionnaires and observations. The questionnaires consisted of four categories: “Attitude to English, Satisfaction with class, Learning, and English Use” (Eguchi & Eguchi, 2006, p. 213). The data from the survey shows that the students enjoyed the classes but did not enhance their learning. The researchers hypothesise that the, negative, results (i.e. the results which did not show positive learning) from the survey may be due to the students out-of-school exposure to English. “The difficulty stems from priority of task over tool in the homogenous classroom as well as lack of natural contact with English speakers” (Eguchi & Eguchi, 2006, p. 220). Since an artefact is to be created, a magazine, and the cooperation between students in this project is vital, it is hard for the students, who share the same first language (L1), not to use their L1 instead of the TL since it will minimize misunderstandings and rationalize their work. Furthermore, the hypothesis seems to be in line with the, previous mentioned, work of Sylvén (2010) who found that Swedish students’ English vocabulary size stems from their exposure to English outside of school rather than in school. This study only
investigated students with a low level of proficiency and no generalisations can be made from the study because of the small number of participants. In sum, even though PBL has positive effects on students’ motivation and attitude to English, it is difficult to enjoy the benefits if their learning is poor. Noteworthy is, that this study does not have a control group, this might make the findings slightly ambiguous.

In a thorough study by Mafton et al (2013), Iranian university students, majoring in English, were observed. The study consisted of 80 participants and one wanted to see if motivation was generated through using English in a PBL case study. The groups consisted of four classes, that is four different groups. The questionnaire used, was developed on the basis of self-determination theory and set out to assess intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation, and to see what kind of motivation was the most enhanced. Two groups were control groups, and received regular instructions and procedures common for the universities in an Iranian milieu. The other two groups, the experimental groups, received instructions developed from PBL. 6 complementary research hypotheses, with different perspectives, were constructed in order support a solid conclusion. That is, to be able to trust the validity of the first hypotheses a complementary was written, and so on, until six hypotheses, backing up each other, were finished. The findings, interesting for the scope of this review, are that improvements in language motivation (both extrinsic and intrinsic) are seen amongst learners exposed to this English PBL case study.

Although, one should be cautious to generalise the findings of the study, since it is a study conducted in a very specific geographical area it might differ a lot from other places.

2.4 Motivational research in CLIL

Kjellén Simes (2009) conducted a study on Swedish CLIL students partaking in the International Baccalaureate (IB) program, a program where almost all subjects are taught in English. The study’s main focus was the IB students’ proficiency compared to students partaking in the National Program (NP). However, one part of the study also looked at motivation, which is interesting for the sake of this review. Kjellén Simes wanted to know if proficiency could be explained in terms of the students’ motivation. She (Kjellén Simes) compared the answers, on a questionnaire, from 43 IB students to the answers of 43 NP students. She found that the IB students were more motivated than their peers in the NP. The IB students seemed to have a higher motivation in both intrinsic and instrumental motivation. However, Kjellén Simes also discusses that the high level of motivation amongst the IB students might be due to other factors than factors resulted by actually partaking a CLIL.
In a study conducted by Doiz, Lagabaster and Sierra (2014), the motivation amongst students participating in CLIL and students evolved in regular EFL were compared. The authors did not solely look at how CLIL affected students’ motivation, but also tried to evaluate the impact of factors such as sex, age and socio-cultural variables might have on motivation in CLIL context. The study is situated in the middle of a three-year longitudinal study and contained 393 participants from Basque country in Spain. They were divided into two groups (CLIL and non-CLIL students) and after that notes of gender, parents education and age were made. Moreover, the age spans were 12-13 and 14-15 years of age. It was noticed, that the parents of the CLIL students all had a formal education and a majority had university degrees. No remarkable contrast was found in parents’ support, or in how the perception of proficiency in English was perceived. Furthermore, both groups showed a high level of anxiety when forced to speak English. There were, however, some significant differences between the two groups. The CLIL students were much more motivated, both intrinsically and instrumentally, and showed a greater interest in the L2’s culture. Lastly, the study showed greater anxiety towards the L2 amongst CLIL students than their non-CLIL peers (showed by answers about anxiety in the questionnaires). Likewise, another study shows similar results. In a study on Finnish CLIL students and non-CLIL students, Siekkula-Leino (2007) discovered that anxiety levels were remarkably higher amongst students who, in general, did better than their peers in the L2, with the only difference that the former group only had CLIL lectures. However, anxiety is not necessarily a non-motivational factor.

Lorenzo et al. (as cited in Doiz, Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2014) conducted a major study on CLIL students in Andalusia, Spain. The study showed significantly higher language motivation amongst learners of English through CLIL than learners partaking in more conservative education programmes.

Lagabaster (2011) shows that CLIL students have a greater interest in the L2, have higher instrumental motivation, put more effort in their studies and have more positive attitudes towards English in school. Furthermore, a positive correlation between motivation and level of proficiency was observed, in this case the study focused on grammar, writing and listening, but no account for reading was made. The study was conducted in the Basque country in Spain and included 191 students who were 15 years old. The students were divided into two groups. The majority of the students took CLIL classes. Whereas and the other group, was enrolled in regular English teaching classes. Hence, the former group was exposed to English through other subjects in school besides the English classes. Moreover, Sylvén
(2010) shows that out-of-school exposure towards English is an imperative factor when it comes to language learning. Hence, Lagabaster’s study confirms Sylvén’s findings in that more exposure to the TL generates higher proficiency. Results found in Lagabaster’s study cannot be generalised since there are too many factors influenced when looking at foreign language (FL) motivation. Although, the study shows predictability, CLIL students seem to be more motivated in their L2 education than their peers who only receive regular EFL tutoring.

In a study by Hunt (2011), English students’ perception of learning content through a foreign language was examined, and how the CLIL approach influence students’ enjoyment, progress and motivation. Trainee teachers, on their final school placement before graduating, used the CLIL approach in different classes and taught a content of their choosing. This led to a wide variety of different contents, from Health Education to History and Citizenship, taught in Spanish or French. The data were collected from questionnaires retrieved from 13 secondary schools with the responses from 283 students’. The students’ age varied from 13 to 18 years old. The findings from this study support the use of CLIL for motivational purposes to some extent. 67% of the students responded that they enjoyed the lessons based on CLIL. However, the responses to the question if they felt more motivated by the CLIL approach were lower, only 43%, although 42% answered that they were unsure whether or not they felt more motivated. It should be pointed out that the study only contained one open question which sought positive response, hence, negative feedback on this survey remains unanswered. Furthermore, this was a short project, some projects only lasted for two lessons. Therefore, if students’ motivation is to be examined over time and if CLIL is to be proven as a positive force to enhance students’ motivation, a longer study is required.

3 Discussion and Conclusion

This review began by, shortly, presenting motivational research and the major factors in the field. Three concepts of different content-based learning projects (CBLP), CLIL, CBI and PBL, were shortly described, as well as the immersion programs which, especially, CLIL derives from. Because of the vast research found in these respective areas a focus on motivation in relation to learning languages was taken to see what might enhance motivation among students.

Furthermore, research on CBLP as such has been beyond the scope of this review, rather studies on how the implementation of CBLP affects students’ motivation was reviewed.
However, the success rate of implemented CBLP is touched upon, mainly since most studies have this in their scope of interest. In this conclusion, the overall results will be discussed and implications will be elaborated.

To begin with, there seems to exist a positive connection between CBLP and motivation. Most of the studies reviewed (e.g. Mafton, 2013; McCall, 2011; Lagabaster, 2011), show that motivation is enhanced when students engage in CBLP. Furthermore, the studies which were unable to support an enhancement of motivation (Hunt, 2011; Huang, 2011), did not show any loss in motivation either. Moreover, both of the studies (Hunt, 2011; Huang, 2011) showed enhancement within other areas, such as proficiency (Huang, 2011) and enjoyment (Hunt, 2011). However, since their studies did not have motivation per se as a focus, hard generalisations are hard to make on the basis of these two studies. Huang (2011), did try to focus on motivation, but had a problem with her young learners and since their conception of motivation was not yet developed it proved difficult to research on young children. Something which made her focus on engagement instead of motivation as a secondary solution. Hunt (2011), looked at other factors beside motivation, such as enjoyment and progress. Both enjoyment and progress seemed to have a positive connection to CBLP, however the result on motivation, in the study, was more ambiguous. Nonetheless, enjoyment and progress could be seen as factors of enhanced motivation.

Additionally, the reviews on CBLP and motivation seem to be in line with research on motivation in that it triggers instrumental goals (e.g. Nor, 2008; Kjellén Simes, 2009; Lagabaster, 2011), integrative goals (e.g. Eguchi & Eguchi, 2006; Kjellén Simes, 2009), or both of these at the same time (e.g. Doiz, Lagabaster & Sierra, 2014). CBLP appears to be able to incorporate most of the components needed for enhancing motivation, if carried out appropriately. In CBLP these components are for example: a greater focus on the target language (TL) which could generate motivation if one strive towards becoming proficient in the TL, that is the L2 self; a problem-based focus could generate motivation in that it helps the student see the instrumental value in the language, that is instrumental motivation; and by having the TL as medium in the classes one has a greater chance of fostering intrinsic motivation amongst the students.

Moreover, in several studies (e.g. Nor, 2008; Bas, 2011; Eguchi & Eguchi, 2006, etc.) the value component, in expectancy-value theory, is shown. For example, attainment value shows through the enjoyment and importance that the task at hand engenders, this can be seen as both instrumental and integrative motivation. Furthermore, Bas’s (2011) study shows that the different packaging of the same content shows that if the content is put forth in a specific
way, the attainment value of the task enhances. Since, Bas uses a control group that receives the same content but through a different kind of teaching, the experimental group shows higher motivation because that group see the value in the specific task and that it actually aid them in their different goals.

Moreover, the theory of self-determination (SDT) is developed from the concepts of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. To be able to foster intrinsic motivation, from what at first is extrinsic motivation (however not always), one needs to take competence, relatedness and autonomy into account. Maffon et al (2013) base their study on SDT and found that CBLP, in this case PBL, had a positive correlation with motivation. However, further research, that looks specifically at STD and CBLP is needed to prove this. Meanwhile, CBLP can be connected to SDT in that it is possible to incorporate a sense of learning English well, a higher proficiency and more motivation, as is proven by two studies in the review (Bas, 2011; Lagabaster, 2011). Also, when using content that interest you and when reaching a level of proficiency that does not impede on your effectiveness in understanding the subject, both relatedness and autonomy can be reached through CBLP. Yet, even though proficiency in the TL seems to be higher, the review also shows that anxiety amongst CBLP students might be higher which also need to be taken into consideration (Doiz, et al, 2014; Seikkula-Leino, 2007).

The studies in the review are conducted in a great variety of environments and geographical locations. Therefore, overviews and generalisations are hard to make. However, because of the many different environments and the relatively similar results of the studies, it is possible to conclude that CBLP does engender motivation within many different contexts.

Finally, one can argue that, if CBLP is used with caution, a sufficient amount of effort is put into the preparatory work and if the project is followed up with feedback and evaluations, it can be a good tool for teachers who think that their students’ motivation is wavering. Goal-theory is seen as a way to aid motivation in L2 learning (Dörnyei, 1998). By focusing on content or creating artefacts, this theory seems adequate to CBLP when one needs to fuel students’ motivation. Yet, further research is needed in order to fully connect this theory to CBLP. Moreover, further research should investigate motivation and CBLP with a specific motivational theory framework. On that note, the L2 Motivational Self System should be taken into consideration since it seems to have some major practical implications on language teaching and L2 motivation.
Reference list


