Introduction

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The political, technological, economic and social realities of the modern world have led and continue to lead to more contact between more people of different linguistic and cultural backgrounds than ever before, creating the need for new policies on different levels and in different fields. One such field is education, where answers have to be sought for how immigrant populations can be integrated into and served by their host societies, but also for how predominantly monolingual populations can be made fit for the demands of international interaction and cooperation. The hub of the question in both cases is how an education system can endow learners with the language skills necessary first to profit from the education on offer, and second to participate in social and economic life in ways that are advantageous for the individual and society at large.

The educational measures which result from such policy decisions are situated within diverse settings, reflecting complex constellations on a variety of socioeconomic, political and socio-psychological dimensions: these include immigrants to the highly developed economies of Western Europe, North America and Australia; officially multilingual countries where native speakers of one national language learn the other national language through immersion (Canada, Belgium); speakers of European majority languages learning other major foreign languages (frequently English); students in international degree programmes using English as a common working language, to name only the major types. Despite the diversity of the individual constellations, a common trend has been to question the usefulness of the traditional division between 'language classes' and 'content classes' and to seek better and more effective solutions through a combination of the two aspects in one educational event.

The labels which have been given to such settings are numerous. Among the most widely used ones are certainly Content-based Instruction (CBI), Immersion Education, Bilingual Teaching, and Language X as Medium of Instruction.[1] The term employed in this volume is *Content and Language*

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[1] The website www.content-english.org sports some fifty English-based terms that are in use world-wide. To these one has to add the terms coined in other languages and for specific education systems. For instance, although both education systems operate in German, the Austrian term for CLIL is *Fremdsprache als Arbeitssprache* (FSaA; foreign language

Integrated Learning (CLIL), which has established itself as an umbrella label in Europe and elsewhere over the last years. As pointed out above, the factual educational realities covered by the label can differ considerably from situation to situation, as is also witnessed by the contributions in this volume (more on this below).

Despite this variation, a good deal of commonalities can be detected on the level of rationales that are given for the implementation of CLIL. An important pro-CLIL argument, for instance, is that it creates conditions for naturalistic language learning, thereby contrasting CLIL with the more strongly instructional focus of classical foreign and second language education (e.g. Snow *et al.* 1989, Snow and Brinton 1997). CLIL is thus seen as an opportunity for importing an element of 'learning the language in the street' into formal education. An underlying belief in this connection seems to be that it is not the learning of second/foreign languages per se which is difficult, but learning them in classrooms (cf. van Lier 1988:3). Arising from this experiential view on language learning, the image of CLIL being a 'language bath' has been particularly powerful in this connection. The name of one of the earliest models, French immersion in Canada, also clearly draws on this image.

A second major argument revolves around the purpose and the meaning of language use in the classroom. It is true that learning about geography, science or history in the CLIL classroom gives the use of the foreign language a purpose over and beyond learning the language itself. In this way, learning about subject content is construed as possessing a kind of meaningfulness that is believed to be absent from typical language instruction (e.g. Brinton *et al.* 1989, Snow *et al.* 1989, Crandall 1987). The crucial importance of meaningful communication for language learning has also been a central dogma of the communicative approach to language teaching (e.g Finocchiaro and Brumfit 1983). This implies that CLIL classrooms might even be regarded as the implementation of the principles of the communicative approach on a grand scale.

A third main argument revolves around notions of efficiency. In all settings CLIL classes mean concurrent learning in two curricular areas (Brinton *et al.* 1989, Wesche 1993). If two things can be learned in the slot otherwise taken up by only one, this clearly saves time. Also, especially in foreign language contexts, attending CLIL classes means a substantial increase in the amount of target language exposure for the learners. In such

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as a working language), while in Germany *Bilingualer Unterricht* (BiLi) is the most common denomination.

settings CLIL education tends to multiply the hours spent with the target language compared to traditional language classes. All in all the arguments in favour of CLIL are strongly focused on the input CLIL classes provide to the learners, both from the point of view of quantity as well as from the point of view of quality. With regard to the latter the CLIL focus on meaning rather than form is frequently emphasised.

The primacy of meaning over form is also thought to have positive effects on the affective level, reducing target language anxiety and increasing motivation in the learners (Brinton *et al.* 1989, Crandall 1987). A parallel line of thought, which also takes recourse to the fact that CLIL offers opportunities for naturalistic learning, emphasizes the fact that CLIL furthers the development of Communicative Competence, a notion widely regarded to be the ultimate aim of second/foreign language learning. Besides the emphasis on meaningful communication, this is a second aspect that CLIL shares with the communicative approach to language teaching. Based on Hymes's theorizing regarding the human language faculty in general (e.g. Hymes 1974), an individual is thought to acquire Communicative Competence through participation in actual communicative events, i.e. through using the language for social, informative, expressive and other purposes. The implication with regard to CLIL clearly is that language and content integration represents more of an actual communicative event, or a more 'authentic' communicative event, as it is often called, than language teaching per se.[2]

It has been remarked, correctly in our opinion, that many of these arguments possess a high face validity but are often intuitive and lack a direct research base (Davison and Williams 2001:53). Research into language teaching and learning has, however, produced a number of positions which have contributed to the above-mentioned beliefs. A decisive influence in the area has definitely been Krashen's monitor model (Krashen 1985, Krashen and Terrell 1983), several elements of which have figured prominently in CLIL rationales. These are the primacy of acquisition over learning (CLIL as naturalistic learning environment), emphasis on the importance of comprehensible and meaningful input (emphasis on subject content rather than linguistic form), as well as the notion of the affective filter (CLIL as reduc-

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[2] The straightforwardness of this implication is questioned by Dalton-Puffer (2005a) who argues that it rests on an oversimplified view of what are the crucial constituents of a communicative event so that the difference between CLIL classrooms and language classrooms becomes overaccentuated at the cost of their commonalities. She argues that both speech events share crucial constituents in terms of setting, participants, discourse rules, if not with regard to topic.

ing foreign language anxiety). Despite the critique which Krashen's ideas have received in SLA over the last 20 years, they continue to be of major significance as a conceptual reference point for CLIL (cf. Marsh and Nikula 1997).

The notion of comprehensible input was elaborated into a new direction by a research strand originally inspired by Long (e.g. 1985, 1996), its main claim being that meaningful interaction and negotiation of meaning are crucial sources of comprehensible input for learners (e.g. Gass, Mackey and Pica 1998). In this respect CLIL classrooms can also be seen as contexts where learners and teachers have to negotiate meaning on-line as a main part of their classroom activity, thereby providing learners with the right kind of stimulus to trigger acquisition. Empirical research has shown, however, that the amount of this type of negotiation in classrooms is limited (e.g. Musumeci 1996).

Interestingly, it has been research based on Canadian immersion education which has given rise to a further dimension within this psycholinguistically-oriented strand in SLA: Swain (e.g. 1985, 1995) was the first to claim that the production of output is as relevant to language learning processes as is input, because having to produce rather than merely understand meaningful utterances stimulates lexico-grammatical rather than purely semantic processing and leads to deeper learning on the level of linguistic competence per se. Partly inspired by Swain's output-hypothesis, SLA-research has since rediscovered an interest in the conscious attention to form in language learning, assembling evidence suggesting that conscious attention to linguistic form does have a positive impact on learning outcomes (e.g. Ellis 2001, Doughty and Williams 1998, Lyster and Ranta 1997, Williams 1999).

The theoretical positions mentioned so far are all psycholinguistic in the sense that they focus on language learning as an individual cognitive achievement. In recent years, complementary socio-cultural and constructivist approaches to language learning have been gaining ground (e.g. Block 2003, Ellis 1999, Hall and Verplaetse 2000, Lantolf 2002). Such approaches emphasize the nature of language as a socially distributed rather than a purely cognitive phenomenon and consequently also conceive of its acquisition as a process which is socially construed. Individuals are seen to learn language through the participation in social events, where they co-construct together with other participants the social practices through which learning can take place. Under these premises the actual social encounters in which the foreign/second language learning happens acquire a much higher significance for the learning process than under a psycholinguistic perspective, where they are conceived of as coincidental. As a consequence, the CLIL

classroom as a social setting with specific participant roles, purposes and discourse rules moves considerably more to the centre of the learning process than when one regards it as a mere instantiation of a general category of 'input', serving to trigger acquisition in the individual mind. Several articles in this book pay explicit tribute to the relevance of the social situatedness of learning in CLIL environments (Bowering, Buchholz, Lochtmann, Nikula, Rottmann, Smit, Wiesemes).

Apart from rationales in terms of underlying learning theories, another major topic in CLIL related discourse is the discussion about the relationship of language and content. This debate is highly involved and may well remind one of the centuries-old debate among opera enthusiasts about whether the music should have primacy over the words or vice versa (one solution is encapsulated in the slogan "prima la musica, dopo le parole"). In order to better grasp the issues regarding language and content it is helpful to recognize that the discourse on their 'integration' actually proceeds on two levels (Davison and Williams 2001:56-57). The first is the level of social organisation where language and content are connected to different fields of curriculum activity with their concurrent institutional and professional affiliations. In concrete terms, this means, for example, whether CLIL classes are thought to be the province of language or subject specialists.[3] The second is the level of cognition and can be traced back to the fundamental question in how far language actually leads an autonomous existence in the minds of speakers (and hence learners) and in how far it is thus justified to make the distinction between language and content on the cognitive plane. In this connection early work by both Widdowson (1978) and Halliday (1978) has strongly advocated a position of inseparability between the two because language is always enacted in concrete social contexts of use. Both theorists have provided significant theoretical impulses towards CLIL, especially in ESL contexts in the UK, Australia and North America. Furthermore, research on the cognitive effects of bilingualism also connects up to these issues (cf. Ceuleers *et al.*, this volume).

It is clear that CLIL practitioners and policy makers need to make reference to both the social and the cognitive levels in order to be able to act in concrete educational institutions, though it seems to us that the more tangible social side of things tends to be fore-grounded. For instance, the lan-

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[3] In education systems where the two specialisations may be combined in one individual (like in Austrian secondary schools, and more generally in elementary education) this has been observed to have interesting results on the individual's self-perception (cf. Dalton-Puffer 2005a). For an elementary education perspective see Buchholz (this volume).

guage-content discussion has led to the formulation of a rough framework for categorising the bewildering multiplicity of CLIL models: CLIL programmes can be classified as predominantly language-driven or predominantly content-driven (Brinton *et al.* 1989, Stryker and Leaver 1997:4) and the choice of perspective reflects on the main curriculum functions, teaching materials, staffing decisions and organisational structures of concrete CLIL programmes.

For the European CLIL scene, on which most of the contributions to this volume are based, we think it is fair to say that most CLIL models in use tend to be of the content-focused kind. The reason for this seems to be that, when a decision for CLIL is taken, existing national content-curricula, or parts thereof, tend to be enacted in a second or foreign language without further curricular adaptation. Much of the research these programmes have stimulated, is of a complementary nature: it tends to be directed towards language outcomes (e.g. Griessler 1998, Mewald this volume, Sylvén 2004, Wode *et al.* 1996) or towards effects on subject pedagogy of teaching in an L2 (e.g. contributions in Bonnet and Breidbach 2004, Ziegelwagner, this volume).

How, then, is the present volume positioned on the map of published work on CLIL and how does it contribute to the body of knowledge about CLIL? Despite the inevitable simplifications brought about by categorisations of this kind, it is useful to distinguish four basic perspectives from which the phenomenon has in general been approached. These can be arranged along two dimensions: The first dimension is concerned with the researcher's positioning with regard to how 'close' she gets to the phenomenon in question and how fine-grained a view he or she takes. One can therefore distinguish between a *macro view* and a *micro view* of CLIL (cf. the related distinction between endogenous and exogenous aspects of CLIL in the chapter by Ceuleers *et al.*). The second dimension is concerned with the object of the investigation and stretches between the endpoints *process* and *product*, that is to say it differentiates whether research deals with the outcomes or with the ongoing process of CLIL as it happens.

The *macro-micro dimension* is relevant to all research that takes place in concrete social settings, distinguishing between two principal and opposite vantage points. The phenomenon under scrutiny can be regarded either from the outside or from the inside. In the case of CLIL a micro-approach focuses on the immediate participants, i.e. the learners and teachers, trying to find out how they act under the conditions of CLIL, what happens to them, and how CLIL influences their states of mind, that is their cognition, knowledge, emotions, beliefs, opinions and attitudes. A micro view also

focuses on the central event where those states are enacted, namely the CLIL lesson and its manifestations (mainly in the shape of classroom discourse). The macro perspective, on the other hand, is concerned with taking an outside view of the conditions under which CLIL happens and on courses of action which can be taken to implement CLIL. The macro perspective is thus concerned with questions of organisation, curriculum, staffing, material, and similar matters on the macro-level and with questions of syllabus decisions, didactics and learning arrangements in the classroom.

The process-product dimension is fundamental to most kinds of empirical research on (language) learning. Traditionally the discipline has been more interested in outcomes (as the world outside research circles tends to be) but over the last ten years there has been an increasing concern also with the learning process itself, the ultimate aim being to track actual learning processes as they unfold. When the interest is on outcomes, the processes or events leading up to them are themselves taken as given (or even a black box). In the case of experimental research, the learning process may be designed and implemented by the researchers themselves. In the case of CLIL education such end results would be the knowledge states of the students produced by their undergoing the CLIL experience, both on the level of language but also on the level of subject knowledge. Alternatively, the research interest may turn towards the said processes themselves in order to find out more about how they are configured, conditioned and how they unfold.

In order to outline the research landscape concerning CLIL it is useful to combine the two perspectives, as is done in Figure 1. Existing work can then be placed on this grid. The content of the present volume is located in the area designated by the dotted bubble.

As one reviews publications dealing with CLIL, it is noticeable that the upper half of Figure 1 is definitely more densely populated than the lower half. The largest number of publications, available from many parts of the world, concern case studies or case reports on the implementation of CLIL programmes at different institutions, in different subjects at different levels and in different countries (e.g. Abuja 1998, Abuja and Heindler 1993, Breidbach *et al.* 2002, Eurydice Report 2006, Fruhauf *et al.* 1996, Johnson and Swain 1997, Krueger and Ryan 1993, Mohan *et al.* 2001, Snow and Brinton 1997, Stryker and Leaver (eds.) 1997, Wildhage and Otten 2003). Many contributions in the collections mentioned here are reports about implementation processes, a genre that continues to be of high relevance as more and more CLIL programmes continue to be implemented in different

countries at different levels of education.[4] These reports would mostly populate the top left quadrant of Figure 1, as would publications on learning arrangements and task types considered appropriate for CLIL purposes (Breidbach *et al.* 2002, Hallett 1999 and 2002, Musumeci 1993, Snow and Brinton 1997, among others). In the top right quadrant we would place general guidelines on CLIL and descriptions of established CLIL programmes, their curricula and organisational structures (e.g. *CLIL Compendium*, Johnson and Swain 1997, Marsh and Langé 1999, Marsh *et al.* 1997, Mohan *et al.* 2001), as well as CLIL teaching materials. (e.g. Abuja *et al.* 1995, 1996).

Figure 1. Research perspectives on CLIL
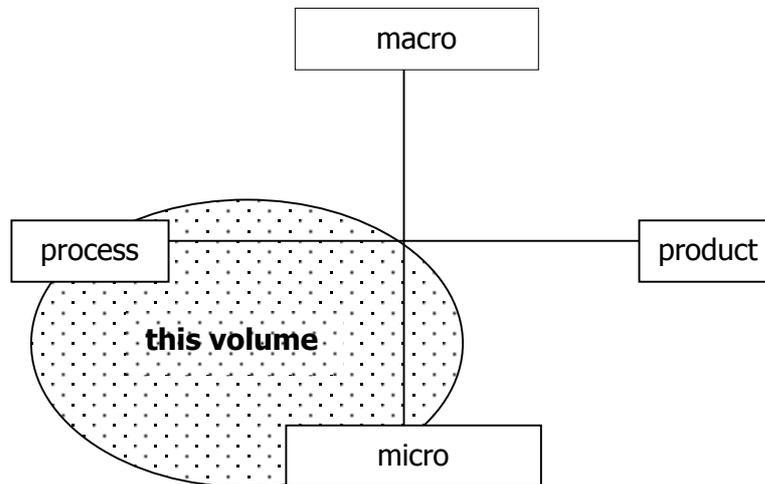
Moving on to the micro perspective, the bottom right corner of Figure 1 is the area of outcome studies both in terms of language attainment as well as content knowledge. The latter are usually obtainable only from education systems where nation-wide standardised testing is well established (e.g. Day and Shapson 1996), though there is a certain number of interview studies where teacher judgements on subject learning outcomes were examined (e.g. Stohler 2006, Ziegelwagner this volume). Outcome studies relating to language attainment are somewhat more numerous. Summative testing tends to be employed for evaluation purposes (Griessler 1998, Wode *et al.* 1996, Zangl and Peltzer-Karpf 1998, Zydatiß 2005) but more specific areas

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[4] Submissions received for a seminar on CLIL classrooms held at the 8th ESSE (European Society for the Study of English) conference in August 2006 were a case in point.

of linguistic competence have also been examined, often in connection with the testing of certain aspects of language acquisition theories (e.g. Day and Shapson 1996, Harley *et al.* 1990, Swain 1996 and 2000, Sylvén 2004).

Turning finally to the last quadrant in Figure 1, which combines the micro and process-oriented perspectives, we find that this is the most recently investigated and least densely populated one. A number of CLIL-studies of this kind started to appear in North-America in the mid-nineties (Duff 1995 and 1996, Musumeci 1996, Swain and Lapkin 1998), but regarding foreign language CLIL in other parts of the world these kinds of studies are of a very recent nature (e.g. Bonnet 2004, Dalton-Puffer 2005ab, Dalton-Puffer and Nikula 2006, Nikula 2002, 2005).

The present volume is a further step towards enriching our knowledge on CLIL from these micro-process perspectives, focussing on the language behaviours of teachers and learners as they interact in the classroom, with overlaps into adjoining perspectives, as depicted in Figure 1.

Description of the papers in this volume

Since the eleven studies included in this volume are all concerned with the 'process' and 'micro' perspectives, we decided against any further sub-classifications or groupings. Instead, the contributions are arranged alphabetically, with the explicit intention to stress their complementarity in elucidating process-oriented research questions on the interactional micro-level of CLIL classrooms. The ensuing overview will sketch the specificities of each contribution as regards educational setting, research angle and main findings.

Reflecting the internationality of CLIL, Margaret BOWERING's contribution is the only one that is set in an ESL context. In a detailed analysis of two science classes with adolescent LEP (limited English proficiency) students in Perth, Australia, the interplay of content and language teaching factors is discussed by focusing on the IRE (initiation – response – evaluation) cycles and how they develop from the first to the second lesson sampled. With the help of a quantitative-cum-qualitative comparison of the teacher and student contributions at these two moments in time, the author manages to elucidate the teacher's skilful way of keeping up a highly supportive classroom atmosphere in aid of the students' cognitive as well as linguistic development.

The relevance of the supportive classroom atmosphere to successful CLIL teaching also comes to the fore in the following paper, albeit in a completely different setting. Barbara BUCHHOLZ reports on action re-

search she undertook as teacher-researcher in an Austrian primary school. Motivated by the experience of limited success in getting German-speaking pupils to actively participate in English classroom discourse, the author introduced a step-by-step approach to implementing and evaluating new teaching strategies that successfully helped in reframing the classroom discourse situation. Containing spatial as well as language and content-oriented improvements, this comprehensive approach chosen allows all pupils to engage in English interactions, which in turn permits language learning.

In contrast to Austria where CLIL is generally evaluated very positively, the situation in Brussels looks very different. As explained in the 'Belgian contribution', the country's bilingual history has led to fundamentally critical attitudes towards using an additional language for educational purposes. In an attempt to offer proof of the advantages inherent in CLIL at primary level, Piet VAN DE CRAEN, Evy CEULEERS, Katja LOCHTMAN, Laure ALLAIN, and Katrien MONDT apply a comprehensive research paradigm addressing sociolinguistic as well as cognitive aspects of CLIL teaching and learning. Reporting on various investigations, they provide, on the one hand, detailed ethnographic information on how the explicit recognition and positive evaluation of multilingualism did not only help interactions in the classrooms, but also among all the other stakeholders. On the other hand, a comparative quantitative study indicates that CLIL teaching and learning leads to improved mathematical skills, which, the authors claim convincingly, suggests that, similar to early bilingualism, CLIL can result in improved cognitive abilities.

With Erwin GIERLINGER's contribution we turn our attention to the teachers' side in CLIL settings inasmuch as the investigation reported on in this paper attempted to find out what Upper Austrian teachers identify as strengths and weaknesses in CLIL. From the many insights gained that throw light on actual CLIL practices, two shall be mentioned here: firstly, the basically positive experience CLIL teaching seems to amount to for the teachers interviewed and, secondly, their equally pervasive, rather negative feelings of being left alone, which reflects a major CLIL weakness encountered in Austria more generally. While the political support for CLIL teaching is generally strong, concrete guidance and support for teachers implementing it are largely absent. Teachers are generally left to their own devices in, for instance, developing appropriate teaching materials, implementing adapted teaching strategies or improving their own language proficiency levels, which, as this investigation shows, slightly mars the otherwise positive attitudes teachers hold towards CLIL.

Katja LOCHTMAN's paper shifts the research focus from teachers' evaluations back to classroom interaction itself as it provides a detailed comparison of repair behaviour in CLIL vs. traditional foreign language (FL) classes. In contrasting two studies of repair, or negotiation of meaning and form, it can be shown that FL teachers, mindful of the relevance of correct linguistic forms, tend to ask learners to correct their own repairable utterances. CLIL teachers, on the other hand, prefer to recast learner contributions themselves, which, as the author elucidates clearly, reflects the interactional focus on pragmatic meaning in CLIL settings.

Since language learning is, as generally claimed, one of the main reasons to engage in CLIL, Claudia MEWALD undertook a comparative study in various Lower Austrian CLIL and mainstream schools testing pupils' oral language proficiency in terms of fluency, continuous speech, accuracy and effective communication. While, generally speaking, CLIL learners outperformed their mainstream peers, differences between individual schools and groups threw light on the relevance of other factors, such as human and material resources, amount of language input or aptitude. Most conspicuously, the analysis shows that the high achievers profit most from CLIL classes, while the middle and low achievers profit less or, partly, not at all: some low achievers in mainstream classes even outperformed their peers in CLIL schools. The author attributes this intrinsic educational weakness less to CLIL itself than to the present (and partly lacking) curricula for bilingual teaching, and argues for remedying the present situation on the basis of research such as the one included in the present volume.

The third contribution that compares CLIL and foreign language classrooms reports on research undertaken in Finland. Contrary to the preceding paper, however, Tarja NIKULA looks at classroom interactional patterns with the aim to uncover similarities and differences in language use, rather than in language learning. In an argumentative line similar to Margaret Bowering's analysis of science classes, the research focus is the IRE/F (initiation – response – evaluation/feedback/follow-on) cycle. While it turns out to function as the fundamental structuring device in the CLIL and FL classrooms, its application reveals important differences between the two settings. Prototypical IRFs, i.e. initiated by the teacher, are all pervasive in FL classrooms in that they are used for language- as well as content-focused exchanges. In CLIL classes, on the other hand, teacher-initiated IRF patterns are restricted to certain activities, such as reviewing students' work. During other lesson phases, the exchange structure is less rigid and teachers and students seem to engage in what the

author calls 'instructional dialogue', which gives the learners more space for interaction in comparison with the FL classroom interaction investigated in this study.

In implementing, but also researching CLIL, the focus usually lies on 'typical' school subjects fostering cognitive learning. That this does not necessarily have to be the case is argued in the following paper on learning opportunities through CLIL in physical education (PE) classes. Based on a qualitative study in a fifth grade of a German CLIL school, Birte ROTTMANN makes a convincing case for PE as particularly well suited for CLIL, precisely because the activities and processes involved in doing and learning sports, including movements as well as their linguistic translations, allow for a more comprehensive learning experience, on the one hand, and, on the other, more informal interactions with the teacher as well as peers.

Most research on CLIL is concerned with primary and secondary education. This does, however, not mean that content and language integrated learning stops there; on the contrary, education at tertiary level has had a very long tradition of taking place in an additional language, but it has only recently been recognized as a further case of integrating content and language learning.[5] Based on a longitudinal and qualitative study, Ute SMIT reports on patterns of interactional repair in an English-medium hotel management program. As this program is set in Vienna, Austria and attended by international students, the classroom language can be identified as English as a lingua franca (ELF) (e.g. Knapp and Meierkord 2002). The special function English fulfils in this multilingual student group also comes to the fore in the way repair strategies are used differently at different moments in time in aid of making educational interaction work, thus jointly establishing in-group routines. As these linguistic developmental processes happen undetected by the participants, language learning does not surface as a recognized feature of this educational situation, which has prompted the author to identify it as a case of 'unacknowledged CLIL'.

The relationship between content and language is also at stake in the following paper because Rolf WIESEMES presents a research approach that stresses the dual, mutually dependent nature of CLIL. By focusing on the teaching of the Holocaust at upper secondary level, the author presents a research methodology that allows a detailed analysis of different empha-

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[5] The first time we are aware of that a conference made explicit reference to the integratedness of content and language learning at tertiary level was in 2003 (cf. http://www.unimaas.nl/icl/proceeding2003.htm) [9 May 2006].

ses placed in teaching sensitive issues in history lessons in various European countries. Preliminary findings based on a case study indicate that CLIL teaching might result in a stronger focus on the historical events themselves, sidelining the moral issues linked with them. At the same time, however, the use of another language bears the clear and highly valuable advantage of approaching a historical event through a different language, which does not only allow the use of foreign language material, but also critical reflection on language use itself.

The final contribution is also concerned with the strengths and weaknesses of CLIL in history lessons, reporting on Austrian teachers' views of teaching history through English, which were elicited in a questionnaire-based survey. Monika ZIEGELWAGNER's study adds supportive evidence to the advantage pointed out above: CLIL is clearly particularly valuable for intercultural learning as it allows the juxtaposition of various interpretations of a certain historical incident. This clear strength of CLIL, however, comes with a similarly relevant weakness. As with the Upper Austrian teachers surveyed in Gierlinger's report, the history teachers mentioned the lacking materials and increased preparation times as practical hurdles in undertaking CLIL, which the author rightly points out should not go unnoticed by the authorities in question, but should be responded to by increased institutional support.

After several decades of practice in many countries and of research activities which have more often than not been oriented towards national education systems, we think the time is ripe for CLIL research to emerge onto a common scene. The workshop on which this volume is based was an indication of this tendency, as is the volume itself, which features contributors from five different European countries and from Australia. Other activities are to follow. In 2006 two international conferences in Europe have featured thematic strands or seminars dedicated to classroom-based CLIL research.[6] Furthermore AILA (Association Internationale de Linguistique Appliquée) has recently accepted CLIL classroom research among its Research Networks (ReNs)[7], thus giving CLIL related research activities a truly global platform.

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[6] "CLIL Competence-building for Globalization. Quality in Teaching through a Foreign Language". Conference. Helsinki, Finland June 2006 and Seminar at the 8th ESSE Conference London, August 2006.

[7] Interested readers please contact the network coordinator Ute Smit at ute.smit@univie.ac.at or check the AILA Website (www.aila.info). The AILA World Congress in 2008 will feature a CLIL symposium.

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