Bilingual Teaching Methods

a quick reference guide for educators

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Introduction

The aim of this booklet is to provide a brief overview of the international literature relating to teaching and pedagogical methods in the context of bilingual education and bilingual classrooms, relating those practices to the education context here in Wales.

It is hoped that this booklet will be a useful reference resource for teachers as they go about planning their lessons with a view to enriching and/or developing the Welsh language skills of children, be they ready Welsh-speakers or learners at different stages of the journey.

This booklet is intended for use by teachers designing strategies for teaching in Welsh-medium schools, in bilingual schools, and for bringing pupils into contact with Welsh in English-medium schools in Wales.

These strategies will take us a step closer towards fulfilling one particular aspect of the Welsh Government's vision, namely to secure a generation of teachers who are aware of the key steps required in realizing Cymraeg: 2050, and who are research-informed:

" ...the effectiveness of any [bilingual teaching] method or approach is less influential than the skill and competence of the teacher delivering it "

Fitzpatrick et al., 2018, p.59.

2050

Content List

Important terms

Throughout this booklet your will see the following terms. Please take a moment to familairse yourself with them.

L1	first language
L2	second language

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Main Bilingual Learning/ Teaching Models

1. Monolingual Models

There is a general tendency to divide bilingual teaching models into one of two types: the type that follows a monolingual approach, on the one hand, and the type that follows a bilingual approach on the other.

2. Bilingual Models

The first of these is based on the deliberate separation of the learner's two languages within the school and classroom context in general – a practice which (if we ignore the minor translations that occur in order to increase learners' understanding) is still to be found in classrooms across Wales (Lewis et al., 2013) as well as in Canada (Byrd Clark, 2012) – "despite Wales having a progressive tradition in bilingual education, it is the case that, especially at the secondary school classroom level, there tends to be some degree of language separation rather than a considered approach to translanguaging" (Jones, 2017, p.213). In such situations, the language of teaching is often different from that of the child's first language, and opportunities to take advantage of and use their full linguistic repertoire are rare. Such models are often implemented for the purpose of language preservation; in that regard, it could be argued that such strategies are essentially intended to encourage pupils' development in the target language (such as in the immersion method), rather than representing a specific educational methodology per se (Ó Duibhir, 2018). Amongst the models that encourage language separation are what the formal academic literature refer to as the direct method, the audiolingual approach, and some aspects of CLIL models (Content and Language Integrated Learning) (Paradowski, 2017), along with some extreme versions of immersion education.

> *The idea that the target language has to be isolated from other languages in the learners' repertoire has old roots in the direct and audio-lingual methods*
>
> **Cenoz & Gorter, 2017, p. 310**

Currently in Wales, as in many other countries of the world, there is an increasing awareness of the bilingual speaker's unique linguistic profile (Grosjean, 1985) - the multi-competence that arises from learning and being able to communicate in more than one language (Cook, 1992).

The notion that bilingual speakers function as two monolinguals is incorrect, and drawing comparisons between, or to have the same expectations of second language speakers and native first language or monolingual speakers is inappropriate. By now, our recognition and understanding that bilingual speakers have two languages that not only influence each other in different ways (e.g. by transferring grammatical structures and vocabulary from one language to the other; by promoting, enriching and sometimes slowing down the development and understanding of forms in one language or the other - see Cook, 1992), but also have a more universal effect on the individual's cognitive system (see Thomas & Webb-Davies, 2017), forms a core part of the thinking that underpins effective language pedagogy.

> *the key – and indeed defining – feature that distinguishes the learning/acquisition of a foreign/second/third etc. tongue from first language acquisition... is the presence of at least one other linguistic system in the speaker's mind*
>
> **Paradowski, 2017, p. 3**

In that respect, learning a language is very similar to learning anything else: when coming across new information, the brain is able to relate that piece of information to existing information and expand knowledge – accommodating and assimilating information as Piaget would put it. When learning a second language or developing two languages simultaneously, the bilingual can benefit from his/her ability to compare and contrast - across their two languages - different words, phrases, sounds and structures, and discover differences in meanings attached to those forms. This develops an awareness of the vast extent of languages - *"what languages are, how they work, how they are used and can be learnt" (Paradowski, 2017, p. 141)* – referred to in the literature as metalinguistic skills - skills that influence strongly the child's later linguistic successes (Carlisle, Beeman, Davis & Spharim, 1999).

There is, therefore, an increasing emphasis on the second type of bilingual teaching model, suggesting that practices have moved away from strict language separation and towards approaches and models that allow, promote and encourage a mix of languages in the classroom (Lewis et al., 2012), reflecting more accurately the learner's real-life experiences. This does not mean that there is no key role for Welsh-medium education! On the contrary, 'immersing' children in Welsh is essential, and ensuring frequent opportunities to see, hear, process and use the language naturally is crucial if the language is to thrive. In such contexts, bilingual teaching methods serve to enrich pupils' experience of being educated primarily through a minority language, with the ultimate goals of ensuring that learners become confident bilinguals.

Those models that tend towards bilingualism vary, and include a wide range of practices that can be more, or less, formal, structured or spontaneous, derive from deliberate planning on the part of the teacher or depend on pupils' chosen language, some of which will feature in this booklet.

This booklet will therefore focus on the second model type - pedagogical approaches and strategies that allow access to and awareness of the learner's linguistic experience and background, whilst helping them develop into confident bilingual speakers.

Methods of Interaction

Teaching knowledge or a subject (the 'content') through the medium of a language that is new to a child (the linguistic medium) is challenging, and the **linguistic interaction between the teacher and the child is key**, not only for the purpose of identifying the child's achievements linguistically and intellectually, but also in terms of encouraging the child's continued use of the language.

> *Teachers in immersion schools act as both content teachers and language teachers and they attempt to create naturalistic conditions similar to those in which L1 learning takes place*
>
> **Ó Duibhir, 2018, p. 55**

> *The informal context of the early years classrooms lends itself well to naturalistic speech and interaction amongst children. However, at this early age, many of the children lack sufficient conversational abilities in Welsh which means that for those who are lacking exposure to Welsh outside school, the only way to converse fully with another child (and also with the teacher) is in English*
>
> **Thomas, Lewis & Apolloni, 2012, p. 255**

A. Language correction:
Targeting appropriate use of Welsh

If a child's utterance is ungrammatical in Welsh, if they use an incorrect word for a particular meaning, or if they over-use (or are over- or totally dependent on) another language, it is good practice to respond by discussing the correct meaning or the appropriate form by resorting to one of the following (Lyster & Rannta, 1997 – from Ó Duihbir, 2018, p 43):

Explicit correction	Correcting the utterance
Recasts	The teacher recasts the utterance without repeating the 'error'.
Clarification requests	Communicate to the child that the utterance is not comprehensible to the teacher or that the utterance is poorly formed and that it is necessary to re-present or reconstruct it.
Metalinguistic feedback	Discuss by questioning, commenting or sharing information relating to the appropriateness of the utterance without presenting the target form.
Elicitation of another response	This may involve asking the child directly to re-present the utterance; re-presenting part of the utterance to the child and encouraging him/her to complete the utterance; asking the child directly which form is most appropriate for the utterance, etc.
Repetition	Repeating and drawing specific attention to the divergence from the target form/meaning.

Lyster et al. (e.g., Lyster & Rannta, 1997; Lyster & Mori, 2006), found that recasts were the most frequent feedback used by teachers. Recasts were considered to be effective as it encourages the pupil to concentrate on form. However, this type of approach is likely to be more effective with older rather than younger children - children who have a relatively good grasp of at least one language system - and there is plenty of evidence that correcting the utterance of very young children, even by encouraging them to imitate the exact same sentences when corrected, is difficult (see example from McNeill, 1966).

Child:	**Nobody don't like me.**
Mother:	**No, say 'nobody likes me'.**
Child:	**Nobody don't like me.**
this interchange repeated eight times!	
Mother:	**No, now listen carefully; say 'nobody likes me'.**
Child:	**Oh! Nobody don't likes me.**

McNeill, 1966

When to 'correct'?

It is not possible to 'correct' every divergence from the target form by every pupil in every lesson. Doing so would not only reduce the time for focusing on lesson content and the child's conceptual understanding of the subject, but would also destroy the pupil's self-confidence.

Correcting a child (individually, or in front of others) directly can also have a negative effect on their self-confidence, by sending a clear message that his/her Welsh, despite their best efforts, is not good enough.

This is why it is important to discuss the utterance with the child in a constructive manner, and to do so **after** receiving the child's utterance and his/her attempt to communicate in Welsh.

The utterance the child produced can be discussed in a sensitive and more constructive manner by comparing and contrasting other utterance forms that carry the same target meaning, thereby nurturing those critical metalinguistic skills that will contribute to further language skills in due course.

B. Discourse strategies

Monolingual discourse strategies	Bilingual discourse strategy
Declaration of an inability to understand the child's English utterance or insisting that the child use the target language (Welsh)	Accepting – no matter in which language – the child's utterance and continuing the conversation bilingually

In contexts where the lesson/education is through the child's second language, there is often a tendency for the child to rely on his/her first language when responding orally.

When this occurs in conversation the teacher has three obvious choices: encourage or insist the child respond in his/her second language; accept the utterance and continue to converse (either in the child's second language or by turning to his/her first language); or a combination of both.

Example:

Monolingual discourse strategy
(a fictitious example)

Teacher:	**Oes gen ti glustffonau?**
	'Do you have earphones?'
Child:	**I don't need them**
Teacher:	**Yn Gymraeg os gwelwch yn dda**
	'In Welsh please'
	or
Teacher:	**Sut mae dweud hynny yn Gymraeg?**
	'How does one say that in Welsh?'

Bilingual discourse strategy
(example from Thomas, Lewis & Apolloni, 2012)

Teacher:	**Oes gen ti glustffonau?**
	'Do you have earphones?'
Child:	**I don't need them**
Teacher:	**Ond mae pawb arall isio i ti ddefnyddio nhw**
	'But everyone else wants you to use them'
Child:	**There's no sound**

Advantages/Disadvantages
(Thomas, Lewis & Apolloni, 2012)

	Advantages	Disadvantages
Bilingual discourse strategy	• Child knows they are understood • Child demonstrates what they understand of the language they are hearing • Child is not made to feel uncomfortable for having used their stronger L1 or to feel humiliated for getting the Welsh 'wrong'. • Such sensitivity is important	• This type of strategy does nothing to encourage the child's active use of spoken Welsh
Monolingual discourse strategy	• It is possible to follow the strategies mentioned above (obvious correction; recasts, etc.) when encouraging the use of Welsh • Child is provided with an opportunity to use their oral skills in Welsh • Teacher is indicating that they know that the child can speak Welsh	• Child may feel humiliated for not having the skills to respond so well in Welsh • Child may feel uncomfortable for having used their stronger L1 • Child can feel forced rather than encouraged to use their Welsh teachers need to be cautious in their chosen language • Child's home language (and therefore their culture/heritage) is disrespected

" *Penalising the learner for using her/his L1 may be sensed as down-grading its status, making it 'inferior', which is an insensitive and inconsiderate approach* "

Paradowski, 2017, p. 201

Recommendations for good practice

• One could hold a bilingual conversation with a child, especially a young child who has a weaker grasp of the language, and compliment the child afterwards for having the ability to hold such a conversation – a signal that they understand Welsh. At the end of the conversation, a short discussion could take place regarding appropriate vocabulary and expressions should the child respond in Welsh.

• As the child becomes older this conversation can take place bilingually, followed by a discussion of relevant Welsh vocabulary and expressions, before carrying out the same conversation once again, this time by encouraging the child to hold the whole conversation in Welsh.

• It is possible to keep a record of the types of expressions children tend to present in English over Welsh, to identify any specific forms that may require attention.

Ultimately, encouraging extended use of the target language is a fundamental part of bilingual education.

We will look at this aspect in the next section.

C. Teacher input – child output:
creating opportunities to produce extended language

> "...it has been observed that the teacher does most of the talking in content-oriented classes with pupils having little opportunity for sustained production"
>
> **Ó Duibhir, 2018, p. 36**

> "Listening to teacher input and engaging with written material in Welsh allow children to develop a working knowledge of the language, particularly in terms of literacy and the development of academic vocabulary, but this alone is not enough to ensure productive mastery of the language and to develop the underlying confidence to use the language in any situation, which many children lack"
>
> **Thomas, Lewis & Apolloni, 2012, p. 257**

The classroom does not provide the second language learner with the same breadth of linguistic experiences as he/she experienced when learning his/her first language. Consequently,

> *one cannot expect that there will be the same opportunities for output or for the diversity of input required*
>
> ***Ó Duibhir, 2018, p. 36***

However, school classrooms in Wales offers the opportunity not only to ensure children experience constant contact with Welsh, but also to encourage them to produce and formulate responses in the form of extended language, and to consider methods and appropriate use of those responses in different situations and in different domains.

Studies show a relation between the extent of time a child spends hearing (input) and speaking a language (output), and his/her proficiency in that language. Language input includes what is spoken by others (adults and children's peers), and what the child hears him-/herself produce.

Eliciting extended sentences from children therefore adds to and facilitates the relationship between input and output, and provides exposure to more complex forms of the language.

The essence of this is that there needs to be a focus on learning Welsh in an active manner, not passively, encouraging children to contribute through extended language to conversations and activities both in and outside school.

In terms of pedagogical methods, then, the focus here is on the teachers' use of Welsh, particularly in terms of formulating questions for the class or individual children, which provide an opportunity for children to respond and communicate by using extended sentences/answers in Welsh.

Research by Ramírez et al. (1991):
observing the interaction between teacher and child in immersion classes in the USA:

In over half of cases children's responses involved non-verbal responses and gestures.	When responding with language, those responses often included expressions the children knew from memory (e.g. one-word answers), or the repetition of parts of the teacher's question, thereby diminishing the need for the children to produce and formulate new expressions for themselves.

Responding in this way can have a negative effect on children's general cognitive/academic development. If the pedagogic format allows passive interaction with what is being taught, the experience of dealing with and manipulating complex higher-order thinking - which is essential for academic development – becomes somewhat of a rarity.

The following represents findings from a study that conducted intensive observations of the interactions between pairs of interlocutors (teacher–child and child–child) in three classes in each of 10 schools across Wales.

The frequency of types of interactions observed during 30 minute blocks are presented in the table below (Thomas, Lewis & Apolloni, 2012) *:

	Type of Child	Extended language	One-word responses	Non-verbal, gestural responses	Responses in English
Children in teacher–child interactions	L1 child: girl	134	59	12	0
	L1 child: boy	143	64	3	2
	L2 child: girl	188	101	3	55
	L2 child: boy	168	93	8	61
Children in child–child interactions	L1 child's response: girl	193	15	0	39
	L1 child's response: boy	219	17	0	45
	L2 child's response: girl	230	15	0	273
	L2 child's response: boy	207	8	0	329

*Note that the number of utterances varied according to the nature of the task given to the pupils.

Interesting observations emerging from the study:

- Gestural, non-verbal responses were rare, which suggests children in Wales do respond orally when questioned.

- L1 and L2 children – male and female – were given opportunities to respond in the form of extended speech, and did so more frequently than they used one-word responses.

- However, children s responses did vary, with the extent of this variation linked to the linguistic dynamics of the area where the school was located, and on the number of speakers and the linguistic dynamics between L1 and L2 speakers in the class.

- There were ample opportunities to respond in the form of extended language when speaking with peers, although there were also plenty of opportunities when speaking with the teacher.

- English responses were rarer among children from Welsh-speaking families when speaking with the teacher – greater when speaking with their peers.

- When the majority of children in a class was from non-Welsh-speaking homes, there was a tendency to use more English when responding to teachers questions, with even children from non-Welsh-speaking homes often responding in English in that context.

- Younger children, 4- to 7 years-old, who had no contact with Welsh outside school, tended to respond and chat in English, despite Welsh-language instructions.

- Among peers, this tendency on the part of children from non-Welsh-speaking backgrounds was even stronger, and, to a greater extent, formed the socializing norm.

- Girls tended to make more use of Welsh than boys.

- L2 children tended to migrate toward each other when undertaking group work, with a tendency for L1 children to work together too:

" *In some cases, young 4- and 5-year-old L1 Welsh-speaking children may also be limited in their knowledge of English. In some classrooms, for this reason, L1 children may continue to address the L2 child in Welsh and the L2 child may continue to address the L1 child in English. When possible, they seem to choose to interact with others who speak their preferred language well*

....

In some cases, the teacher would remind children to use Welsh in the classroom. When this happened, those using English usually changed to using Welsh; however, they soon reverted back into English "

Thomas, Lewis & Apolloni, 2012, p. 255

When the teacher is not overseeing or directly contributing to an activity, it is difficult to ensure that children will continue to use Welsh, unless a specific task is set (see Translaguaging, and Task-based Learning).

Examples of good practice seen among teachers:

Follow-up from a one-word response question to a question eliciting an extended response

Be ydi hwn?
'What is this?'

Lle mae . . .
'Where is . . .',

Pa wlad ydi . . .
'Which country is . . .',

Oes ganddyn nhw . . .
'Do they have . . .',

O be maen nhw'n adeiladu eu tai?
'From what do they build their houses?' etc.

Be maen nhw'n ei wneud i gael bwyd yno?
'What do they do to get food there?'

Pa fath o fraw gaethoch chi?
'What kind of a 'scare' did you have?'

Be 'dach chi wedi'i ddysgu o ddarllen hyn?
'What have you learned from reading this?'

Adapting information

When communicating with a class of children from different language backgrounds, teachers formed questions by translating some key elements, such as individual words (rather than repeating the entire sentence in the other language).

Although this helps ensure that each child in the class understands the information provided, it is doubtful as to whether children will use/remember the term in Welsh rather than in English without encouragement or a specific reason to repeat it, or without having a wider discussion about the term that would help lead to its co-activation alongside the English term within the neural networks of the brain.

When children responded in Welsh but with English vocabulary (e.g. Miss, 'di X ddim yn shario! 'Miss, X isn't sharing!' Miss, mae X wedi give hwnne i Y 'Miss, X has given that to Y'), the teacher tended to respond by asking whether the child meant 'rhannu/share' or 'rhoi/give', or by asking them to say the word/phrase in Welsh.

A 'monolingual' strategy of this kind can increase the child's awareness that a Welsh form exists and that it is possible to express their intended meaning in Welsh. However, these example demonstrate the child's lack of awareness of (or inability to remember) some verbs or verb forms in Welsh, and the discussion could be followed-up by talking about the different forms of the verb, comparing how the same meaning can be expressed in full in Welsh and in English, etc.
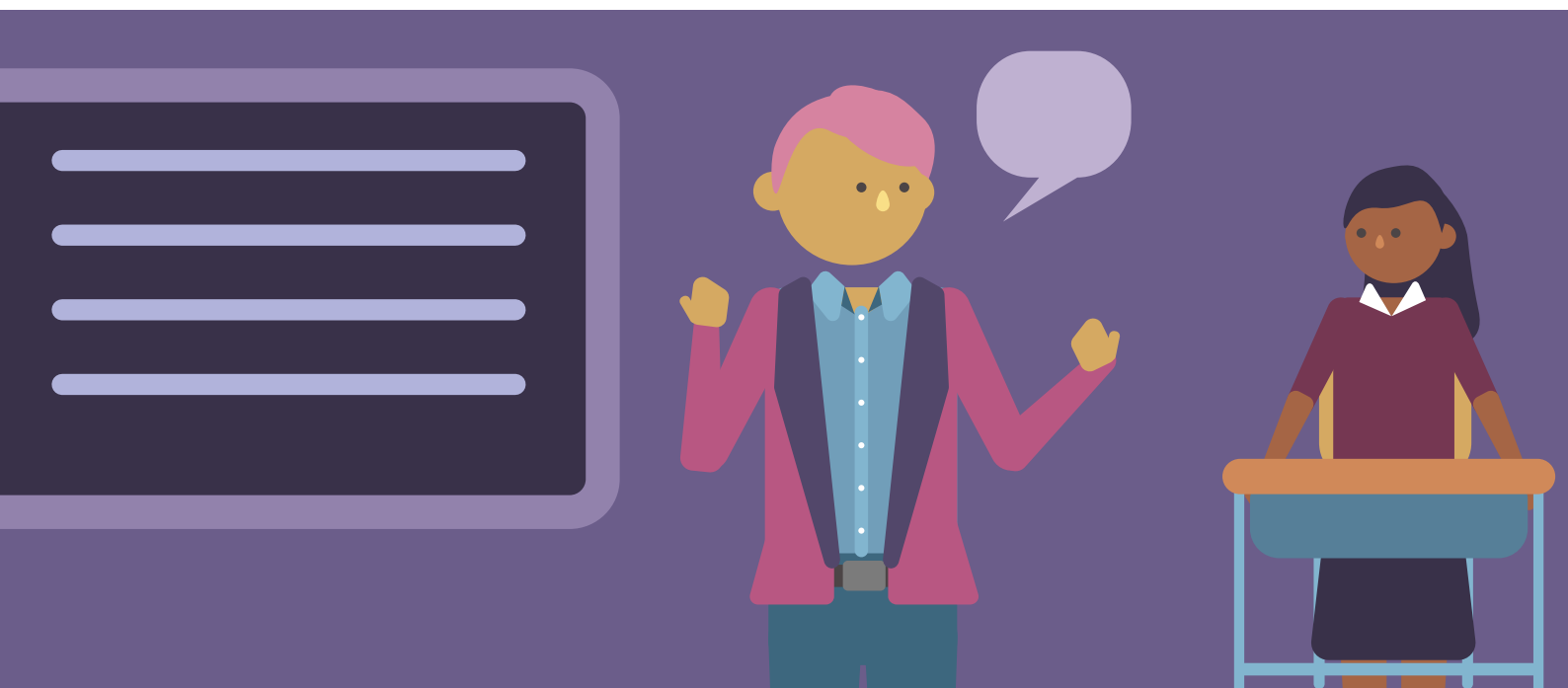
Recommendations
(from Thomas, Lewis & Apolloni, 2012, p.257–258):

- When addressing the class as a whole, the teacher can subtly address some errors in production (which all children access) by reiterating the child's answer in the appropriate way whilst continuing the conversation with the child, thus accepting and expanding further on the child's response. Since the language of interaction between children often changes into English when engaged in group work (see below), providing children with modelled ways of expressing themselves in Welsh (beyond single-word responses) during the whole class address may encourage children to continue to express themselves via complex extended speech during peer–peer work activity, particularly for those for whom Welsh is their L2.

- Carefully pre-selected work-pairs that rotate throughout the year would be one way of ensuring linguistic enrichment amongst L1–L1 pairings (see e.g. Lewis 2004), encouraging minority language use amongst L1–L2 speakers, and careful selection of pair-work activity (e.g. a requirement to produce a short verbal report of their activity to the class at the end of the session/end of the day) with regular monitoring of language use by the teacher would ensure target language development amongst L2–L2 pairings.

- Group-work activity should ideally involve mixed groups of boys and girls where possible, including a mixture of L1 and L2 children (if there is enough of a variety in the classroom). Boys clearly need more encouragement to use their Welsh and need structured activities that relate to male interests that require oral fluency in the language. Having a 'feedback' goal to an activity could allow for the purposeful selection of one boy per group to report – in Welsh – to the class about the process of completing their task, another to report on the findings, another to report on limitations of what they did or how they did it, or how else they could have solved the problem, etc. Such activities would compel the boys to discuss their work with their peers in Welsh in order to achieve that goal.

- Promoting the use of Welsh amongst L2 speakers is a clear objective for all schools. However, encouraging L1 children to use Welsh with their L2 peers is key to the fulfilment of such an objective in order that they become willing facilitators of a 'language monitor'-type role. Raising awareness of the importance of speaking Welsh and of the benefits of being bilingual in the multicultural and multilingual world we live in is paramount to this goal and should be encouraged and supported.

- Teachers need to be vigilant (but not demanding or prescriptive) about children's use of language in their activities, aiming to allow L1 children time to work/ play with other L1 speakers for the purpose of language enrichment, whilst giving L1 children a 'facilitator' role in encouraging use of Welsh in mixed language pairings.

- Groups of L2 speakers or L2–L2 pairings need constant intervention from the teacher/teacher assistant in order to keep the children's Welsh active, in the spoken as much as in the receptive and written domains.

Translanguaging

> ...a pedagogical practice that alternates the use of Welsh and English for input and output in the same lesson. The idea is to get information in one language and to work with that information in the other language
>
> **Cenoz & Gorter, 2017, p. 311**

Definition/background/aim

According to García (2009), Translanguaging, in the original sense, occurs where the input of the lesson (the receptive/passive skills, e.g. reading materials, the teacher's speech) and the output (the productive language skills, e.g. written work, group discussion) are intentionally planned and varied across the different languages.

According to Lewis et al. (2012), this variety allows the child to make use of his/her stronger language in order to promote development of his/her weaker language, thereby enriching understanding, which can contribute to greater proficiency in both languages.

The cognitive skills that are triggered when using two languages simultaneously are different from the skills triggered when reading, listening, speaking and processing one language, and develop Executive Function skills such as information management, choosing and selecting information, qualifying and assimilating information, etc. - key skills which are often strongest among speakers of more than one language.

As is the case with translation, translanguaging requires a deep understanding of the language and the content of the input material if the meaning of that content is to be effectively communicated in the output language. Unlike translating, however, which is a temporary activity which requires recalling and recognising equivalent vocabulary and phrases with the main purpose (in the classroom) of increasing the capacity to work in the second language (Lewis et al, 2013), the task of translanguaging requires deep processing, as well as the exchange of meaning which enriches language development and contributes in due course to the development of the learner's meta-linguistic skills.

The term, and its related connotations, is rooted in the pedagogical tradition, particularly in minority language contexts, although the term has since been adopted to refer to the complex and unique language behaviour of the multilingual.

The aim of translanguaging as an educational approach is to address the fact that children who receive their education in Welsh (or in any other language) are likely to access educational information by various means (and of various types) in English (or in another language, such as Welsh), whilst also recognising that omitting a child's first language is more damaging to the development of his second language than allowing the child to take advantage of his skills in both languages. However, many are of the opinion that translanguaging permits an increasing use of English in the classroom, thereby posing a threat to pupils' development of Welsh.

Baker (2006) claims that translanguaging offers a deeper understanding of a subject than that provided in a monolingual context, where students can write about a topic without fully understanding it. With translanguaging, processing information is essential if it is to be re-presented in another language. It is also claimed that translanguaging helps to develop verbal communication and literacy in the weaker language and that it serves as a means of integrating L1 and L2 speakers. A further advantage is that it offers the opportunity for monolingual parents to discuss and contribute to their children s school work although the work occurs in a language they do not understand, as translanguaging leads to the processing and communication of information between languages.

Its use in the classroom

Translanguaging is used largely amongst children aged 7 - 11 rather than amongst younger children, probably due to the need to focus on Welsh immersion methods during the early years, and a lack of awareness on the part of L1 Welsh children of English, and of L1 English children of Welsh, in the 4 - 7 age group.

Evidence shows that translanguaging tends to be more typical in certain subjects than others. In one study it was seen to be used in 16.7% of the Mathematics and Science lessons, but in 72.2% of Arts and Humanities lessons observed. This can stem from a variety of factors, for instance the greater availability of written texts that can be read in one language then analysed in the other, in, for example, a geography lesson, as well as the perception that subjects such as maths are more international and carry less local emphasis, thus justifying a greater use of English.

Different models:

There are different models of translanguaging, such as teacher-led and child-led translanguaging.

The former occurs with the teacher's support either for new bilingual speakers, when the teacher suggests which language should be used to complete the task and offers elements of scaffolding, or for competent bilingual speakers, when the teacher offers suggestions only.

Student-led translanguaging occurs where those students are competent speakers, and able to arrange their language skills when receiving and producing information.

In both cases it is possible to use translanguaging cues to scaffold the child's use of his/her weaker language in order to ensure that the activity is then undertaken in the target language – e.g. by helping the child form appropriate responses in Welsh, or by designing a template of the appropriate syntax. This can come either via the teacher or via another pupil with stronger skills in the language.

Teacher-led

Child-led

An example of **teacher-led** translanguaging:

A Religious Education Class of 7 - 9 and 9 - 11 year olds, with mixed L1 and new L2 speakers. The subject of the lesson was the Jewish festival of Hanukkah. The teacher had prepared an English worksheet. The task was to write facts based on the worksheet in Welsh. To do this, the teacher helped the children when reading the English sheet, then showed them models for sentence patterns to be used for the writing task, providing scaffolding for the new bilingual speakers.

An example of **student-led** translanguaging:

A History lesson in a class of 9-11 year olds, L1 and L2 balanced bilinguals. The topic of the lesson was Stone Age eating habits. Students had received English information from the teacher taken from the internet, and used listening and reading skills to process the information. The results were recorded in Welsh, using Welsh terms without the use of a dictionary. The results were presented to the class in Welsh.

Translanguaging in the classroom

Within the classroom, two other layers of translanguaging can be found – translanguaging without a specific pedagogical aim (Basic Interpersonal Translanguaging – BIT) and translanguaging for learning and teaching (Cognitive Academic Translanguaging – CAT) (Jones, 2017). Although both types overlap naturally within the class, it is essential that teachers ensure opportunities for pupils to use translanguaging skills in pedagogical contexts (in relation to a specific piece of work or information) and in non-pedagogical contexts (such as within personal interactions).

Advantages/Disadvantages

Translanguaging makes extensive use of English as an input language (English reading and listening materials), encouraging children to discuss and present work based on those materials through Welsh.

Consequently, some teachers are unwilling to adopt it as an approach to teaching, in order to maintain and protect the use of the minority language, fearing that the use of English texts may lead to an increased use of English in the classroom.

On the other hand, the lack of online information in Welsh means the number and range of lessons that can be based on Welsh language input are limited. Ensuring a constant balance in terms of the kind of information or activity that is presented in one or the other language is therefore difficult.

Translanguaging can work well in Wales particularly in contexts where there are students with a good grasp of both languages.

The variety of English material provides a wide range of possibilities for translanguaging between the two languages.

Examples of good practice

- It is possible to prepare and plan lessons in detail using the translanguaging strategy, fine-tuning it so as to focus on different aspects of the same task. For instance, in classes that contain different ages and a mix of bilingual L1 and L2 speakers, lesson tasks can also be varied, allowing older children with a better command of both languages to expand their activity, for instance by working independently and extending their work (e.g. by comparing Hanukkah with Christmas in the case of the example above), turning to further written material in English before recording their results on the computer in Welsh.

- This ability to adapt material is important if we consider the variety of language contexts that exist throughout Wales. The relationship between Welsh as a minority language and English as a majority language can have a positive (enriching children's bilingual skills) or a negative influence (by hindering development of Welsh) on children's language ability and their perceptions of each language, if the balance between the two languages is not suitable within the given context. It would be good practice therefore to consider the balance between the individual's two languages, between the two languages in the classroom and within the larger community, in order to design suitable translanguaging strategies.

- Providing translanguaging cues (scaffolding) is important for encouraging the use of Welsh, for ensuring that Welsh is being developed while carrying out the task, and for providing sufficient opportunities for children to have to consider for themselves how to convey and express themselves fully in the target language. This can include relating the meaning of a word to its form in one language and then transferring that information to the other language (e.g. discussing the meaning of 'canran'/'percentage' – a part of a hundred – in Welsh when discussing the word 'percent' in English – Jones, 2017).

Cymraeg Bob Dydd
Incidental Welsh

> *Welsh–English bilingual children in Wales acquire English regardless of the medium of instruction at school, language experience in the home and in the community or the child's own engagement with using the language. However, their acquisition of Welsh, at least for certain aspects of the language, is dependent on a number of factors, including: the frequency of exposure they have to the language in the home, at school and in the community; their own engagement with using the language; and their motivation to learn...The school experience is thus critical for the transmission of Welsh to these children, but the success of this transmission is contingent upon the child's own use of Welsh both inside and outside of the school gates*

Thomas, Lewis & Apolloni, 2012, p. 246

Definition/background/aim

The aim of Cymraeg Bob Dydd is to present simple, everyday Welsh within all subject lessons across the curriculum in English-medium schools with a view to encourage pupils to learn new Welsh words in an implicit way.

Notable researchers such as García (see her volume Bilingual Education in the 21st Century) have argued for many years that we must move away from traditional pedagogical approaches wherein languages are kept apart. The aim of Cymraeg Bob Dydd, therefore, is to present the Welsh language alongside English as a means of normalising the use of Welsh outside Welsh lessons.

Schools were specifically requested to implement Cymraeg Bob Dydd following a report by Sioned Davies (2012) which suggested that schools should introduce Welsh across the curriculum.

The concept of Cymraeg Bob Dydd is very important for the development of Welsh within English-medium education. In contexts where pupils learn Welsh as a subject, learning words outside the lesson is critical in forming a base for language development, and Cymraeg Bob Dydd allows for this in a simple and effortless way.

Most pupils in English-medium schools come from homes where there is no exposure to the Welsh language. It is at school therefore that they come across the vast majority of the language. By introducing Cymraeg Bob Dydd, children hear and see the language outside formal Welsh lessons, thereby demonstrating that the language is not restricted to that lesson, but rather that it is something that can become normalised in everyday life.

The science behind this approach stems from claims that children can learn a large number of new words (around 1000) through formal, explicit education, but that once a stock of vocabulary has been acquired, new vocabulary can be learned (and added to the stock) effortlessly, without children being aware that they are learning. The claim therefore is that Cymraeg Bob Dydd will serve to expand on what the pupil learns formally (and explicitly) in the Welsh lesson by exposing the children - without excessively drawing their attention to it - to vocabulary and simple grammatical forms during other lessons.

It is thought that 'incidental' learning of this kind is an easy way of learning as it doesn't require much effort on the part of the pupils (Saffran et al., 1997).

Its use in the classroom

According to an evaluation by Parry & Thomas (in progress) of Cymraeg Bob Dydd in secondary schools, the use of Cymraeg Bob Dydd that was observed can be divided into five separate categories:

Framing the lesson	The use of Welsh was seen frequently when starting and closing lessons, with examples such as 'p'nawn da'/'good afternoon' and 'dewch i mewn'/'come in' heard often.
Fixed phrases	As with phrases used to open and close lessons, there were some phrases during the lesson that also arose frequently, such as 'yma'/'here' when answering the register, and teachers asking 'Oes unrhyw un eisiau...?'/'Does anyone want...?' These phrases were repeated several times, which coincides with research showing that the more often words are repeated the better they will stay in memory (Huckin & Coady, 1999).
Cassroom management	Occasionally the use of Welsh was evident when controlling classroom behaviour. Examples of this were commands such as 'Eisteddwch i lawr'/'Sit down' and 'Tri, dau, un...'/'Three, two, one...' when trying to get pupils to be quiet.
Bilingual Discourse Strategies (translation and code-switching)	In subject lessons the teacher could be heard translating, saying something in Welsh first and then saying the same thing in English. Arguably, this method is not likely to help the child remember new words as he/she will naturally tend to listen to the English version. During Welsh lessons (Welsh as a subject), examples of code-switching could be heard, e.g. 'go into chwech o grwpiau' ('go into six groups'). This shows Welsh words being introduced into an English-language situation, enabling pupils to make sense of the words in Welsh. This is a particular way of teaching new words when the target language is in itself an obstacle to learning, as it combines new words with a language pupils are already familiar with (Greggio & Gil, 2007).
Visual aids	In each school, the bilingual use of wall space was particularly effective. This meant not only that pupils are exposed to Welsh through listening, but visually also.

Advantages/Disadvantages

- Research shows that aspects of the brain - and therefore of our cognition - continue to develop throughout life.

- This means that the way we learn will be different at different stages of our lives.

- Whilst young children, whose brains develop quickly, have the capacity to learn implicitly, older children (especially of secondary school age) tend to learn better via more explicit methods (Spada & Tomita, 2010).

- When we consider that Cymraeg Bob Dydd is essentially an implicit tool (with the expectation that pupils absorb Welsh without too much effort), it is necessary to ensure effective follow-up to the use of Welsh if older children are to gain from this exposure.

- Often, in English-medium secondary school, and particularly in eastern parts of Wales, teachers themselves are unable to speak Welsh or lack confidence in doing do. Some teachers may become excessively worried about having to present in Welsh, a feeling which, in turn, may affect their mental health, influence teaching standards and, consequently, undermine children's achievements (Barber & Mourshed, 2007). But you do not have to be fluent in Welsh to present Cymraeg Bob Dydd. With careful planning and appropriate training, everyone can have a part to play in fulfilling this goal.

- The number of times an individual hears a word will influence how well they will remember it (Huckin & Coady, 1999) – the more often the better! Cymraeg Bob Dydd gives teachers the opportunity to repeat appropriate vocabulary and phrases for different contexts over and over (e.g. when framing the lesson, or controlling behaviour), which is a way of establishing information about those forms within a specific context.

- In order to further develop children's skills, it is necessary to move on and vary phrases/vocabulary used relatively regularly, so that children's vocabulary and their extended phrases progress beyond what is taught in the Welsh lessons.

- Although this method is best suited to developing children's vocabulary, it is possible, through effective planning, to expose children to different grammatical forms also (e.g. Pwy sydd wedi gwneud eu gwaith cartref? Who has done their homework? Lle mae dy waith cartref? Where is your homework? Wnest ti gwblhau dy waith cartref? Did you finish your homework? Ydi pawb wedi cwblhau gwaith cartref? Has everyone finished their homework? Beth oedd y gwaith cartref? What was the homework? etc.).

- Approaches of this kind tend to focus too much on increasing children's exposure to a language, focusing far less on eliciting responses form children in the target language. Once again, with careful planning, it is possible to ensure that children receive sufficient encouragement - through scaffolding, where appropriate - to respond orally, or in writing, in Welsh.

Good practice:

- In order to encourage more explicit learning in the classroom, the teacher can draw learners' attention to target structures within the lesson, or encourage learners to discover structures by themselves before checking them later with the teacher.

- It must be ensured that Cymraeg Bob Dydd gives pupils the opportunity and the encouragement to produce oral verbal responses in Welsh that will lead to the pupils producing statements in Welsh voluntarily. This is done by providing constructive feedback and a supportive atmosphere to ensure continuous and consistent use of Welsh.

- Students who concentrate their learning on specific words or terms are much more likely to remember those words than reading texts containing those words alone:

> *Focusing attention and intentional learning activity on form and meaning of individual vocabulary items enhances vocabulary uptake, but this must be strategically applied*
>
> *Fitzpatrick et al., 2018, p. 35*

Modelling native language

" In societies where two languages coexist but one dominates
over the other in terms of prestige, number of speakers,
and/or domains of use, gaining enough native input and
exposure to the "minority" language is a challenge. As a
result, children learning a minority language as an L2 often
fail to achieve fluency, retaining only passive or "incomplete"
knowledge of that language... In the face of these
challenges, therefore, it is necessary to turn to alternative
sources of minority language input as means of supporting
L2 acquisition when native-speaker input is limited "

Williams & Thomas, 2017, p. 2

In situations where access to native speakers is
limited, two alternative sources of native language
input include printed language (e.g. books) and
recorded oral language (e.g. television).

There are valid concerns about the potential negative consequences
of over-exposure to television and electronic devices. However, there
is evidence to show that watching television whilst interacting with
an adult can aid the development of children s vocabulary.
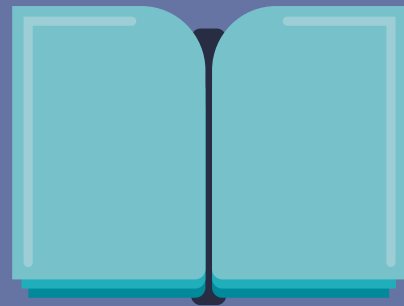
Some facts
(from Williams & Thomas, 2017, p2-3):

Co-reading books:

Shared book reading (or storytelling) provides
children with a rich source of linguistic input.

Shared book reading with young children has been shown
to develop vocabulary (Collins, 2005; Farrant & Zubrick,
2012, 2013; Robbins & Ehri, 1994; Sénéchal & Cornell, 1993;
Sénéchal, LeFevre, Hudson, & Lawson, 1996), develop problem-
solving abilities (Murray & Egan, 2014), trigger higher levels
of frontal brain activation (Ohgi, Loo, & Mizuike, 2010), and
help develop reading skills (Burgess, 1997; Lonigan, Anthony,
Bloomfield, Dyer, & Samwel, 1999; Reese & Cox, 1999).

In addition to the benefits of shared book reading, story books
have been shown to contain far more examples of lower
frequency, complex structures than does Child Directed Speech
(speech directed toward the child in normal day-to-day
interactions). Stories thus offer an additional level of richness
to a child's linguistic input.

Joint attention has long been identified as a precursor to later
linguistic development (e.g. Tomasello & Farrar, 1986), and shared
book reading provides an easy context for dyadic interaction.

Co-watching television programmes:

There is mixed evidence regarding the effects of television viewing on child development.

Some are of the opinion that it is harmful – that it delays language development, reduces the ability to concentrate, leads to a loss of interest at school, and may lead to several behavioural problems (Ohgi et al., 2010; Paquette & Rieg, 2008; Paradis, 2010).

Others claim that watching television - for specific periods of time - leads to enhanced cognitive skills, including numeracy and literacy, better reading skills, better social skills and an improved knowledge of vocabulary (Mares & Pan, 2013; Calvert et al., 2001; Linebarger, 2000; Rice, Huston, Truglio & Wright, 1990; Wright et al., 2001).

Communicating about the contents of a television programme provides an opportunity to draw and hold the child's attention. This is done through the use of non-verbal activities as well as word repetition (names, prepositions, verbs, and so on), for instance by singing, dancing, and drawing. There is therefore a variety of verbal and non-verbal input, which increases the opportunity for children to grasp language patterns.

Unlike co-viewing of television programmes, story-telling is a more limited activity, with the teacher's telling of a story the main input, restricting children to more passive activities.

The benefit gained from interacting on tasks, whether in storytelling or co-viewing of television, is restricted specifically to vocabulary. There is no clear evidence that this approach is beneficial for grammar, although a clear connection has been shown to exist between recognising and paying attention to the prosodic elements of language and later grammatical development:

> " *Attention to prosodic features (e.g. rhyme, rhythm) in oral input can aid the development of grammatical competence* "
>
> *Fitzpatrick et al., 2018, p. 38*

Recommendations for good practice
(from Williams & Thomas, 2017, see p. 14 & 19)

- As social environmental factors are key in providing children with a rich vocabulary, complex structures, and communicative interaction (Hoff, 2006; Tomasello, 2000), engaging with a responsive partner is all the more important. In a busy classroom where teacher–child interaction is not possible, "talking books" (Chambers, Cheung, Madden, Slavin, & Gifford, 2006; Chera & Wood, 2003) have also been shown to help develop children's literacy skills, in the same way as "interactive" computer games may also lead to enhanced phonological awareness among "at-risk" children (Barker & Torgesen, 1995).

- In the case of television, real-life social interaction with an adult during viewing has been shown to lead to better verb learning among 30-month-old children, although older children (age 3+) seem able to learn verbs from video alone (Roseberry, Hirsh-Pasek, Parish-Morris, & Golinkoff, 2009). This was also found in the Williams & Thomas (2017) study.

- According to Singer and Singer (1998), preschoolers who watched 10 preselected episodes of Barney and Friends over a period of 2 to 3 weeks in a daycare setting showed gains in their vocabulary when compared to children who did not watch the same Barney episodes. Their gains were even larger if children participated in 30-minute lessons about the episodes after viewing, suggesting that the learning experience from television is enhanced through interactive dialogue around the content that is viewed. Teachers should aim to be actively engaged with pupils if such media is used in order to receive the full benefits offered by such an exercise. Nonetheless, some studies maintain that these benefits are achievable regardless of adult mediation (for a short review, see Hoff, 2006).

- It should be ensured that watching television for extended periods is a shared activity, where there is constant communication and discussion between child and teacher. Having said that, making use of television programmes rather than telling stories at the end of the day can be a valuable way of providing contact with the minority language where the teacher does not feel confident enough to tell stories in Welsh.

- The nature of the programmes viewed is important, with some offering a wider range of vocabulary and language than others.

- While co-viewing television programmes, children are encouraged to draw, sing, move and repeat words and gestures related to what is being seen. Classroom activities can be designed to accompany the contents of programmes, focusing for example on actions/gestures/movements in order to learn verbs.

Content and Language Integrated Learning

> " *CLIL is about using a foreign language or a lingua franca, not a second language (L2). That is, the language of instruction is one that students will mainly encounter in the classroom, given that it is not regularly used in the wider society they live in* "
>
> **Dalton–Puffer, 2011, p. 182**

CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) is an approach which teaches a subject, and therefore the contents of that subject, through the medium of a foreign language. In this way, specific subjects within the curriculum are taught through a language that is not the L1 of the majority of the children in the class, thereby integrating the learning of subject content, be that Geography, History, Biology, and so on, with the continued linguistic development of the learner in the language through which the subject is taught.

In that respect, CLIL as a teaching method is very similar to the immersion model.

Nonetheless CLIL requires a good grasp of writing and reading in the first language, and is therefore a model that, more often than not, is applied in the Secondary sector, while immersion models are more often seen in the Primary sector.

Unlike immersion or Welsh-medium secondary education, where a large part of the pupils come from non-Welsh speaking homes and are taught most subjects through the medium of Welsh, in the CLIL model approximately 50% only of the curriculum is offered through the target language.

As is currently the case in the rest of Europe, the teacher is not required to be a native speaker of the target language. Since there is a balance between two core elements – subject and language – and since the language element is supported in separate language lessons, it is more essential that the teacher is a subject specialist.

Its use in the classroom

According to Coyle (1999), there are four levels in ensuring a successful CLIL lesson, what is referred to in the literature as the 4Cs (Content, Communication, Cognition and Culture):

- **Content** (progression towards knowledge, skills and understanding which are connected to specific parts of the curriculum);

- **Communication** (using a language to learn content whilst enriching language skills),

- **Cognition** (developing mental skills), and

- **Culture** (exposure to different perspectives which deepen awareness of others and of themselves).

Example of a lesson plan (from Coyle, 1999, p 13):

Castles

Aims:

1. To successfully teach a CLIL introductory Humanities lesson in French to year 8 in a team-teaching situation.

2. To introduce the theme of 'castles' in French.

Teaching aims: **What I intend to teach**	Teaching results: **What the learners will be able to do at the end of the lesson**
A: Content	
• An introduction to castles and defences • 4 key locations • 4 key functions • An understanding of the relation between function and location...leading to • The essential characteristics of castles	**With help:** • Describe locations (spelling/writing) • Describe functions (spelling/writing) • Describe, explain and justify choices (spelling/writing) • Learn key words by heart • Learn key sentences by heart and use them
B: Cognition	
• Understanding and qualifying concepts • Making decisions about locations of castles • Justifying those decisions with reasons • Independent research • Transferring information	• Learn key sentences by heart and use them in different forms • Transfer key language • Understand justifications • Make reasonable choices

C: Communication

C1: Teaching language

(e.g key vocabulary/grammar connected to the subject content and theme.

Example of key sentences needed:

Le château est situé
    (the castle is situated)...

La fonction du château est
    (the function of the castle is)...

Il nous faut
    (we need)....

Parce que
    (because)...

C2: Language for learning:

(language needed to act in the learning environment and in this lesson in particular)

Language:

• How to describe
• How to explain
• How to justify/present a case

The language has to be scaffolded with frames for writing and speaking and through activities

Learning how to learn:

• Language for group work
• Understanding instructions
• How to deal with not understanding
• How to make a short presentation

C3: Language through learning:

• Use of dictionary to expand vocabulary
• Research homework

D: Culture/citizenship	
• Understanding valid images • Researching Château d'If • Understanding the difference between Château/château fort	• Raise awareness about castles in other countries • Discover things about Château d'If • Explain the difference between Château/château fort

Practical CLIL lessons work much better than lessons that are not practical in nature (Denman et al., 2013). It is suggested that pupils get to work on a task quickly in a lesson, and that they attempt a number of short activities that hold their attention.

Another important aspect of CLIL classroom practice is the use of code-switching. Although the goal of CLIL is to teach a subject through a target language, it may be that the tendency would be to model a monolingual teaching method (attempting to immerse the children in the target language by preventing the use of the children's first language) if children's skills in the target language are to be improved. However, the CLIL method in fact allows children and teachers to make use of both their languages (or more) to enrich their understanding of the subject and the language. The use of code-switching in this context can therefore be distributed into various categories that reflect the different aims.

According to Cahyani, de Courcy and Barnett (2018, page 470), there are four main functions to code-switching in a CLIL lesson:

1.	Knowledge construction: this includes pedagogical scaffolding (i.e. for lesson content), strengthening concepts, endorsing the main technical terms in the language, and subject revision.
2.	Classroom management: changing the subject or topic within a lesson, controlling pupils' behaviour by developing self-awareness, drawing attention and telling off.
3.	Interpersonal relations: discussing different socio-cultural identities, and maintaining a humanitarian class that praises and establishes good relations.
4.	Personal or affective meanings: allowing the teacher to convey personal experiences and feelings as well as socio-cultural functions such as displaying disappointment.

Relevance to Welsh

Although there is little use of CLIL here in Wales, in English-medium secondary schools where the majority of pupils are already literate in Welsh and where the use of Cymraeg Bob Dydd is too basic for the children, the language can be integrated into the main stream of up to 50% of the curriculum, so that it can be used when teaching a number of subjects. There is also scope for CLIL to help increase or maintain a Welsh language ethos and policy within schools, so that Welsh is not limited to Welsh language lessons only.

However, equal weight must be given to securing specialist subject content and constructive language experiences that foster bilingual teaching methods where appropriate, in order to ensure pupils' progress.

As mentioned above in the section on Cymraeg Bob Dydd, words from the target language can be used in the context of the first language to help pupils make sense of new words through the medium of a language they are already familiar with:

when teachers switch between languages in order to maximise their instruction, code-switching can function to enhance students' understandings and provide students with opportunities to take part in the discussion...This endorses research in the past few decades that confirms code-switching as a linguistic strategy rather than merely a language problem

Cahyania, de Courcy & Barnett, 2018, p. 466

But for this to work there must exist a good language ethos, strong support and a clear awareness of the importance of encouraging pupils' bilingual skills among staff, parents, pupils and the wider community:

...any movement towards developing CLIL in the Welsh context would require negotiations with the wider school community to ensure support for developments of this nature, including a realisation that there would be implications for teachers' training / development.

Fitzpatrick et al., 2018, p. 61

It is therefore imperative that there is support within the school for continuing to transfer Welsh language skills effectively to the children.

# Advantages/Disadvantages

Avantages

Much of the research shows an increase in the vocabulary knowledge of children who receive this approach. There is evidence that pupils who learn through CLIL achieve a better understanding of grammar than those who learn the language as an individual subject within the curriculum: "CLIL is more effective than teaching a language as a school subject for the development of some areas of grammatical competence" (Fitzpatrick et al., 2018, p. 38)

- Compared with learners who do not follow this approach, CLIL learners display better writing skills in their L2.

- Learning via CLIL leads to more target-like and more fluent spoken language than learning via approaches that do not use CLIL.

- Research shows that CLIL learners perform better in oral communication activities than other learners, and that they use more complex structures.

Disadvantages

- Although research shows positive effects on vocabulary via CLIL, there is also a suggestion that other factors may influence performance, such as:

  ▶ the number of contact hours with the target language in general;

  ▶ children's previous contact with the target language;

  ▶ variation in the quality of the input for the vocabulary in question; and

  ▶ the fact that a higher number of children who choose to receive this approach may be from families that are already more supportive and enthusiastic towards the target language, leading to better performance and effort.

- CLIL does not appear to lead to any substantial improvement in L2 pronunciation.

- There is no clear evidence to show that CLIL leads to additional improvements in writing, reading or listening.
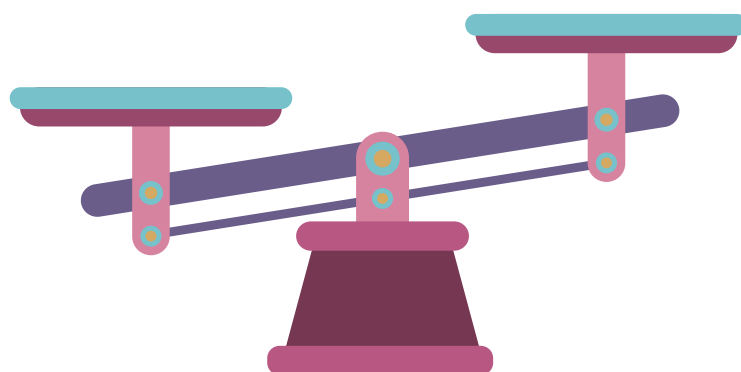
Recommendations for good practice

- Research shows that post-reading or -listening activities, for example word tests, lead to better memorisation of the content/target language than reading or listening alone. Activities, therefore, should be designed around the main aim(s) of the lesson in order to focus more explicitly on the subject's linguistic content (Norris & Ortega, 2001).

- The intentional use of the children's L1 when focusing on vocabulary can help children to remember words and terms that arise from the text (Sesek, 2007).

- Applying CLIL requires a sufficient number of teaching hours, since the method's success may depend on contact. The extent of contact with the target language can therefore be relative to the rate of linguistic progress: "Teacher language competence and number of hours' instruction are more influential factors than instruction type" (Fitzpatrick et al., 2018, p. 38).

- There is evidence that 12 years is the optimum age for increasing the use of CLIL. It is claimed that this is the age when cognitive ability matures, allowing faster and more effective learning.

- An example from Catalunya shows Physical Education being taught through CLIL, with obvious and positive results. Teaching techniques were adapted for these lessons, with teachers incorporating language structures into the lessons, and planning for collaborative activities that involved considerable interaction and oral communication. This research showed that English competence of pupils in schools with CLIL programs was higher than in those without CLIL, illustrative of the program's success (Coral et al., 2018).

Task-based Learning (TBL)

> " [I]f we believe that learners learn better
> through taking part in meaning-oriented
> interactions, then we ought to be thinking
> in terms of providing such opportunities for
> interaction. It is these that I am calling `tasks' "
>
> ### Jane Willis

The task-based teaching approach has become very popular over the last three decades (Ahmadian, 2013). This new surge of interest is believed to be due to its focus on producing outputs that are linked to real world activities - storytelling, problem solving, providing instructions, etc - so that children can carry the language and skills they have learned through completing the tasks over into their everyday lives (Ellis, 2003).

In the classroom context, the learners are responsible for completing the task, which is the main element of the lesson. The aim is to enable pupils to find their own way of learning, thereby decreasing their dependency on the teacher. TBL uses tasks with a high involvement load, where there is a requirement to complete several tasks as well as spending more time than usual on the overall activity.

In that respect, it is an approach which moves away from more traditional strategies of presentation, practice and production, where the teacher is central to all the activities.

Its use in the classroom

According to Willis (1986), the tasks can be divided into three main parts, although it is not necessary to include all parts in a lesson:

Pre-task	The task	Post-task
1.	**2.**	**3.**
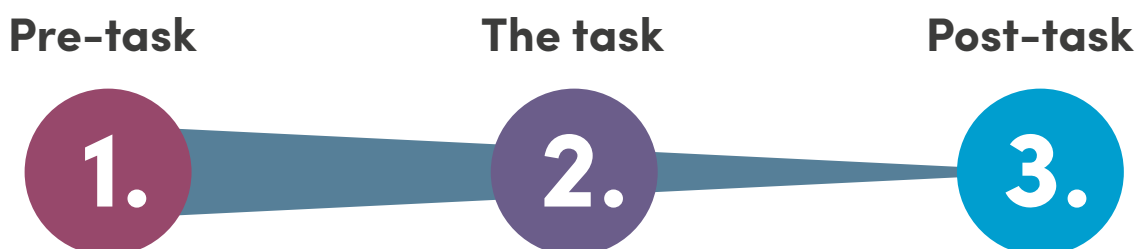
The aim of the first part is to frame the activity, perhaps by completing a similar task, while the final part involves an analysis of the task content, perhaps a report by the learners or an additional, follow-up task. The central part, which is the only essential part of the approach, is where the task itself is completed.

Step 2: The task

In order for the content of Step 2 to count as a 'task' (and therefore be effective), it should fulfil the following:

According to Ellis (2009):

1. The main focus should be on meaning – through collaboration, children must mean what they say, and use language to exchange meaning for a task that is useful on a practical level.

2. There should be some kind of 'gap' (e.g. the need to convey information, to express an opinion or gather meaning).

3. Learners should be able to rely on their own resources, whether linguistic or not, in order to complete the task.

4. There is a clear result arising from the task, apart from language use (i.e. the language is intended as a means to completing the task, not as a result in itself).

According to Widdowson (1993):

1. Meaning is essential (see left)

2. Learners must work towards an aim

3. The result must be one that can be evaluated

4. There must be a relation between the task and the real world

You can learn more about the types of tasks that are appropriate for this approach here:

www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/criteria-identifying-tasks-tbl

willis-elt.co.uk/wp-content/uploads/2015/03/JaneWillisLanguageShow09handout.pdf

" [Task-based learning] provides learners with natural exposure (input), chances to use language (without fear of getting things wrong) to express what they want to mean (output), to focus on improving their own language as they proceed from Task to Report stage, and to analyse and practise forms "

Jane Willis, 2009, p.2

Relevance to Welsh

Tasks with a high involvement load, as well as the need to spend an extended period of time on tasks, can address the common problem of a lack of contact with Welsh on the part of a high percentage of learners in a large number of areas in Wales.

Since it is expected that learners will have ownership of the tasks and that they will feel a sense of achievement when the task is completed, this may induce pupils to be more willing to learn Welsh.

Advantages/disadvantages

Advantages

- It stimulates children so that they see the need to discover specific words, and to analyse the meaning of those words in order to adapt them to the task.

- It encourages flexibility, creativity, inventiveness and independence on the part of the learners.

- It encourages communication and interaction to a far greater extent than more traditional approaches. Consequently, learners are free to experiment linguistically by using a wide range of phrases and structures.

- It offers additional freedom to use natural language, rather than reproducing the language of the teacher.

Disadvantages

- There may be difficulties where learners are new to the approach, and lack experience of conducting more independent work, and where the teacher's expected role within activities is limited.

- Overemphasising pre-tasks may give the impression that the aim of the lesson is to practise earlier vocabulary, so that learners concentrate on remembering a few words from the 'pre-task' stage when completing the task.

- With the increased freedom and the decrease in teacher input during the task completion stage, it must be ensured that children have the necessary ability to undertake the task. If there is extensive variety in ability, there is an additional risk that some learners will monopolise speaking time and push others to one side.

Recommendations for good practice

- 'Pre-task' activities help to prepare learners for the main task, motivating them to take an interest in the task to come. This can be done either by completing a similar task, by discussing possible methods for completing the main task, completing a different activity from the task activity, or by planning a strategy for completing the main task.

- 'Pre-task' activities are likely to ensure that some learners with no experience of the approach will adapt to a new method.

- Whilst task repetition is an important part of this approach, there is evidence that completing follow-up tasks is more effective than repeating the exact same task. Preparing for a new, different task is believed to provide further opportunities for learners to communicate and interact.

- Vocabulary rather than grammar activities are more effective as 'pre-tasks', as they can increase fluency and confidence by carrying over into the main task. Examples of tasks of this kind are brainstorming for relevant vocabulary, co-searching dictionaries, and linking words to definitions.

- It is necessary to determine whether fluency or linguistic accuracy and complexity should be the aim of the main task. Evidence suggests that setting a specific time limit on a task is likely to increase the first, while leaving it open-ended tends to result in the development of the second.

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