1 Introduction

We were motivated to write this book for several reasons. First, there has been a growing interest around the world in providing young learners with opportunities to develop proficiency in more than one language. This has resulted from an unprecedented internationalisation in economic and business spheres of life as well as in educational, cultural, personal and communication domains. Second, there are many school-age students who are learning through an additional language in school. This reflects the growing rate of international migration as people move from their home countries for personal, professional or economic reasons. Third, there have been significant developments in the field of second-language education that are providing schools with new approaches, strategies and tools for teaching additional languages and teaching through additional languages to school-age learners. Many of these approaches focus on teaching language along with authentic content and, in particular, academic content, such as Mathematics. These programmes are commonly referred to as CLIL or Content and Language Integrated Learning.

We wrote this book to provide guidance on these new approaches. It should be of particular interest to teachers who are teaching through students' additional languages, be it in programmes that systematically aim to promote bilingual competence or programmes that teach through only one language but support bilingual development indirectly (such as in the case of immigrant students). We also hope this book will be useful for administrators who are either planning to use these approaches or are already doing so in their schools. We hope that

education officials in school districts, policy-makers, teachers in training and teacher educators will also find the book useful.

BILINGUALISM IN THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY

Growing interest in developing young learners' proficiency in additional languages is partially due to necessity – many families are emigrating from their homes to countries where a language other than their own is spoken. There are many reasons for the expansion of such immigration, including economic, political and personal. As a result, many children are attending schools with little or no proficiency in the language of instruction. Many of these children are being taught by teachers who have little experience and knowledge of how to ensure that their students acquire full competence in their new language or of how to teach academic content using a language that their students have not yet mastered. Teachers are often at a loss to know how to make abstract concepts in subject areas such as Mathematics and Science comprehensible to their additional-language learners, especially in the higher grades as content gets more and more complex and abstract. They may not even know how to teach these students the additional language skills they need in order to do well in school.

It is not only the children of immigrant or refugee parents who want to learn a second or even third language. There are many regions around the world where more than one language is widely used in the community – for example, in countries such as Canada, Belgium, India, Finland,

RESEARCH NOTE

Increase in immigration around the world

According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (2013), approximately 232 million international migrants are living in the world today. Between 1990 and 2013, the number of international migrants in the global North increased by around 53 million (65%), while the migrant population in the global South grew by around 24 million (34%).

Switzerland and South Africa, there is more than one official language and there are advantages in knowing those languages. Parents of children in these countries often seek school programmes where their children can become bi- or multilingual. Even in countries with only one official language, such as Brazil, Colombia and Hungary, there are indigenous or widely used non-official languages. Learning those languages along with the national language is important for day-to-day communication in personal, professional and other contexts.

The surging interest in learning additional languages is also shared by mainstream parents who have a desire to prepare their children for globalisation. In comparison to previous generations, parents and their children now have access to much more information and many more options that are available through modern technology and especially the internet. Globalisation has increased the value of being bi- or multilingual. While English is often the language of choice in these cases, many other languages are also used and useful in the global marketplace or even for personal travel. While some parents are motivated by economic considerations and a desire to give their children more opportunities by learning other languages, other parents are motivated by the belief that graduates in the twenty-first century should be open to, familiar with, and prepared to engage with people with different languages and

RESEARCH NOTE

Popularity of English

One out of four of the world's population speaks English to some level of competence; demand from the other three-quarters is increasing (Crystal, 1997).

cultures. In short, more and more parents in communities around the world want their children not just to acquire minimal proficiency in an additional language (often English), but to reach high levels of bilingual proficiency, and they are looking for innovative educational approaches to achieve this. Knowing other languages will help young people meet the challenges and enjoy the benefits of globalisation so that they can

access information on the internet, pursue post-secondary education in an additional language, and compete for jobs in the international job market.

In response to local and global realities, many school districts and national or regional departments of education are requiring that students learn a second or even a third language along with their first. In Europe, for example, students must learn at least one second language until they are 18 years of age, and it is recommended that they learn a third language. The 2012 report from the European Commission highlights the increasing number of pupils learning two languages for at least one year during compulsory education. It notes that, on average, in 2009/10, 60.8% of lower-secondary education students were learning two or more foreign languages – an increase of 14.1% compared to 2004/05. Also, many children grow up in families where more than one language is spoken and their parents want them to become biliterate in the languages used at home. Kazakhstan has embarked on an ambitious project to make trilingual education in Kazakh, Russian and English available to all students in the country.

As well, many international schools (or international-type schools) around the world have sizeable populations of additional-language learners. Some of these students are from the host country in which the school is located and do not speak the primary language of instruction – English in most cases. Yet, other students in many international schools are from other countries and speak neither the language of the school nor the language of the host community. These students are learning through a second, or third, language and can benefit from CLIL approaches to teaching. It is particularly important for these students to develop proficiency in English, the language of instruction, because it may be the only language that is consistently present throughout their childhood and adolescence. A growing number of international schools offer bilingual education or other options that actively support their students becoming bi- or multilingual. For example, the international school in Frankfurt offers some options in German to both host-country German-speaking students who wish to maintain their home language while learning English, the primary language of instruction, and to English-speaking students from around the world who attend their school so that they, too, acquire competence in English and German. In some cases, international schools also offer support for home-language development to students who speak neither the language of the school nor

the local community – in accordance with the recommendations of the International Baccalaureate or Cambridge International Examinations (CIE) programmes that they follow. CLIL is relevant to teaching in these schools; we describe why and how in more detail in **Chapter 3**.

Thus, by necessity or choice, the number of young and adolescent additional-language learners around the world is growing at a phenomenal rate. Many parents are looking to schools to make this happen, and many teachers are looking for the most effective ways to develop students' additional-language proficiency.

A NEW APPROACH TO LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

There has been a dramatic change in the way additional languages are being taught in school. Advances in research in the field of second-language education are providing educators with new approaches for promoting bi- or multilingualism in school and for teaching students through an additional language; but many educators find it challenging to apply these new methods. A primary goal of this book is to assist them with this. Alternative terms have been used to refer to these new approaches. The most common terms are Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and Content-Based Instruction (CBI). We will use CLIL throughout the book because it is a general term that focuses on both language and content and is widely used today. Both of these ways of referring to CLIL highlight the key innovation of this approach – that is, the integration of content and language instruction drives instructional planning and practice. Moreover, both terms refer to methods that can be used in a variety of contexts.

CLIL can be used not only to teach additional languages as separate subjects (a foreign-language programme), but also to teach significant portions of the academic curriculum in an additional language (an immersion context). They can also be used to teach the required curriculum to non-native speakers of the language of instruction (a mainstream classroom with immigrant students who are learning through the majority language). In a French school, for example, instead of having a class called 'English as a Foreign Language', students may learn music in English. Some schools are going even further and teaching 50% or 90% of the entire curriculum during certain grades in the additional language. In a growing number of mainstream and international

schools, there are many students who come to school with limited or no proficiency in the language of instruction – immigrant students or students who speak an indigenous language; CLIL strategies can be useful in these classrooms as well. What all of these schools have in common is that teachers are teaching language and academic content together. Foreign-language instruction has always used some kind of content as a vehicle for teaching language – often the content was the habits, foods and cultures of the groups whose languages were being learned. What is different about this new approach is that the content that is used as a vehicle for teaching the foreign/additional language is the academic subjects that form the prescribed curriculum of study. This novel approach focuses on teaching language that is needed to communicate about and learn academic content.

This approach to teaching additional languages, and through additional languages, has been shown to be more effective than focusing primarily on language in isolation, or on content without paying attention to the language of instruction; the research evidence in support of this approach is discussed in more detail in **Chapters 2** and **3**. This is one of the principal tenets of this book – by integrating instruction in an additional language with instruction of academic subjects or other authentic content that is interesting and relevant to students, students can develop a deeper and wider range of authentic communication skills in the additional language than if the language is taught for its own sake. In the case of majority-language students in immersion, for example, this can be done without jeopardising mastery of academic skills and knowledge or first-language development. In short, it is value-added education. For minority-language students who do not already speak the language of instruction, CLIL strategies can make the academic content more accessible and facilitate acquisition of the majority language.

This brings us to the variety of educational contexts in which CLIL can be effectively put into practice.

EDUCATIONAL CONTEXTS

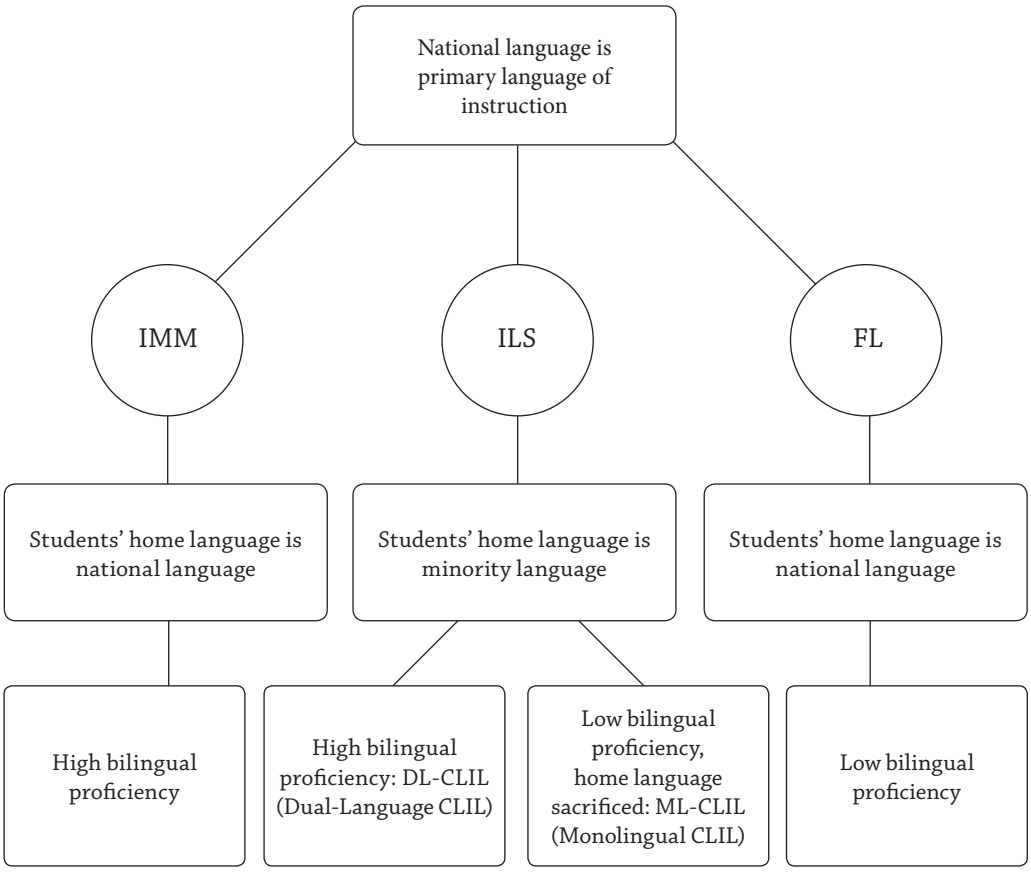
Children and adolescents learn an additional language, and through an additional language, in a variety of educational contexts in K-12 schools. We discuss four contexts in which CLIL is being or could be used: Immersion (IMM), education for immigrant and indigenous-language

students (ILSs), foreign-language (FL) programmes, and international schools (INT); we describe each of these in more detail later. The four types of contexts that we discuss differ according to many instructional variables, including:

- the grade levels when instruction in the additional language is offered – some programmes begin additional-language instruction as early as kindergarten or earlier (in preschool), while others do not start until the last four years of school
- the extent to which instruction in the additional language is integrated into the curriculum – at one end of the spectrum are schools that offer separate classes that focus on additional-language instruction; for example, Italian as a foreign language; and at the other end of the spectrum are schools in which the entire curriculum, or much of it, is taught in an additional language for many years – these are often referred to as 'immersion programmes'.

Most importantly, these programmes also differ in the outcomes that are expected. In some programmes, it is expected that students will acquire knowledge about the language and how to use the language in relatively limited domains – for example, using the target language to describe their neighbourhood. In other programmes, the goal is for students to attain full functional proficiency in the additional language so that they are able to use it in a variety of domains in and outside of school. Despite the fact that different levels of bilingual proficiency might be expected, we use the term CLIL to refer to teaching additional-language learners in these different contexts. Three of the educational contexts that we discuss at length throughout this book can be found in schools where the national or regional language is the primary language of instruction, but students are taught some subjects through an additional or foreign language (see **Figure 1.1**); a fourth context we consider is schools where the primary language of instruction is different from the national or regional language – namely, international schools. Here is a fuller description of all four contexts.

FIGURE 1.1: CLIL instruction in IMM, ILS, and FL contexts in which the language of instruction is the majority language of the community



Immersion (IMM)

In these types of programmes, most students are native speakers of the national or majority language. Although schooling for most students in these communities is in the majority language, some students also receive substantial amounts of instruction through an additional language for both academic and social purposes. For example, in a school in Brazil, half of the school day in the elementary grades might take place in Portuguese (the majority language) and the other half in English (an additional language). This means that the students get half of their curriculum instruction, including literacy and other subjects, in Portuguese and the other half in English. In Europe, this type of

instructional model is often referred to simply as CLIL; however, we refer to it as 'Immersion' or IMM for short because it is a specific type of CLIL programme – namely, one that provides substantial amounts of curriculum instruction in an additional language. Indeed, many schools throughout the world refer to these types of programme as IMM, after the model that started in Canada in 1965 to teach French to English-speaking students. These programmes might be considered one of the first content-based or CLIL programmes.

RESEARCH NOTE

Summary of St Lambert

The St Lambert early total immersion programme was inaugurated in 1965 in a community outside Montreal, Canada. The students received all instruction in French, their second language, in kindergarten and in grades 1 and 2; English was not used for instruction until grade 3, for about an hour a day, and then increased to 50% of each day in grades 5 and 6. The pilot students and a follow-up cohort of students participated in research every year until they completed secondary school (see Lambert & Tucker, 1972, for a summary of that research). In brief, the research showed that, in comparison to similar students in all-English programmes, immersion students attained the same levels of proficiency in English starting in grade 3; they also attained the same levels of achievement in academic subjects at all grade levels; and they acquired much higher levels of functional proficiency in French. The results of this research spread around the world and became the basis for many other countries starting their own programmes.

There are a variety of IMM programme models; they can differ from one another along several dimensions. They can differ with respect to the grade level when the additional language is first used as a medium of academic instruction, the number of grades during which the additional language is used for academic instruction, and how intensively the additional language is used to teach academic content. They can also

differ in the ways in which they allocate the language of instruction to different content areas. Some programmes teach a specific content area, such as Science, in the same language for several years; some alternate language of instruction for specific school subjects from year to year; yet others switch languages for one content area once a unit is completed. As well, some programmes have different teachers for each language; and others have the same teacher for both languages. In IMM programmes, attaining advanced levels of bilingual competence in both spoken and written forms of the two languages is not only a desired but also a realistic goal. Moreover, students in IMM programmes are assessed on their mastery of academic objectives – in Mathematics and Science, for example, as well as their mastery of the additional language. In **Chapters 2** and **3**, we discuss IMM programmes in more detail from a pedagogical point of view and we review research on how successful they are at achieving their goals.

1.1 PERSONAL PERSPECTIVE

CLIL in indigenous education

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In indigenous education contexts, the term CLIL does not carry the same meaning as it does for non-indigenous educators. In Colombia, approximations that would be called CLIL elsewhere are called *ethnoeducation* by the government, and *educación propia* – our education – by the communities. This means that each of the more than 65 indigenous language communities in the country has the right to execute its autonomous education agenda, including choosing culturally appropriate subject matter, selecting teachers and determining the language of instruction. Teaching in the language of the community represents both a right and fight; cultivating linguistic proficiency may mean maintaining or revitalizing a language or culture at risk of dying out. In short, *educación propia* is a politically charged task.

In the communities where I have worked a few noteworthy trends in the practices emerge. First, *educación propia* addresses the goals of content, cognition, communication and culture (the 4 Cs)