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## An evaluation of the effectiveness of Cymraeg bob dydd across the curriculum in English-Medium schools in North Wales

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Nia Mererid Parry

An evaluation of the effectiveness of Cymraeg bob dydd across the curriculum in EnglishMedium schools in North Wales

## Datganiad Swyddogol

Yr wyf drwy hyn yn datgan mai canlyniad fy ymchwil fy hun yw'r thesis hwn, ac eithrio lle nodir yn wahanol. Caiff ffynonellau eraill eu cydnabod gan droednodiadau yn rhoi cyfeiriadau eglur. Nid yw sylwedd y gwaith hwn wedi cael ei dderbyn o'r blaen ar gyfer unrhyw radd, ac nid yw'n cael ei gyflwyno ar yr un pryd mewn ymgeisiaeth am unrhyw radd oni bai ei fod, fel y cytunwyd gan y Brifysgol, am gymwysterau deuol cymeradwy.

I hereby declare that this thesis is the results of my own investigations, except where otherwise stated. All other sources are acknowledged by bibliographic references. This work has not previously been accepted in substance for any degree and is not being concurrently submitted in candidature for any degree unless, as agreed by the University, for approved dual awards.

## Diolchiadau

Mae'r blynyddoedd diwethaf o fod wedi cael ymgymryd â'r PhD hwn wedi bod yn fraint ac yn bleser, a mi hoffwn ddiolch i nifer o bobl am hynny. Yn gyntaf, hoffwn ddiolch i Brifysgol Bangor am gyllido'r gwaith hwn ac am fod yn sefydliad arbennig i astudio ynddo. Heb eu cefnogaeth ariannol, ni fuasai'r astudiaeth hwn wedi bod yn bosib. Rydw i hefyd yn ddiolchgar am y sesiynau hyfforddi gefais ganddynt drwy'r Ysgol Ddoethuriaeth a'r Coleg Cymraeg Cenedlaethol.

Hoffwn hefyd ddiolch i'r ysgolion a wnaeth gytuno i gymryd rhan yn y gwaith hwn ac am adael i mi ymweld gyda' u hysgolion. Cefais groeso cynnes gan bob un, yn staff ac yn ddisgyblion, a rydw i'n ddiolchgar am eu diddordeb yn y pwnc a'u parodrwydd i fod yn rhan o'r ymchwil. Hoffwn hefyd ddiolch i bobl eraill fuodd yn gymorth i mi wrth i mi ddod i ddysgu mwy am Cymraeg ail iaith mewn ysgolion cyfrwng Saesneg yng Ngogledd Cymru a oedd yn barod i gael sgwrs gyda mi, megis athrawon bro a myfyrwyr PhD eraill.

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#### Abstract

It is widely acknowledged that minority language survival is not possible unless it is supported at school, in the home, and in the wider community. In English-medium schools where Welsh is taught as an academic subject only, the L2 Welsh-learning child's opportunity to use and hear Welsh is often limited to that context, however it is vital that the Welsh language is supported in the English-medium educational context in order to contribute large numbers to the Welsh Government's Million Welsh speakers by 2050 campaign. During recent years, Welsh Second Language as a subject in English-medium schools' standards has been a cause for concern. Consequently, a recent strategy - Incidental Welsh (Davies, 2012), or Cymraeg bob dydd - was introduced across Wales, which implements the use of 'everyday Welsh' across the curriculum. Cymraeg bob dydd requires teachers - native speakers and learners alike - to deliver everyday Welsh vocabulary and phrases as part of their subject lesson, whatever the subject of the lesson may be.

However, in many cases, reluctant speakers of Welsh or those who have little or no Welsh language skills (other than the ability to deliver a set of words and phrases to their pupils) lack the necessary confidence that is required for the successful implementation of Cymraeg bob dydd. This thesis aims to explore and evaluate the extent in which Cymraeg bob dydd is implemented in English-medium schools in North Wales. The first study of the research shows that Cymraeg bob dydd is not being implemented in English-medium schools as intended, and the use of Welsh is very limited, and in some cases, non-existent. The remainder of the thesis explores possible reasons for this, including teacher confidence in delivering Cymraeg bob dydd and the pupils' attitudes towards the Welsh language. Together, these studies form the evaluation of the use of Cymraeg bob dydd.


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## Preface

Despite having its status as the oldest language of mainland Britain (UK Government, 2013), the history of the Welsh language - in speaker number terms - over the last few decades has been a history of decline. Beyond the rare stability that was observed between 1981 and 1991, and the hope of linguistic revitalisation witnessed via the $2.1 \%$ increase in speaker population between 1991 and 2001, by 2011, the Census data demonstrated a $1.8 \%$ decrease in those over the age of 3 who claimed the ability to speak Welsh. It should be noted that census figures should be approached with caution due to the dependency on self-evaluation and the wording used within the census (the focus is on proficiency rather than use), however the level in which the number of Welsh speakers has declined is too great to ignore. This decrease occurred despite numerous governmental initiatives targeting support for the language at home, at school, and in the wider community that may have contributed in some way to the increased numbers between 1991 and 2001 (more detail is provided in Chapter 1).

In response to the recurrence of this declining trend, the Welsh Government decided it was time to take action. Following a period of discussion and consultation, in 2017, Welsh Government announced their ambitious goal of reaching 1 million speakers by 2050 and of increasing those using the language on a daily basis from the current $10 \%$ to $20 \%$ of the population (Cymraeg 2050: A million Welsh speakers). Early projections (Statistics for Wales, 2017) show that initial efforts to increase the number of speakers will result in an additional 18,000 Welsh speakers in Wales by the 2021 census, bringing the total to 580,000 speakers which will increase further to 670,000 speakers by 2050 . However, for the vast majority of the inhabitants of Wales - and those who are most likely to disengage with the language, lack confidence in its use, or claim no knowledge or ability to speak it - exposure to Welsh happens predominantly within the school context. Schools are therefore key as a platform to 'transmit' Welsh to the population, but whilst schools do have a central role in achieving Welsh Government's goal (or in achieving results that are as
close as possible to that goal), schools cannot produce active speakers of Welsh without the support of families and of their wider social communities. Any initiatives that are educationally based must be based on sound research evidence, and must be fit for purpose within a given linguistic context. That is to say that not all initiatives will work equally well in all linguistic contexts.

As outlined in Chapter 2, a variety of educational policies have evolved over the years to ensure that Welsh is taught - to various levels - throughout governmentmaintained schools in Wales. This includes the formation of Welsh-medium and bilingual schools, involving various levels of Welsh-medium immersion and the increased requirement for Welsh to be taught as a subject through age 16), to more recent attempts at encouraging active use of Welsh among pupils (see Chapter 2). Within each school type, various teaching methodologies have also evolved with varying levels of success. In the English-medium context in particular, the focus has long been on teaching Welsh as an L2 subject, but the success of this has been limited. At the same time, studies have examined children's attitudes towards Welsh, bilingualism and the Welsh culture, and have tended to portray positive feelings towards the language that do not translate into active learning and use (Chapter 4). However, much of these studies have focused in and around the Heartland areas of Welsh (studies by researchers such as Bryn, Thomas etc) or the Anglicised areas of South East Wales where there has been a resurgence of interest in Welsh-medium education, mainly stemming from grass-roots activity among parents forming the 'lost generation' who lost out on the opportunity to learn Welsh naturally in the home (e.g Hodges, Thomas etc). The issues faced in these regions are interesting, but may not apply in the same way to other regions of Wales. One region that has not been explored in as much detail is North East Wales, the main area of focus in this study, where there is an interesting mixture of English-dominant and Welsh-dominant regions existing side-by-side with a predominant Englishmedium offering within the education sector. Getting children, and teenagers in particular, engaged with the Welsh language in this region of Wales - so close to the English border - is a challenge.

As mentioned in the abstract, Cymraeg bob dydd is one initiative that aims to normalise the use of Welsh in English-medium schools by introducing some Welsh within lessons across the curriculum. There is very little information available regarding Cymraeg bob dydd apart from the Davies (2012) report. To the best of my knowledge, there has been no guidance given by the Welsh Government and schools are expected to interpret and implement the strategy themselves with no additional assistance. This results in the uncertain status of Cymraeg bob dydd as there is no official policy which outlines its purpose, aims or method of implementation. The purpose of this research was to evaluate the extent in which Cymraeg bob dydd is implemented and to explore the issues that surround it. Chapter 1 presents a detailed overview of the current situation of Welsh in Wales, with an outline of the policies that have been used by the Welsh Government since devolution in 1998 to reverse the declining trend of the Welsh language, with comparison mades to similar programmes in other language minority areas such as Ireland and the Basque country. Chapter 2 goes on to review the role that education plays in the role of language revitalisation and some of the interventions that already exist in trying to raise the levels of Welsh that is used within the education sector. In Chapter 3 we explore the use of many different language teaching pedagogies that are currently used around the world, which allowes us to discover where on that continuum we currently lie on in Wales and to forsee how the current pedagogies in Wales could be developed in the future. Chapter 4 presents an overview of the literature concerning affective factors in second language learning, such as confidence and attitudes, as these factors were found to have an affect on the language learning during the data collection period. Chapter 5 outlines the methodology that was used during this research and the justifications behind their use. Chapter 6 presents the first findings of this research. An initial scoping study was conducted in order to discover the current situation of Cymraeg bob dydd in English-medium schools in North Wales.

The results from this study promted the further research that aimed to learn which factors contributed to the lack of Cymraeg bob dydd being used in the Englishmedium schools that were observed. Two aspects were explored, the first being the pupils' attitudes towards Welsh (Chapter 7) and the teachers' confidence (Chapter
8). Following these discoveries that pupils' attitudes and teachers' confidence had a detrimental effect on the use of Cymraeg bob dydd, an intervention that provided personalised support for teachers was analysed (Chapter 9) to see whether it had a positive effect of the use of Welsh in the classroom. These findings are brought together in Chapter 10 where they are discussed, followed by recommendations that could be taken away from the results in this study.

## CHAPTER ONE

## Chapter 1 <br> A vision for a bilingual Wales

### 1.1 Introduction

This is an exciting time to be in Wales with exciting opportunities for research. Dating back to the $6^{\text {th }}$ century, Cymraeg 'Welsh' - one of the corner stones of the Celtic family of Indo-European languages (Davies, 1993) - is on the brink of revitalisation that aims to significantly increase the number of people who speak and use the language in Wales. This movement comes in direct response to the continuous decline in the number of speakers that dominated the trend in speaker numbers across most of the $20^{\text {th }}$ Century (Higgs et al, 2004). At the most recent Census date - 2011 - 19\% of the population of Wales (562,016 speakers) over the age of 3 years was reported to be able to speak Welsh, compared to $20.8 \%$ (582,368 speakers) in 2001, with the $1.8 \%$ loss accounting for over 20,000 speakers. Whilst there were some gains, namely an increase from 9.3\% to $9.9 \%$ in Monmouthshire and $11 \%$ to $11.1 \%$ in Cardiff, the typical pattern elsewhere was reminiscent of decline. Despite the debate surrounding the label of 'Welsh heartlands' due to the everchanging linguistic patterns, the number of speakers within those traditional 'Welsh heartland regions' of Wales have been of a particular concern (Edwards \& Newcombe, 2005), due to the decreases of 50.3\% to 43.9\% in Carmarthen, from 52\% to $47.3 \%$ in Ceredigion, and from $69 \%$ to $65.4 \%$ in Gwynedd (Stats Wales, 2012).

These figures are in stark contrast to the number of speakers recorded just over century ago. A question regarding one's ability to speak Welsh was introduced to the census in 1891. At that time, 898,914 (54.4\% of the population) speakers were recorded as able to speak Welsh, with 977,366 able to speak Welsh in 1911 (Aitchison \& Carter, 1993). However, each decade thereafter has shown a decline, with the sharpest decline - 17.3\% - reported between 1961 and 1971. Following 1971, the rate of the decline had slowed down from large percentages such as the $17.3 \%$ that had been seen previously to a decline of $1.9 \%$ between 1971 and 1981, and 0.4\% between 1981 and 1991 (Iwa, 2019). 1971 as a year brought changes to the Welsh language, with Mudiad Meithrin (a Welsh-medium pre-school
organisation) being established, and questions regarding an individual's ability to write and understand Welsh being introduced to the census in addition to the traditional enquiry about the ability to speak Welsh (Jones, 2019). This decline within the population is also reflected within communities. In 1991, 92 communities were reported as having over 70\% of their population Welsh-speaking - the proportion of speakers that is deemed necessary to ensure sustainability of the language within a community, known as the critical mass figure. However, by 2001, that figure had dropped to 54 communities (Jones, 2008).

North Wales consists of 6 counties that each have a school represented as a part of this PhD study. These counties are, from the west to the east, Anglesey, Gwynedd, Conwy, Denbighshire, Flintshire, and Wrexham. While all of these counties have experienced a decline in the number of Welsh speakers, the six counties within North Wales all have different linguistic situations:

Table 1: Census information by county

|  | $2001$ census | $2011$ census | Breakdown by age (2011) | Aim for 2021 census |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Anglesey | 60.1\% | 57.2\% | $\begin{aligned} & 80.1 \% ~ 5-15 \text { уо } \\ & 60 \% 16-74 \\ & 58.1 \% 75+ \end{aligned}$ | To increase the percentage back to 60.1\% |
| Gwynedd | 69.1\% | 65.4\% | No information | Increase the percentage by 5\% |
| Conwy | 29.2\% | 27.4\% | $\begin{aligned} & 49.2 \% 5-15 \text { уо } \\ & 26.4 \% 16-69 \text { уо } \\ & 23 \% 70+ \end{aligned}$ | No aim in strategy |
| Denbighshire | 26.4\% | 24.6\% | $\begin{aligned} & 40 \% 3-15 \text { yo } \\ & 21.8 \% 16-70 \text { yo } \\ & 22.4 \% \end{aligned}$ | An increase of 0.5\% <br> in the next 5 years |


| Flintshire | $14.4 \%$ | $13.2 \%$ | $27.7 \% 3-19$ yo <br> $8.9 \% 20-69$ yo <br> $8.7 \% 70+$ | Increase to 20,000 <br> Welsh speakers <br> $(13.6 \%)$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Wrexham | $14.4 \%$ | $12.9 \%$ | $26 \% 3-15$ yo <br> $10.3 \% 16-70$ yo | To increase the |
|  |  |  |  |  |
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|  |  |  |  |  |

The highest percentage of Welsh speakers not only in North Wales, but in the whole of Wales can be found in Gwynedd, which is considered to be one of the main heartlands of Welsh ${ }^{1}$. Like with most counties, significant differences can be found within the county in terms of how many people can speak Welsh, with some communities having very high percentages (e.g Llanrug (87.8) and Penblig in Caernarfon (87.4\%)) while others are much lower (e.g Bangor (36.4\%) and Aberdyfi (35.5\%)). While it is thought that approximately $83 \%$ of the Welsh speakers in Gwynedd are fluent speakers, and $90 \%$ of those fluent speakers use Welsh on a daily basis, concerns have been raised about the decrease in speakers in the Welsh heartlands within Gwynedd. The number of communities that has over $70 \%$ of the residents that are Welsh speakers not only dropped from 61 to 42 between 1991 and 2001, but dropped further to 39 by 2011. An additional 6 communities (Llanberis, Penisarwaun, Llanaelhearn, Morfa Nerfyn, Llandderfel and Trawsfynydd) are very close to the $70 \%$ mark and are therefore at a risk of falling below that figure during the next census. Between 2001 and 2011, there was an increase of 4,700 (4\%) in Gwynedd's population which is said to have contributed to the decline in population along with Welsh speakers moving out of the area when looking for work.

Anglesey have also seen an increase in population of just over 2,000 people between the 2001 and 2011 census'. In terms of numbers, the amount of Welsh speakers in Anglesey in $2011(38,568)$ is slightly higher than in $1951(38,448)$, however, due to

[^0]the increase in population, the overall percentage of the Welsh speakers has decreased by $1.8 \%$. However, Anglesey still remains as the second highest in terms of percentages from across Wales. Again, as with Gwynedd, differences can be seen across the county ranging from $80.8 \%$ (Cyngar ward) and $80.7 \%$ (Tudur ward) to 38.1\% (Trearddur Bay) and 36\% (Rhosneigr).

Unlike Gwynedd and Anglesey, the differences between wards represent certain geographical tendencies. In terms of percentages, the number rises more inland the ward (eg 71\% at Uwchaled) and then decreases towards the coast (eg Towyn and Kinmel Bay both at $12 \%$ ). However, when considering the data numerically, the urban coastal areas contain more Welsh speakers than the rural area, with Rhos on Sea having 1,350 speakers. This amounts to Conwy being the fifth ranked county in Wales when ranked according to percentages, and sixth when ranked numerically. Conwy's Welsh speakers contribute towards $5.4 \%$ of the overall Welsh speaking population in Wales despite the population as a whole only contributing $3.8 \%$ towards the Wales figure.

Denbighshire saw a drop of $1.8 \%$ in the Welsh speakers in the county between 2001 and 2011. Similar to Conwy, there is a pattern between geographical location and the percentages, with a higher percentage of Welsh speakers more inland (eg Llandrillo 59.2\%; Efenechtyd 53.7\% and Llandrhaeadr yng Nghinmeirch 50\%) and a lower percentage towards the coast (Prestatyn North 12.6\%; Rhyl West $12.7 \%$ and Rhyl East 13\%).

Flintshire county borders with England, and has seen a drop of 1.2\% between 2001 and 2011. There is no correlation between the number of Welsh speakers and the geographical location within the county, however there are only 7 wards that have over $20 \%$ of their residents being Welsh speakers (Mold South $30.6 \%$; Trelawnyd and Gwaenysgor 26.2\%; Treuddyn 24.4\%; Ffynnongroyw 22.9\%; Halkyn 20.7\%; Whitford 20.7\%; and Caerwys, 20.3\%), while there are 15 wards that have less than $10 \%$ (the three lowest being Saltney Mold Junction 7.8\%; Sealand 7.5\% and Saltney Stonebridge 6.1\%). Wrecsam, like Flintshire, borders with England and also has a
lower percentage of Welsh speakers. Areas such as the Ceiriog Valley (31.2\%), Ponciau (28.2\%) and Pant (26.6\%) have the highest number of Welsh speakers while areas such as Wynnstay (7.7\%), Cartrefle (8.3\%), Overton (8.5\%) and Rossett (8.5\%) have a much lesser percentage. Despite the figures being much lower than counties such as Gwynedd, there were instances where a small increase could be seen in the number of Welsh speakers between 2001 and 2011 in 15 electoral divisions (out of a total of 47). However, decreases were also observed which were in the strongest areas such as Ceiriog Valley, Pant and Ponciau.

In response to these census figures, each county has a specific strategy that outlines how they intend to increase the number of Welsh speakers and support the language. Alongside factors such as Welsh in the workplace, the family, communities and infrastructure; education features prominently as a theme within these strategies. Many of the strategies include some similar themes, while others differ in their approach. The 'Siarter laith' (language charter) features within each of the six counties' strategies. Siarter laith is a scheme that intends to promote the use of Welsh socially within the primary schools in Wales by introducing two new cartoon characters to the pupils to bring a fun element that appeals to children as a part of the strategy. As a part of the charter, schools are expected to analyse the current use of the Welsh language before setting targets to work towards gold, silver and bronze award by including all stakeholders of the school (eg parents, pupils, teachers and governors etc) (Welsh Government, 2015b). Each county notes that they are committed to ensure that each school make the Siarter laith a priority and aim to gain their awards accordingly. The dedication to make Siarter laith a priority in each of the 6 counties in North Wales is to be commended, however, there is no continuation of these principles that the Siarter laith introduce into the secondary sector or the English-medium sector. While this will be discussed in more detail in chapter 2, this again highlights that the secondary English-medium school sector is lacking in Welsh language strategies and support for the pupils to develop their Welsh language skills outside the Welsh lesson.

In Gwynedd, $83.7 \%$ of the pupils are said to receive immersion education leading to bilingual competencies. The policy for the region (Gwynedd Council, 2017) stipulates that all government-maintained schools deliver bilingual education which in most cases adopts an immersion model Welsh-medium education. Within the strategy, clear aims are outlined in terms of Welsh within education which include:
"Setting a firm foundation for the Welsh language during nursery and early years education; ensuring progression in the Welsh language as a subject and as a teaching medium from KS2 to KS3; Ensuring progression in the Welsh language as a subject and as a teaching medium from KS3 to KS4; strengthen implementation in the areas/ organisations / schools where data indicates the need to equip our headteachers and train our workforce to fully deliver the Scheme's aim; strengthen the use of language cohorts as a tool to plan progression in secondary schools; mainstreaming the work of the Language Charter in Gwynedd to the core work of the Council; promote the use of Welsh as the social language of young people at our secondary schools by establishing and developing a scheme similar to the primary schools' Language Charter; support and lead our schools to move along the linguistic continuum." (p. 8)

Anglesey have set specific targets within the education section of their strategy (Anglesey Council, 2016) by stating that they wish to increase the number of pupils that study Welsh first language by $10 \%$ within the first three years of the strategy, before making a further progress of $5 \%$ by 2022. Anglesey have also noted that they wish to increase the number of learners that study at least 5 subjects (not including Welsh) through the medium of Welsh by $5 \%$ by 2022. In addition to these, the county also note that they intend on:
"Supporting schools to develop the Welsh language skills of teaching assistants and ancillary staff; Preparing the way for the Welsh language in Ysgol Cybi; Raise awareness of parents/guardians of the advantages of the Welsh language; Review the Isle of Anglesey County Council's Welsh Language policy in schools; Ensuring that all aspects of the Welsh language are mainstreamed in the foundation phase and in an equal of higher percentage in KS2 in all schools (an increase in the number of pupils following a Welsh first language track during their time at secondary schools in the county); Strengthening the support for schools to introduce Welsh language education for pupils in areas where the challenge for the language is high; Reconcile and formalise language
categories for all schools on Anglesey with natural definitions; set up a club for learners at Holyhead High School." (pp 1-6 in appendix 1)

The number of pupils within Welsh-medium education is much lower in Conwy with 21.2\% of the year 9 pupils attending a Welsh school (Conwy Council, 2017). The council's Welsh in Education Strategic Plan provides general objectives such as more pupils should have higher skills in Welsh; more pupils to continue their Welsh skills when transferring from primary to secondary; more pupils that are 14-15 years old should study for their qualifications through the medium of Welsh, and more 7 years old should have their education through the medium of Welsh.

Denbighshire has seen an increase in the number of 5-15 year olds that can speak Welsh from $42.8 \%$ to $46.25 \%$ between 2001 and 2011, however numerically, there was a reduction of 309 children, as there were fewer children in 2001 compared to 2011 to make a comparison with. The strategic plans (Denbighshire County Council, 2017) that Denbighshire have in place include:

> "the council will work with the staff and governing bodies of the Englishmedium primary schools with significant use of Welsh to ensure that the foundation phase curriculum is delivered mainly through the medium of Welsh and plan for the availability of appropriate linguistic progression in these schools in KS2; The council will initiate the process of identifying English medium primary schools that are ready to deliver a higher percentage of the Foundation phase curriculum through the medium of Welsh with the ultimate aim of expanding the provision and ensuring appropriate linguistic progression in KS2; the county council in conjunction with Menter laith Sir Ddinbych and Rhieni dros addysg Gymraeg, will run a continuous marketing campaign to promote the benefits of bilingualism to parents and pupils; The council will provide training for primary and secondary governors on the benefits of Welsh-medium education and the educational, economic and community reasons why the provision should be expanded across the country" (pp 20-23).

The number of pupils within Welsh-medium education is low in Flintshire and lies at a percentage of $5 \%$ and therefore their main priorities lie with how to increase the Welsh-medium provision (Flintshire County Council, 2017). They intend to do this by:

The objectives include: (a) increasing the provision for Welsh-medium education including early education services (b) developing a more effective
immersion system to achieve a steady increase of pupils in the Year 6/Year 7 Trochi Unit at Ysgol Maes Garmon year on year to approximately 30 places by 2020 (c) increasing numbers of pupils entering Welsh-medium in Year 2 to Year 6 by the provision of a specifically designed immersion programme. (p. 3)

While Wrexham's strategy doesn't include any figures, Wrexham also hope to increase the provision for Welsh-medium education (Wrexham County Council, 2015):

> Increase the number of pupils transferring from Welsh-medium childcare/preschool to Welsh-medium primary; Increase the number of 7 -year-olds being taught through the medium of Welsh; Ensure adequate number of places for children wanting a Welsh-medium education at primary level; Open a new Welsh-medium primary school in the County Borough; Increase the ability to take advantage of Welsh-medium provision through immersion education scheme; Increase the number of all Welsh-medium pupils transferring to Welsh-medium secondary education; . All primary school children in the County Borough leave being able to speak Welsh to a recognised level; Increase the number of pupils on the 'Trochi' [Immersion] Scheme; Increase the number of learners aged 14-16 studying for qualifications through the medium of Welsh; Create additional sixth form classes at Ysgol Morgan Llwyd; Raise greater awareness amongst Welshspeaking learners of bilingual provision available and job opportunities requiring bilingual skills. (pp 4-26)

Interestingly, the focus of these strategies are mainly set on enhancing the Welshmedium sector rather than developing the use of Welsh within the English-medium sector, again reflecting that English-medium schools are often forgotten about as a medium in which new speakers of Welsh could be created. This highlights the need for further research on the English-medium sector that will raise awareness of the current situation and pave the way for future developments within the sector.

While the decline of Welsh in Wales is indisputable, Census data are notoriously problematic for a number of reasons, not least for the fact that some questions may be interpreted or evaluated differently by different individuals. In terms of questions about language, ability does not necessarily entail use, in the same way as 'use' does not tell us much about fluency/proficiency and knowledge of few words. When comparing the Census outcomes for Wales and Ireland in respect of the Welsh and

Irish language, the number of competent Irish speakers is much higher at 1,761,420 (compared to 562,016 speakers in Wales). While the number of speakers in Ireland represent $39.8 \%$ of the population, the number of people who are said to use the Irish language daily ar much lower than that. Only 73,803 people noted that they spoke Irish daily, while 111,463 stated that they spoke the language weekly. 418,420 noted that they never spoke it while 558,608 indicated that they only used the language within educational settings. Women had a higher number of daily speakers $(40,361)$ than men $(33,442)$, with trends also showing that the higher educated a person was, the more likely they would be daily speakers, with $49 \%$ of degree holders speaking Irish daily compared to $9.4 \%$ of people who only reached primary level education (An Phriómh-Oifig Staidrimh, 2019).

Indeed, other surveys conducted in Wales on an annual basis predict different numbers. For example, while $4.3 \%$ of Irish speakers speak Irish daily, the percentage is higher in Welsh with $13 \%$ of speakers using the Welsh language daily. Interestingly, the highest proportion of daily speakers are within the 3-15 and 16-19 age categories. This reflects the role of the education system in the use of Welsh, and as the figures decline when pupils leave school, this highlights the need for the continuation of Welsh language use in the workplace and socially (Welsh Government, 2015a). Considering the differences between competent speakers and speakers who use the language, census figures should therefore be approached with caution (Williams, 2000b) and not taken as absolute, although the general patterns revealed, and the possible reasons behind those patterns, can be used to inform language planning ${ }^{2}$.

There have been many claims as to the reasons why this decline in Wales may have happened, which, if true, can be used to inform language planning initiatives that

[^1]may help reverse this decline. In a broad sense, Wales has become a more secular society, with the traditional rural community of farms and chapels, which formed the core of Welsh-speaking networks, have broken down and have been replaced by more urban, industrial environments that have brought with them an influx of non-Welsh-speaking cultures. People also find it difficult to find work within these predominantly Welsh-speaking areas, and therefore out-migrate from these areas to more anglicised ones, while non-Welsh-speaking people are attracted into Wales for reasons such as retirement (Williams, 2000b). On a narrower scope, affective factors such as attitudes, motivation, confidence etc can also all play a role as influences on a person's willingness to use a language, and therefore it is important to identify those behaviours that may impact on a person's behaviour - among pupils and teachers alike - in order to understand why a person may or may not choose to use a language, while also giving full consideration to the contexts that may surround those behaviours.

This chapter will explore the topics of language revitalization, language policy and the Welsh context, which will explain the current situation of the Welsh language.

### 1.2 The effect of English as a Lingua Franca on Welsh

According to Unesco (2003), 50\% of the world's 6,000 languages are losing speakers and that $90 \%$ of languages will be replaced by dominant languages by the end of the $21^{\text {st }}$ century. Language loss and language shift have always happened due to the constant change in people's circumstances across the world, and is not, therefore, a new concept (Weinreich, 1953). However, the most rapid decline has happened during the last few years, with sociolinguists describing the situation as 'linguistic genocide' (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000).

Language loss mainly occurs within bilingual or multilingual situations where a more powerful language exists that competes with, and ultimately replaces, the minority language (May, 2006). For this to happen, there are usually two conditions that need to be met: first, two or more languages need to be sharing the same physical or conceptual space; second, within that shared space, the languages themselves come
to represent what's at stake within the competition (Williams, 2000a). Laponce (1987) suggests that there are four things that can happen when languages come in contact:

1. "languages tend to form homogenous spatial groupings;
2. when languages come into contact they tend to either specialize their functions or stratify
3. the specialization and the stratification of languages is determined by the socially dominant group;
4. the social dominance of a language is a function of the number of its speakers and the political and social stratification of the linguistic groups in contact. " (p.266)

While the Welsh language may identify with all four of these situations, it is especially true with the third point that expresses that the language is determined by a socially dominant group. By ensuring the dominance of the Welsh language within the education system, it ensures that the Welsh language is of upmost importance, especially when considering how paramount the education system is in revitalisation efforts.

In an ideal world, situations where there are two languages in contact should be embraced and speakers should enhance their linguistic repertoire and use both languages rather than replace the minority language (Edwards, 2010). However, in reality, this is rarely the case. Although many Welsh speakers have become fully bilingual in both English and Welsh, many who are L1 English fail to embrace their Welsh for various reasons, rendering the majority of the population in Wales functionally monolingual. This divergence between the maintenance of Welsh and the continuous rise in the attractiveness of speaking and using English at its expense has given rise to some conflict among the population - conflict that could be neutralised if certain conditions could be met (Nelde et al., 1992):

1. The territoriality principle should be limited to a few key areas like administration and education.
2. The institutional multilingualism that emerges should lead to the creation of independent unilingual networks, which grant equal opportunity of communication to minority and majority speakers. These networks
should also exclude linguistic discrimination connected with speakers of the prestige language.
3. Measures of linguistic planning should not be based exclusively on linguistic censuses carried out by the respective governments. Rather, they must genuinely take account of the situational and contextual characteristics of the linguistic groups.
4. Minority linguistic groups in a multilingual country should not be judged primarily on quantitative grounds. On the contrary, they should be awarded more rights and possibilities of development than would be due to them based on their numbers and their proportion to the majority. (pp. 403-404)

Ideologically, adopting these types of conditions would lead to more people being willing to embrace both languages, and that by giving more rights to speakers of the minority language, less conflict would happen. However, these conditions are only useful if they occur within a context where there is an appetite for linguistic acceptance, and the need for appetite should be an issue that is addressed first in order to provide a base for the conditions above. This is particularly important in English-medium schools as pupils must have an appetite for speaking Welsh if they are to be successful, which will be discussed in more detail in chapter 7 .

In Wales the clash between both languages has resulted in language shift for many individuals and businesses from Welsh to English. This is not surprising given the economic power and prestige that English holds as a global language (Phillipson, 2003).

This effect started in Great Britain during the mid-fifth century when the Anglo Saxons arrived in Britain. Historical evidence shows that while the Britons became bilingual by being able to speak both their own language and that of the AngloSaxons, the Anglo-Saxons saw no particular requirement to learn the British Language and remained monolingual (Filppula et al, 2008). While this continued over centuries, what eventually became the Celtic languages became used less and less. Using English as a way of communicating when neither of the people within the conversation share a common native language has been termed as "English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)' (Firth, 1996), and it could be argued that the invasion of the Anglo-Saxons and its effect on the Celtic languages is an early example of English as a

Lingua Franca that has continued to permeate communication in Wales today. However, given English's status as a global language by now, reversing the effects of this early domination is difficult.

A language is recognized as a global one when every country acknowledges it as a part of their community, even if there are no mother tongue speakers in that country (Crystal, 2003). Crystal suggests that there are two ways that this can be done: (i) by making the language an official language of the country whereby it would be used as a method of communication within establishments such as the governments, law courts, media and educational system, or (ii) by making the language important within a country's foreign-language teaching. Although the signs of English spreading as a global language had existed for a long time, it was not seen as a threat until the end of the 1970s when Fishman's (1977) seminal work studies the extent of its use. During the 1960s English was not assumed dominant, with languages such as Aramaic, Quechua and Aymara, Hindi, Arabic, Mandingo, Malay, Russian, Mandarin and Hungarian discussed at that time as the main languages to study as a Lingua Franca (Fishman, 1971).

Despite some doubt about the scale of English as a global language until the 1970s, there is now evidence to support the fact that English has been a major language for a while, and that the biggest growth has happened during the last century. While most theories regarding the globalisation of English are concerned with the post-war years (after 1945), monumental events such as the creation of the World Bank and the United Nations etc. are said to have accelerated world trade and the movement of people, which underpinned the growth of English (Flew, 2018). In more recent times, the internet and the digital media have been responsible for the shift towards a shared global culture and increased hybridised cultural identities (Castells, 1996; Beck, 2000; Giddens, 2002; Held, 2004) - most commonly underpinned by AngloAmerican themes, outlooks and traditions.

Many scholars have developed theories that attempt to explain why English has become a global language. Skutnabb-Kangas and Phillipson (cited in Spolsky, 2004),
have described the growth of English in terms of intentional take-over, a form of 'linguicism' - 'the intentional destruction of a powerless language by a dominant one' (p. 79). Whilst sympathetic to the speakers of the non-dominant languages, such an account sees the rise of the global language as intentional and the result of strategic language management. Whilst such ideology is pertinent and may well explain the rise of English in some context, it may not suffice as an explanation in others. Indeed, Spolsky (2004) disagrees with such an account, claiming that local and individual acquisitions decisions and its response to changes in the world's language system is responsible for its growth. Nevertheless, even according to this account, as a consequence of its spread, English - as a global language - should still be taken into account in each country's language policies.

Others believe that the dominant effect of English is rooted from a humanitarian perspective. For example, De Swaan (2001) believes that English has spread due to its attractiveness as a mean to hold humanity together. Without plurilingualism, where an individual can switch between their mother tongue and a lingua franca, these speakers would be unable to communicate outside their immediate communities, which makes acquiring English (as it is acknowledged as a lingua franca) attractive. This attractiveness is calculated by a Q -value, which considers the number of speakers within a language constellation and the number of people who speak other languages but who can also speak the global language. This puts English at the highest end of the language hierarchy due to its high Q-value. Like Spolsky, De Swaan believes that this was not due to intentional management, but was rather because of individual decisions made by the speakers - a more organic development. While English may be at the higher end of the $Q$-value scale, it would be likely that the Welsh language would be placed much lower on the scale due to its status as a minority language. It's important to consider this factor in this research as the status of English and Welsh as languages may affect how likely pupils are to interact with those languages.

Regardless of the reasons for the development of English as a global language, opinion is inevitably divided with respect to the usefulness of such an opportunity.

Some view the globalization of English as a negative development due to the unavoidable loss of other languages in its wake (Frey \& Whithead, 2009; Nettle \& Romaine, 2000). Others believe that not delivering English language lessons as a part of schooling puts pupils at risk of not being able to access the global market where English is essential (Hanna, 2011). Kuppens (2013) draws on three paradigms that look at the positive, the neutral and the negative effects of English as a global language. The first of these is the Colonial-Celebration Paradigm, which celebrates the growth of English as a global language by arguing that it could bring wealth, development and civilization, which is 'essentially democratic' and 'well-equipped to be a world language' (McCrum et al 1986, p.48). The second paradigm is the Functionalist Accounts Paradigm, which sees the growth of English as a neutral process due to the fact that it has 'no single proprietor' or any ties to specific cultures or ideologies (Pennycook, 2000; Wardhaugh, 1987). This paradigm endorses Spolsky's (2004) point that it is the individual's decision whether or not to learn a language, echoing Fishman et al.'s (1977) notion that '[i]ndividuals, not countries, learn English', and that they do so 'not because of abstractions such as linguistic diversity or international trade balances but simply because it helps them communicate in certain contexts' (p. 106). However, the Functionalist Accounts Paradigm has been criticized for being theoretically and empirically inaccurate, and as are trying to promote the use of English (Dua, 1994). The third paradigm, the Linguistic Imperialism Paradigm, highlights the negative consequences of English as a global language, whereby dominant countries export English to less-dominant countries in order to fortify alliances of dependence (Phillipson, 1992), which is said to be the case in Wales. While these three paradigms look at the negative, neutral and positive effects of English as a global language, others have focused more on the various functions of English as a global language. For example, Phillipson (2009, p.338) recognised six functions of English as a global language: the lingua economica (the corporate globalisation imperative), lingua cultura (the specific values and norms of a society, country, group or class, needing exploration in foreign language teaching), lingua academia (an instrument for international collaboration in higher education), lingua emotiva (the pull of Hollywood, global advertising, pop culture, and how such grassroots identification with English ties in with top-down promotion
of the language) lingua bellica (the language of military aggression) and lingua frankensteinia (whenever English is learned or used subtractively).

Despite the importance placed on those particular categories, Lingua economica is seen to be particularly important and widely researched. Recently it has been widely acknowledged that there are economic benefits to being able to communicate in English, and this has influenced language policies (Grin, 2006). This can be seen within three strands:

1. How do language variables affect economic variables (for example, do language skills influence earnings?)
2. How do economic variables affect linguistic variables (for example, do the relative prices of certain goods affect patterns of language use?)
3. How do essentially economic processes (such as constrained utility maximization) affect language processes such as language dynamics? (Grin, 1996, p.6).

The economic motivation has now become a large part of the drive for Welsh speakers in Wales too. While more and more jobs are being advertised with a need for Welsh speakers as a prerequisite, parents are realising the importance of being able to speak Welsh and therefore are choosing Welsh-medium education for their children (Baker \& Jones, 2000). Until recently, the call for Welsh speakers has mainly been within the public sector's labour market (Williams, 2010). However the creation of a 'Welsh Language Commissioner' in 2011 changed this, as they aimed to work with private companies to ensure that Welsh was treated equally to English and that everyone had the right to live their lives through Welsh (Welsh Language Commissioner, 2012). Therefore, although the economic benefits are largely linked to English and has paid a major part in the globalisation of the language, the economic drive is now becoming a benefit for minority languages such as Welsh too - a factor that has been used widely as an instrumental motivator for getting children engaged with the language at school (Baker, 1985).

Despite the positive aspects associated with the globalization of English with its ability to connect people and cultures that would previously be unable to
communicate, trade, or negotiate, it has had a negative effect on the attitudes of speakers in English-speaking counties. The UK and Ireland have been named worst in Europe in terms of learning languages (Williams et al., 2007), possibly as a byproduct of speakers' belief that knowledge of English alone is enough to get by in the world due to its global status (Morris, 2010).

In rationalising which languages British people would benefit the most from understanding, the British Council (2013) turn to the following 10 criteria: :

1. Current UK export trade
2. The language needs of UK business
3. UK government trade priorities
4. Emerging high growth markets
5. Diplomatic and security priorities
6. The public's language interests
7. Outward visitor destinations
8. UK Government's International Education Strategy priorities
9. Levels of English proficiency in other countries
10. The prevalence of different languages on the internet

As one might predict, economic benefits feature highly on this list. The resulting languages that seem to be the most prosperous for UK economy according to these criteria are: Spanish, Arabic, French, Mandarin Chinese, German, Portuguese, Italian, Russian, Turkish and Japanese. However, when surveyed, three quarters of the British population stated that they were unable to speak any of the 10 most important languages on the British Council's list well enough to hold a conversation. Being able to communicate in English is therefore not adequate for their needs (Morris, 2010), and since monolingual speakers will be unable to access multilingual environments, they are certain to face a harsh economic future (Graddol, 2006). As Davis (2003) observes:
"While English is a major language, it only accounts for around 30\% of the world Gross Domestic Product (GDP), and is likely to account for less in the future. Neglecting other languages means ignoring quite significant potential markets (no page number due to webpage)".

Despite the globalisation of English a change in the monolingual speakers' attitudes is needed as knowledge of other languages becomes more and more important.

Without a doubt, Welsh has suffered due to the rise of the globalisation of English and the resulting shift from Welsh towards English. There are three stages involved in the process of a language shift (Baker \& Jones, 1998). The first stage includes an increased pressure on the minority language speakers to speak the majority language. This can often be seen in more formal situations, which later leads to the diminishment of the minority language altogether. The second stage is a state of bilingualism where both the majority and minority languages are used together. However, under unfavourable conditions, minority language use continued to decline. The final stage may happen over a period of two or three generations, which results in the majority language being used over the minority language. By this stage the minority language may be recalled by a group of speakers, however it is not used by the majority of the population.

Like Baker \& Jones, Fishman has also constructed a scale demonstrating language shift - the Graded Intergenerational Disruption Scale (1991) - and is of particular relevance for its ability to aid a minority language group that wish to protect their minority language and reverse the shift. The model is formed of 8 stages on a scale, the higher the GIDS rating is on the scale, the less sustainable the language is within the community (reworded by Spolsky, 2004, p. 188-189):
8. Only a few isolated older people still speak the language, which needs to be reconstructed and taught to adults.
7. There is a socially integrated group of speakers of the language, but they themselves are beyond child-bearing age. The management task is revitalization, re-establishing the practice of speaking the language to young children.
6. The language is still used by a good number of speakers, who live close enough to each other to use it and who share a certain institutions. Most important, they speak the language to their children. The language thus has what Steward (1968) called vitality, and there is natural intergenerational transmission. Languages without this characteristic are generally assumed to be obsolescent or dying.
5. As well as oral vitality, the language has literacy functions within the home, the community and the schools supported by the community. There is not, however, external support for these activities. This level is implied by recognition of the right of a language community to conduct its own schools. 4. The language is used in pre-school and compulsory elementary school education, either in state-supported community schools or in state schools. 3. The language is used in the workplace outside the community or neighbourhood in interaction with speakers of other languages.
2. The language is used by local government services and the mass media but not on higher levels.

1. There is some use of the language in higher levels of education, occupations, government and media, but there is not political independence for the speakers of the language

Whilst such a scale is open to debate, particularly around its applicability as a scale or around whether the stages within the scale necessary and sufficient conditions to reverse language shift, the scaled concept are presented has been highly influential within the field of reversion language shift (Spolsky, 2004) and continues to be a reliable source of consultation. In 2010, Lewis and Simons expanded on Fishman's original GIDS framework to create the EGIDS:

## Level Label

Vigorous

6b Threatened

The language is widely used between nations in trade, knowledge exchange, and international policy.

The language is used in education, work, mass media, and government at the national level.

The language is used in education, work, mass media, and government within major administrative subdivisions of a nation.

The language is used in work and mass media without official status to transcend language differences across a region.

The language is in vigorous use, with standardization and literature being sustained through a widespread system of institutionally supported education.

The language is in vigorous use, with literature in a standardized form being used by some though this is not yet widespread or sustainable.

The language is used for face-to-face communication by all generations and the situation is sustainable.

The language is used for face-to-face communication within all generations, but it is losing users.
\(\left.$$
\begin{array}{cl}\text { Shifting } & \begin{array}{l}\text { The child-bearing generation can use the language among } \\
\text { themselves, but it is not being transmitted to children. }\end{array} \\
\text { 8a Moribund } & \begin{array}{l}\text { The only remaining active users of the language are } \\
\text { members of the grandparent generation and older. }\end{array}
$$ <br>
The only remaining users of the language are members of <br>
the grandparent generation or older who have little <br>

opportunity to use the language.\end{array}\right\}\)| The language serves as a reminder of heritage identity for |
| :--- |
| an ethnic community, but no one has more than symbolic |
| proficiency. |

The EGIDS scale was adapted following the feedback on the original GIDS scale. The changes include the inclusion of sign language and the addition of stronger and weaker categories at each end of the scale, which means that more vital languages now have lower numbers while weaker languages have higher numbers. The creation of this expanded scale has meant that all languages in the world can be included and is more relevant to the constant development of language evolution.

### 1.3 Language Revitalisation

When language shift happens, as has been the case here in Wales, attempts can be made to revitalize the minority language, as the Welsh Government are currently doing through their Miliwn o Siardwyr Cymraeg 2050 initiative (Welsh Government, 2017). Paulston and Heidemann (2006) define language revitalization as:
[the] new-found vigour in a language already in use (and so differs from language, revival, the rebirth of a dead language), often as a result of attempts to stop language shift and death (p. 303)

Language revitalization can be attempted via a partnership between set groups with a committed interest, Government departments with language planning responsibility and an engaged civil society (Williams, 2000)a, with teamwork by both community insiders and outsiders essential if the language revitalization is to be successful (Penfield \& Tucker, 2011). Arguably, the most successful revitalization attempts are those that have been initiated by minority groups rather than majority
governments (Paulston \& Heidemann, 2006). This was the case in Wales as historically, revitalization attempts were made by minority groups that were drawn to nationalist movements (Williams, 2000a). Early language activists rarely used a rational analysis of the fact and figures but rather they used literacy appeals in order to draw attention with poetry and pamphlets being used rather than policy and planning (Jones \& Williams, 2000) - a truly 'grass roots’ approach.

In Wales, the most prominent of these activist groups was Cymdeithas yr laith Gymraeg (the Welsh Language Society). Formed following Saunders Lewis' influential radio lecture Tynged yr laith (The Fate of the Language) in 1963, the group campaigned for reforms such as official bilingual forms, bilingual tax and television licences, a Welsh language television channel and better equality between both Welsh and English in Wales (Williams, 1986; Phillips, 1998). This movement provided young people with political freedom to express their views, with many of the leaders of Cymdeithas yr laith being around 25 years old or younger. While the society's main aim was to raise awareness of Welsh within mainstream society in Wales, many of the language reforms that are now a part of Wales is due to their influence and persistent campaigning (Gruffudd, 2000).

Many countries around the world have endeavoured to revitalize their minority language, Frisian and Catalan in Europe being obvious examples closer to home, and Oko in Africa and Ainu in Japan being other examples further afield. Two languages that have close ties with Welsh in many ways and have been involved in ongoing revitalisation programmes are Basque and Irish, with the former proving to be more successful than the latter.

The Irish language faces a similar situation to Welsh in terms of the dominance of English in Ireland. The revitalization efforts in Ireland began shortly after the 1916 rising when the struggle for national independence drove the need for Irish as an everyday means of communication (O'Gadhra, 1999). While a strategy for the restoration of Irish as a national language was launched in 1922, it was not until 1937 that the constitution gave recognition to it on the same level as English. Many
attempts were made in order to promote the language. Irish becoming a prerequisite for the National University of Ireland in 1913; the Bord na Leabhar Gaeilge (language board) was established in 1952; an Irish radio station, Radio na Gaeltachta was created in 1972 with a television station to follow in 1997; and a new Irish language act was delivered in 1998 (O Flatharta, 1999; Williams, 1990).

An attempt was also made to revitalise the language through the education system. Following a rise in a more favourable attitude towards the English language and a decline in favourable attitudes towards the Irish language due to factors such as the famine and migration during the $19^{\text {th }}$ century, the development of the Irish Free state in 1922 brought an attempt to reverse those shifts. Immersion education was made a priority for the new government, and by 1934, Gaelic-medium classes were created for the infant pupils (Ceallaigh \& Dhonnabhain, 2015). This continued and grew until the 1960s, when it was decided that teachers should treat Irish more as an oral subject rather than a medium to teach through the Irish. This resulted in only 11 primary and 5 secondary schools left to teach through the medium of Irish by the 1970s (Ní Fhearghusa, 1998). In response to this policy, parents put pressure on the Government to reverse their actions and promote the teaching through the medium of Irish (Ó Hainiféin, 2008). In the current climate, there are 60,000 pupils that deliver their education through the medium of Gaelic, with plans being made to double that figure (Irish Government, 2019). Along with the growth of Irish-medium education, the role that education plays in the revitalisation of Irish has changed from being a way of maintaining the language in the Gaeltacht to being a way of creating new speakers, with $46 \%$ of the pupils in the Gaeltacht areas starting school with no or very little knowledge of Irish (Ó Giollagáin et al, 2007).

Beyond the Celtic languages, there are other languages whose very existence is challenged by a dominant majority language, and, in some cases, challenged by more than one. Basque is a case in point. The Basque Country overlaps geographically with both France and Spain, which means that the Basque language must contend with the challenges of French and Spanish. Whilst the first attempts to revitalize - or recuperate, as the term is used within the Basque context (Valadez
et al, 2015) - the Basque language was implemented at the end of the nineteenth century following the Carlist war by individuals and small activist groups (Gardner et al, 2000), the main recognition of the language came in 1982, when a law stating that everyone living within the Basque Autonomous Community (BAC) had the right to be able to understand and use both Spanish and Basque which drove public and private organisations to implement measures to aid the revitalization (Elosua \& Penalba, 2018). This was an important step following the Franco-dictatorship (19361975), as Basque had been forbidden from being spoken in public during that period, which lead to a dramatic drop in the number of speakers dramatically (Gorter et al, 2012).

One sector that held a decisive role in influencing change was education. During the 1960s ikastolas were created, which were vital in the transmission of Basque as a second language. These were schools that delivered education via one of three linguistic models: Model D, where lessons were delivered in Basque with Spanish as an additional language; Model B, which was a fully bilingual model; and Model A, which delivered the lessons in Spanish but with Basque as an additional language (Fishman, 2001). These schools were initially created in order to provide quality education for mother-tongue Basque speakers. However, Spanish and French speaking families began to enrol at the schools, and these schools became a form of immersion for non-native speakers, resulting in the creation of new speakers (Elorza et al., 2009). In addition to the developments within the mainstream education system for children, large efforts have been put into the provision of Basque for adults also. Specialised centres were created during the 1960s to teach Basque to adults, and recruitment has grown to almost 45,000 students by 1995 (HABE, 1998).

Recent figures show that these efforts have been successful. In a survey conducted in 1990 around $24 \%$ of the population stated that they were bilingual and able to speak Basque. In 2012 that figure had raised to $32 \%$, with the median age of Basque speakers at its lowest for decades, indicating a positive outlook for the future (Basque Government, 2012). The role of education and campaigns to embrace

Basque identity, and with that the need for individuals to speak the language, have been largely credited for this success (Etxeberria, 2006).

In order to try and successfully attempt a language revitalization Haarmann (1990) believes that three groups are needed to work together; the government, pressure groups and individuals. This results in a range of levels of planning with the Government being the macro-level planners and the individuals at the opposite end as micro-level planners. Baldauf (2006) does suggest the need for a continuum that illustrates this, however, with all three parties as a part of the revitalization in Wales, this could be argued to be the case, with all levels taking an active role. In Wales all three of these parties have taken an active role, however, despite the previous efforts of movements such as the Cymdeithas yr laith Gymraeg, in order to take revitalization efforts forward, more money needs to be invested in domains such as the education system. Due to this, the Welsh Government must find a larger role within the revitalization efforts and to take responsibility over the matter. A study conducted by Hodges \& Prys (2019) examined how macro level planning strategies (i.e implemented by the Welsh Government) were implemented on a community level in an attempt to reverse language shift within the Welsh context. The results show that a combination of macro and micro level strategies were used in all 6 communities that were analysed as a part of the study, and that despite being funded by the Welsh Government, the participating members of the community stated in the focus groups that they believed that it was the local people who had organised the events, therefore it's perceived that these strategies are implemented on a micro-level. Despite this, time-constraint was raised as a barrier to attending such events which highlights the need for the Welsh language to be integrated within one's daily business such as in shops and businesses, which again would require the willingness of individuals and communities on a more micro-level to intervine with encouragement on a macro level.

### 1.4 A Vision for a bilingual Wales

In order for language revitalization to happen, language policies must be planned and implemented. This has become an important part of the Welsh context over the last few years, and continues to feature heavily within governmental activity as Wales embarks on the latest attempt to revitalize the Welsh language through its aim to have a million Welsh speakers by 2050. ${ }^{3}$ Modern language policy is based on analysis rather than the emotion that drove the revitalization efforts during the last century (Jones \& Williams, 2000), as mentioned above. The fundamental aims of language policy is to move from one linguistic environment to another favoured linguistic environment (Grin, 2003). In the Welsh context, this entails moving away from monolingual English speakers to bilingual Welsh and English speakers.

There is a long history to Welsh language legislation in Wales. Laws have been made to protect Welsh since 1942, when it was passed that Welsh could be used within the courts in Wales. This was extended upon in 1967 when the rights were given for more Welsh to be used more extensively in the courts and Welsh was made compulsory within public administration. However, it was not until 1993 that Welsh was given the same status as English within public business and administrating in Wales, and when the Welsh language board was formed to approve and ensure compliance of the Welsh language schemes (Welsh Language Commissioner, 2012).

Since the devolved Welsh Assembly was formed in 1998, there has been many reports on the Welsh language and attempts to form new language policies. laith Pawb, a report that was published in 2003 emphasized the choice that people in Wales should be given regarding the language, ensuring the normalization of bilingualism throughout the country. laith Pawb brought change to the nature of Welsh language policies in Wales. Before this report, emphasis was given on achieving status for the Welsh language. laith Pawb however shifted that focus to increasing the number of Welsh speakers.

[^2]One of the first language report by the Welsh Assembly was the 2003 report, laith Pawb. This report set out three strands in which to carry out their strategy:

1. A National Policy Framework, with the Assembly Government setting the policy agenda and providing strategic leadership to sustain and encourage the growth of the Welsh language.
2. The Language and the Community, focusing on policies and actions which promote economically and socially sustainable communities throughout Wales including those where Welsh is widely spoken within the community at large.
3. The Language and Rights of the Individual, focusing on the rights and responsibilities of the individual. The Assembly Government's policies will continue to encourage individuals to learn Welsh and to facilitate and empower them to use the language in all aspect of life in Wales (p.7).

These strands echo the Haarmann's (1990) theory that government, groups and individuals must work together to ensure a successful attempt at revitalization, and that the involvement of the three strands (government, groups and individuals) is vital in a revitalization effort. Within each strand there are specific targets aimed towards the specific levels. Within the National action plan, the following targets were set for the 2011 census:

- the percentage of people in Wales able to speak Welsh has increased by 5 percentage points from the figure which emerges from the census of 2001
- the decline in the number of communities where Welsh is spoken by over $70 \%$ of the population is arrested
- the percentage of children receiving Welsh-medium pre-school education has increased
- the percentages of families where Welsh is the principal language of conversation/communication between adults and children at home has increased
- more services, by public, private and voluntary organizations are able to be delivered through the medium of Welsh (p. 11)

Some of these targets were unsuccessful by 2011 (such as the aim to raise the percentage of speakers by $5 \%$ ), which then served as a catalyst for the million Welsh speakers policy; however, the number of children receiving Welsh-medium education target had in fact happened. The target set for the second strand of the
report, the language and the community was based less on statistical measures than the National Policy Framework strand:

- economic development - a sustainable economic base and providing business and employment opportunities are essential to creating sustainable communities;
- community regeneration - encouraging communities to take ownership of their destinies and helping them to achieve what they want for their communities;
- the Welsh language as a part of the community fabric - ensuring that the Welsh language is an integral part of a Welsh-speaking community's regeneration;
- Population movement - ensuring that a balance is maintained in the social and linguistic composition of a community (p. 22).

The last strand is that of the individual's rights. The hopes within this strand was that Wales would offer opportunities to:

- encourage individuals to learn and use the Welsh language;
- extend access to Welsh-medium education with initial emphasis on early years and post-16 sectors;
- empower individuals to make a genuine choice as to the language, or languages, through which they wish to live their lives;
- Form an entitlement for all young people to a range of support services in the language of their choice;
- Actively promoting the benefits of bilingualism (p.37).

These targets were linked heavily to the education system in Wales that will be discussed in Chapter 2. This was a detailed report with significant ambition. Some of the measures set out such as the education aspects etc did develop and continue to be developed.

2007 was a year that brought a new coalition government to Wales. Along with the political change that brought the Labour and Plaid Cymru parties to power in Cardiff, a new vision was set out for the future of a bilingual Wales (Selleck, 2013). This ideology was presented in a report: One Wales / Cymru'n Un (National Assembly for Wales, 2007). This report aimed to outline the aims of the new coalition government, that included their aspirations for a 'rich and diverse culture' that
allows the Welsh language to belong 'to everyone in Wales as part of our common national heritage, identity and public good' (p.34). Although this report was not dedicated entirely to the Welsh language in the same way as laith Pawb, it hoped to drive a program for the four year period that the coalition Government were in power. The report outlines their aims within many sectors such as the National Health Service, a prosperous society, housing, tourism and transport etc. A section of the report outlines how they intended to drive the Welsh Language revitalization further with the following points:

- We will be seeking enhanced legislative competence on the Welsh language. Jointly we will work to extend the scope of the Welsh Language Legislative Competence Order included in the Assembly government's first year legislative programme, with a view to a new Assembly Measure to confirm official status for both Welsh and English, linguistic rights in the provision of services and the establishment of the post of Language Commissioner.
- We will drive forward our efforts to obtain agreement on the use of the Welsh language in specified areas of EU business. We will use this experience to explore with the Westminster government the making of an official application to the Council of Ministers for the Welsh Language to receive official EU language and working language status.
- We will expand the funding and support for Welsh-medium magazines and newspapers, including the establishment of a Welsh-language daily newspaper.
- We will support the dot.cym campaign to gain domain name status on the internet.
- We will continue research work into population shifts in order to promote balanced populations in all parts of Wales (p. 34).

Because most targets from the laith Pawb report had not been met by 2011 as hoped, laith fyw: iaith byw (2012) set out another 5 year strategy for the years 201217 which built on the 2003 report. This time, no set figures were given, and the targets were more general:

- increase the number of people that speak and use the language;
- provide more opportunities for people to use the language;
- raise people's confidence and fluency in the language;
- raise more awareness about the benefits of Welsh, within a part of our national heritage and as a useful skill in modern life;
- make Welsh secure within our communities;
- give Welsh a obvious role within digital medias (p.14).

This report differs to the 2003 one in that it focuses on more specific areas of the community and how Welsh could integrate within them, rather than the strands of Government, communities and individuals:

1. The family
2. Children and young people
3. The community
4. The workplace
5. Welsh services
6. Infrastructure (p. 1)

As with the previous reports, each section outlines how to drive the Welsh Language forward in the future with specific action points. The most recent report however is the Million Welsh Speakers report (Welsh Government, 2017). This report sets out an aim to reach a million Welsh speakers by 2050. Should this be successful, the number of speakers would be back as it was in 1901, when records of how many Welsh speakers there were in Wales began. The report covers three themes, which then include sub-themes similar to the laith byw: iaith fyw report:

1. Increase the number of Welsh speakers (transfer the language within the family; early years; compulsory education; post-compulsory education \& the education workforce, resources and qualifications).
2. Increase the use of Welsh (the workforce, services, social use of Welsh).
3. Creating favourable conditions - infrastructure and contexts (the community and the economy, culture and the media, Wales and the wider world, digital technology, linguistic infrastructure, language planning and evaluation and research) (p.5).

While it's encouraging that the Welsh Government is setting ambitious aims within their most recent strategy, early projections (Statistics for Wales, 2017) show that it's expected that there will be 670,000 Welsh speakers by 2050. Should this be the case in reality when 2050 arrives this will reflect a huge different between actual case and the aim that the Welsh Government set out to reach. It could be argued that the Welsh Government should aim for more realistic numbers which could be achieved and celebrated.

This report has been heavily publicized through the media, and the Welsh Assembly have committed to funding innovations that will support this aim. All four reports, despite sharing the same goal of increasing the number of Welsh speakers, have taken different approaches and themes on how to drive the Welsh language forward.

### 1.5 Summary

Naturally, the continuous decline in the numbers of Welsh speakers discussed in this chapter, triggered a great cause for concern for the Welsh Government. Not only are the numbers of Welsh speakers in Anglacised areas sparce, but there has also been a decline in the number of Welsh speakers in heartlands such as Gwynedd which has amplified the worry further. These four reports, laith pawb, One Wales/Cymru'n un, Iaith fyw: iaith byw and Miliwn 2050, that were published in response to this decline, have provided an important base for the vision for a bilingual Wales and what should be done in the future. Important lessons can be learnt from examples of language revitalization from other counties, such as the Basque and Gaelic, as discussed in this chapter, however in order to go forward in Wales, the role of the Welsh Government is vital in order to construct the planning and to funding. The macro-level planning should also go hand in hand with the role of smaller stakeholders within the communities which ensures the individual communities implement what's best for their own situation. Education, naturally, will be vital in implementing the million Welsh speakers report, and will form the discussion in Chapter two.

## Chapter 2

## Chapter 2

Welsh in Education

As discussed in Chapter one, in order to achieve a million Welsh speakers of Welsh by 2050, the role of education is paramount not only in creating new speakers but also in promoting and creating opportunities for the natural use of Welsh. This chapter will focus on the role of Welsh in education, starting with a historical overview of its role and development in education, the current situation in Wales today, the role of Welsh in English-medium schools, and the role of education in Welsh revitalization. The current situation of the Welsh language within the educational sector is an important factor within this thesis as it explores what initiatives currently exists, and how and where Cymraeg bob dydd will fit into the overall picture and will suggest how it could be used within the Welsh language revitalization efforts.

### 2.1 Historical perspective of Welsh-medium education

The popular belief, in recent times, is that the education system in Wales, alongside the translation of the bible into Welsh, contributed significantly towards the continuation of the Welsh language (Davies, 1993). However historically, in Wales, the education system was also partly responsible for the demise of the language. Education, up until the 1950s, was delivered solely through the medium of English (Smith, 1999) and teachers' livelihoods often depended on their pupils' abilities to acquire English which led to the punishment, during the $19^{\text {th }}$ century in particular, of pupils caught using their mother tongue - Welsh (the so-called 'Welsh Not', (Edwards \& Newcome, 2005; although see Davies (1993) for suggestions that the use of this type of punishment), whilst also found in other minority language contexts, may not have been as widespread as popular history may lead us to believe). Alongside factors such as industrialization, migration, English as a greater economic power etc., the elimination of Welsh in education served a powerful influence on the survival prospects of Welsh.

Traditionally, all schools in Wales were English-medium, however, following the Second World War, Welsh began a slow but steady journey towards becoming normalised as a medium of learning within government-maintained schools (Welsh Government, 2013) ${ }^{4}$. However, before that, the first Welsh-medium primary school Ysgol Gymraeg Aberystwyth - was opened in 1939 by Ifan ab Owen Edward, as a feepaying school. Ysgol Dewi Sant was created in Llanelli in 1947 as the first non-feepaying Welsh-medium school, and a Welsh-medium secondary school followed nearly a decade later in 1956 at Ysgol Glan Clwyd in Rhyl (Evans, 2015). By 1999, around 50 years since the establishment of the first Welsh-medium school, the number of Welsh-medium schools in Wales had grown, totalling 445 Welsh-medium and bilingual primary schools and 52 Welsh-medium and bilingual secondary schools (Dixon, 2016).

Many factors have been credited for this growth over the past 60 years. First, parental support has been high, with many wanting their children to be enriched in the language and culture. This was initially a support that came from Welsh-speaking parents, but soon after, English-speaking parents also wanted to see their children being able to experience two languages and two cultures, around about the time when researchers were beginning to talk about bilingualism as having positive effects on children's abilities (following Peal and Lambert, 1962 and the creativity and metalinguistic tasks that then followed in the 1970s and 80s - see Hakuta, 1986). Parental support is often driven by economic motivation (Butler, 2015), that is, that an ability in two languages would result in improved employment prospect. Organizations such as Estyn, the Inspectorate for Wales, WJEC, the examination board, Welsh Language Board, the Schools council in Wales, and professionals such as local authority advisors, head teachers, and teacher trainers were also responsible for the growth of Welsh-language education. These organisations and professionals have been pioneering in creating resources, materials and computer software etc. that pupils were able to access and use in every subject and ability level. This meant

[^3]that the pupils could study and work on their subjects inside and outside the classroom in Welsh, which enriched what they had learnt in school (Baker \& Jones, 2000), leading to an enriched, holistic education in Welsh.

In 1988, an act was brought in that set a formal national curriculum for schools. This act also brought a change to the status of the Welsh language within Englishmedium schools in Wales. This meant that Welsh was to be made a 'foundation subject' within all schools in Wales, so that Welsh had to be studied by non-Welsh speaking pupils up to the age of 14 , which was then extended to the age of 16 in 1999 (Jones, 2016). Their objectives, cited in Edwards (1993), were to ensure that all pupils in Wales were able to use enough Welsh to converse within their everyday lives within a bilingual society. Welsh second language became a compulsory subject in schools in Wales soon after the 1988 act, in 1999 (Mercator-Education, 2001), and is still compulsory today. Making Welsh compulsory within schools has been criticized by May (2000). May argues that it should be a choice, and there should be a way of opting out of the lessons should they wish to remain monolingual. In May's study, it was more evident that participants who responded to the questionnaires and interviews in Welsh valued the choice that was given to have Welsh lessons in school and the opportunity to be bilingual moreso than the participants who responded in English as their chosen language. This is an interesting argument as being forced to embark on learning a language may affect one's attitude towards that language, something that will be discussed later in this thesis.

By 2009, over 400 qualifications within all disciplines were available through the medium of Welsh, giving pupils the choice to do their subjects through the medium of Welsh or English, or a mixture of both (Evans, 2015). This growth towards a fully bilingual education system plays a vital role in the development of the Welsh language where 'the future of the Welsh language is in the hands of young people' (Nikolas et al., 2005, p. 3). The Welsh education system is thus paramount if the Welsh Government are to succeed in relation to the revitalization of Welsh.

### 2.2 Role of education in revitalization in Wales

According to a Welsh Language survey (The Welsh Language use in Wales 2013-15 survey) (Welsh Government, 2015a), the young Welsh speakers that responded are more likely to have learnt Welsh in school as a second language, while older speakers who responded to the survey are more likely to have learnt it as children at home as a first language. This highlights the shift that has been in Welsh-medium education, and the growth there has been in children from non-Welsh speaking backgrounds attending Welsh-medium schools and learning the language. When considering all of the participants as a whole, no matter how old they were, $11 \%$ of the respondents had learnt Welsh at nursery, 25\% at primary school and 15\% at secondary school, which means that over half of the Welsh speakers that responded to the survey would unlikely to have been Welsh-speakers without the education that they had received. In fact, $79 \%$ of the younger respondents (aged 3 to 15 ) had learnt Welsh through school compared to $13 \%$ of the respondents over 65 years old. Again, this shows the impact of the growth of Welsh-medium education over the past 60 years. It is clear that education is a beneficial tool to deliver a language to the younger generation.

The growth within Welsh-medium school provision has been the most notable development within the education system in Wales during the second half of the twentieth century, and many countries around Europe have acknowledged its success, adopting some of the good practices used within their own education systems (Llywodaraeth Cynulliad Cymru, 2010). Due to this success, it is not surprising that education is (and should) be used as a tool by the Welsh Government to bring their vision of a bilingual Wales to life. However, it has been long-recognized that formal lessons within education are not sufficient by themselves in creating new speakers, and that the role of the community and the individuals within the community are also paramount to success (Fishman, 1991). This has resulted in strategies that are used outside and beside formal education, to which we now turn.

### 2.2.1 Pre-school initiatives to support the use of Welsh

In addition to formal schooling, strategies to strengthen the use of Welsh have been developed and implemented to impact on language use in the community and in the home for children before they are old enough to attend school. Interventions start from when parents are expecting a baby and during its first few years and are provided by a Government-funded service called Cymraeg o'r Crud (Welsh from the Cradle). Known until 2016 as Twf (Transmission within Families), this was a service that aimed to support new parents to transmit Welsh to their newborn babies. There were three main aims to the service

1. To bring the message about the advantages of bilingualism into the mainstream work of midwives and health visitors.
2. To raise awareness amongst parents, prospective parents and the public at large of the advantages of bilingualism.
3. To change the language patterns of the target group, namely mixed language families, in order to increase the number of children speaking Welsh in the home.

Together, these strategies aimed to raise awareness of Welsh and its benefits to individuals exposed to Welsh from a very young age. Although the name and funding has changed, the essence of Cymraeg o'r Crud remains the same, and targets language exposure for children from a young age to give them the best start in becoming bilingual. Young children often engage in implicit learning, particularly in relation to learning language, whereas adults and older children benefit more from explicit instruction (Spada \& Tomita, 2010). Considering that implicit learning is accessible without awareness (Ellis, 2005), this is often thought to be the easiest way to acquire a new language, as no conscious effort is needed. Although some disputes have existed on this subject, it is generally agreed upon that learning a language from a very young age is therefore beneficial to the child as there is minimal formal learning involved and is much easier than it would be at a later age (Birdsong \& Molis, 2001). Cymraeg o'r Crud, or Cymraeg i blant as it is now known is therefore important as it provides opportunities for babies and young infants who are not raised in Welsh-rich home environments to be exposed to Welsh during the critical period for language learning (Mudiad Meithrin, 2020).

Mudiad Meithrin (MM) (Nursery Organisation) is a Welsh-language provider for the
early years. When MM was established in 1971, 11.3\% of 3- to 4-year-old children in Wales' were able to speak Welsh. By 2011, and in relation to the establishment of MM, this figure had raised to $23.3 \%$. Within their first decade, 350 Meithrin groups were formed all across Wales (Mudiad Meithrin, 2019). A child can start with the Mudiad Meithrin from birth by attending Ti a Fi (you and me) groups with parents/carers which is open to everyone and promotes play through the medium of Welsh. When a child reaches 2 years old, they can then also attend cylch Meithrin (nursery circle) which expands on the values of Ti a Fi, which prepares the children for Welsh-medium education. Cymraeg i blant (Welsh for Kids) is an innovative by Mudiad Meithrin which aims to support and expand on both Ti a Fi and Cylch Meithrin by providing groups such as baby yoga, Welsh story and rhymetime etc that parents can attend with their babies/children to be exposed to the Welsh language informally.

Mudiad Meithrin have responded to the Million Welsh Speakers report with their own strategy of how they could contribute to the creation of new speakers and maintenance of current speakers called the 'Meithrin miliwn' (Mudiad Meithrin, 2017). They list 10 points that they intend to act upon:

1. An urgent independent review of Mudiad Meithrin resources in order to evaluate the support required to open 150 new Cylchoedd Meithrin and Cylchoedd Ti a Fi (with 40 before 2021) along with extending the 'Cymraeg i blant' scheme and supporting Mudiad Meithrin's support infrastructure for current Cylchoedd Meithrin committees and staff.
2. Ensure further input into Mudiad Meithrin with regard to the future of WESP (Welsh in education strategic plan) at a national and county level by amending some of the outcomes (to include the early years).
3. Ensure that any plans to open new Welsh schools are jointly discussed with Cylchoedd Meithrin (if they already exist) to discuss possible relocation and (where they don't exist) to provide an obstacle-free care and education journey on a school site for children from the age of 2.
4. Continue to invest in the Mudiad Meithrin scheme to train and offer qualifications for the Welsh-medium Early Years workforce in order to attract new entrants and identify gaps within the workforce.
5. Invest in soft and hard multi-media methods of encouraging and promoting Welsh-medium care and education, by working with partners at ground level.
6. Ensure that Cylchoedd Meithrin have access to capital grant funding via the ' 21 century schools' programme in order to encourage Cylchoedd Meithrin to open new quality settings (if not on school site) as community hubs;
7. Promote a pilot scheme for English-medium schools to receive provision from Cylchoedd Meithrin to immerse older children in Welsh as part of the language continuum ${ }^{5}$.
8. Invest in a national immersion scheme based on the principles of the 'Croesi'r Bont' scheme ${ }^{6}$.
9. Ensure comprehensive data processes with access to birth data.
10. Jointly pilot various schemes with the National Centre for Learning Welsh in order to offer support for parents to introduce Welsh or use Welsh in the home.

Mudiad Meithrin believe that their work will be paramount in contributing to the Million Welsh speakers by ensuring that children are immersed in the language from a very early age whatever their backgrounds. This work is vital, as children start attending Welsh-medium school having already heard the Welsh language and have started developing some use of it themselves, which then makes the transition into Welsh-medium foundation phase easier and provides a base on which to develop on further.

### 2.2.2 Language-specific strategies implemented in English-medium schools

In addition to the work done before pupils reach school age, innovatives have been put in place to support pupils in English-medium schools that are learning Welsh as a second language. In primary schools, Welsh in English-medium schools are supported by Cymraeg Campus. This is an English-medium school equivalent to the Language Charter that is used in Welsh-medium schools, that aim to promote the use of Welsh outside the formal Welsh classrooms. Schools aim to reach the bronze, silver and gold awards, which reflect how much input they have given into the scheme. The aim is to make Welsh fun outside the classroom, promoting the Welsh culture and to normalize the language. This aim is similar to that of Cymraeg bob dydd's aim in that they are both implemented to normalise the use of Welsh outside the Welsh classroom. This ensures some level of continuity between what pupils

[^4]experience in English-medium primary school and when they move to secondary education and that hearing Welsh around them naturally is something that they are familiar with. Studies show that if a child is less anxious about learning a language, they are more likely to successfully acquire the vocabulary (MacIntrye \& Serroul, 2015). This means that ensuring the enjoyment of language learning is very important, and therefore Cymraeg Campus promotes the fun side to learning Welsh to encourage the pupils to make use of what they have learnt socially.

Following primary school, at the age of 11 , pupils move to secondary education. While Welsh-medium secondary schooling has become more and more successful over the years, the English-medium sector poses a different story, which we will return to later in this chapter. There is a worry in Wales, that many Welsh speaking pupils decrease their use of Welsh socially as they get older, with a study by the Urdd (2011) stating that only $24 \%$ of early adolescences using Welsh outside school, despite $98 \%$ stating that they have contact with Welsh in school. It is thought that this is because many pupils associate Welsh as a classroom language, and not for everyday life. Edwards \& Newcome (2005) highlight the need for strategies to promote the use of Welsh outside schools and formal lessons in order for Wales to become a bilingual country. They argue that these movements are crucial in ensuring that over-reliance on the education system to deliver Welsh is minimized, and that pupils and their parents realize that Welsh is an everyday language that need not be left at the classroom door.

The Urdd ${ }^{7}$ do however support the social use of Welsh somewhat. There are specific learner competitions at the Eisteddfod, schools are able to visit the Urdd's camps to participate in various outdoor pursuit activities and courses are held for sixth form students that have chosen Welsh as an a-level. Cymraeg bob dydd (a different initiative to the Cymraeg bob dydd that is discussed in this thesis, despite the

[^5]similarity in the name) is a scheme that works with English-medium schools to organize events that promote the use of Welsh. While these have been testified by pupils to be successful (Urdd, 2019), only some schools are chosen to be a part of the scheme, and therefore is not accessible to all schools across Wales, with only a select amount of pupils able to take part. This scheme is yet to be evaluated independently therefore its effect is unknown.

When considering the fact that the Welsh language in education is supported from birth via Cymraeg o'r Crud, followed by the Mudiad Meithrin and Cymraeg Campus, there seems to be a gap when a pupils reaches secondary age. Although the Urdd try and fill this gap, it's not widely available, and therefore is not accessed by all pupils. However, despite the importance of the additional strategies that are described above in supporting the use of Welsh alongside the formal education, the formal Welsh that is delivered in schools provide the greatest opportunity for learning Welsh, and will be discussed in the next section.

### 2.2.3 Welsh-medium education

There has been much interest in Welsh language education provision in the field of bilingual education by researchers (Williams, 1994a; Jones, 1997). Support from both English and Welsh language families towards the Welsh-medium education movement has contributed to its success that has resulted in a very large growth in pupils that attend Welsh-medium schools across Wales. In 2018, there were 368 Welsh-medium primary schools and 18 Welsh-medium secondary schools in Wales, with a further 29 bilingual secondary schools and 36 bilingual primary schools (Stats Wales, 2018). The figures are also positive in the secondary sector, with 53 out of 229 maintained by the Local Authorities in Wales being Welsh-medium, 20 of which teach Welsh as both a first and second language (National Assembly for Wales, 2003). This movement for Welsh-medium education has been particularly successful in more Anglicised areas of Wales, with more Welsh speakers from English homes than Welsh homes attending those schools at present (Musk, 2010).

### 2.2.4 School language categorisation

There is some confusion over the exact meaning of 'bilingual education' and 'Welshmedium' education in Wales (Redknap, 2006). Lewis (2008) and Jones (2010) have both expressed the need for clearer terms that describe the situation coherently in Wales, whilst Cazden \& Snow (1990, p.9) has commented that bilingual education' is a 'simple label for a complex phenomenon' internationally. Schools in Wales are currently categorized by the language used as medium of instruction. In Secondary Schools there are four categories. Welsh-medium schools deliver all subjects (excluding English) through the medium of Welsh, and the day to day communication is in Welsh. Bilingual schools have four sub-categories: Type A, where $80 \%$ of subjects are delivered in Welsh while the rest of the subjects are in English; Type B, where 80\% of subjects are delivered in Welsh but with some English being used with it; Type C, where $50-79 \%$ of subjects are delivered in Welsh and with a little of bit of English alongside it; and Type Ch, where all subjects are delivered using both languages. The third category includes schools that are predominantly English-medium with significant use of Welsh, where both languages are used as an instruction, and where 20-49\% of the subjects are taught through the medium of Welsh. The last category includes schools that are English-medium. In English medium schools, pupils are taught through English and English is the language of day to day communication. However, pupils are taught Welsh as a second language as a part of their curriculum with the aim of improving their everyday knowledge of Welsh (Jones, 2016).

Given the variety (8 possible types of language mediums) that exist across schools in Wales, the linguistic medium of education situation has been referred to as 'Kaleidoscopic' (Baker, 1993). While English-medium schools that offer Welsh as a second language are recognised, research in the area often refers to Welsh-medium education as being the main success of creating Welsh speakers.

The main growth of Welsh-medium education has been in the most Anglicised areas of Wales, meaning that more 'new speakers ${ }^{81}$ come from non Welsh-speaking homes than Welsh speaking backgrounds (May, 2000; Musk, 2010). Given that there are 203,133 pupils at primary level currently being taught through the medium of English compared to the 57,062 taught through the medium of Welsh (Stats Wales, 2019), and 128,248 English-medium pupils compared to 15,242 Welsh-medium pupils at secondary level (Stats Wales, 2019), it shows that it is vital, in order to gain the large numbers of new Welsh speakers, that the English-medium schools are targeted more so than they are now. 9,143 pupils are educated in bilingual $A B$ schools, 8,658 in bilingual BB schools 1905 in bilingual CB schools and 7,801 pupils in English-medium schools that use a significant level of Welsh. These pupils should also be targeted as they are immersed in English as much if not more than what they are immersed in the Welsh language.

In order to reach the ambitious aim of a million speakers by 2050, the Welsh Government need to create over 400,000 new speakers, and given that the majority of the population in Wales are educated in the English-medium sector, it's in this sector that the larger numbers could be targeted to create those new speakers. New speakers can range on a continuum from second language learners with limited proficiency to expert L2 speakers who are able to speak to native levels ( $O^{\prime}$ Rourke \& Ramallo, 2013). Research by O’Rourke and Ramallo (2013) and Hornsby (2015) state that tensions could arise between those labelled as 'native speakers' and 'new speakers'. This is due to factors such as new speakers having a more modern approach to the use of the language (such as using it as a medium of instruction in schools) whereas authentic speakers hold a more traditional view, native speakers may feel that the new speakers are geographically and linguistically removed due to the variant in the way they speak and that new speakers may bring a new identity to the language. Tensions such as these should be considered when language planning

[^6]and considering revitalisation approaches in order to avoid any disagreements between new speakers and native speakers.

It could be argued that ensuring that more pupils access Welsh-medium education should be the priority in order to gain more new speakers over the speakers gained in English-medium schools, and this is mentioned in the Welsh Governments' strategy. However as Estyn (2017) already states:

> Recruiting staff who are confident and capable of teaching their subjects through the medium of Welsh is a challenge across many areas of Wales. Attracting well-qualified Welsh specialists is a particular challenge for many English-medium secondary schools. Almost a quarter of teachers who are employed to teach Welsh are not trained to teach the subject (p.40).

Recruiting enough Welsh-speaking teachers to cope with the new demand of the number of pupils attending Welsh-medium schools would be a challenge. Implying that teachers who are not trained to teach are having to be used can indicate a compromise in quality of teaching. Therefore, more support should be given to existing qualified teachers in aiding them to have more confidence in delivering more Welsh. The Welsh sabbatical scheme has been a course that has been designed to encourage teachers to take a sabbatical leave from teaching, typically for 12 months with the aim to raise the teachers' knowledge of Welsh, acquire terminology that's specific for their subject and to learn about different methodologies that they could use to support the use of Welsh in their classrooms (WJEC, 2020). Despite the good intentions of this scheme, it bares heavy economical impacts for the schools as they are expected to continue to pay the teachers' wages while also paying for a cover, which makes it difficult for schools to commit in the current economic climate.

### 2.2.5 L2 Welsh in English-medium Schools

While children from English-speaking backgrounds can attend Welsh-medium schools and are immersed in the language, the majority of pupils in Wales attend English-medium schools and are introduced to Welsh in specific second language lessons. Baker \& Jones (2000) believe that these pupils leaving primary school with

Welsh as a second language should be aiming towards fluency in Welsh during their five years of secondary education. This coincides with Cummins' theory of BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communications Skills) and CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency) (Cummins, 2008). BICS refers to the everyday language that one learns, while CALP expands on the language learnt during BICS by adding academic vocabulary to their knowledge of the language which in the end results in fluency. In this case, BICS could be the level that pupils achieve by the end of primary school, with secondary school providing the pupils with an opportunity to build on their academic vocabulary through the medium of CALP.

In reality, pupils don't reach the expected level of fluence despite Welsh second language remaining as a compulsory subject. This has been a matter of concern during recent years. When approaching Key Stage 4, pupils are given a choice of participating in a long or short course GCSE $^{9}$ in Welsh second language. The number of pupils opting for the former choice has fallen from approximately 12,000 pupils in 2004, to 8,140 in 2014. Conversely, the numbers of pupils choosing the short course have risen to 11,300 in 2014 (CBAC, 2015). Although factors such as curriculum time and the higher status of other subjects such as STEM may have played a part in the reasoning behind choosing the short course, it does give and indication that pupils were chosing to study as little Welsh as possible. These numbers can also explain perhaps why the expected level of fluency is not reached when the pupils are leaving school, with pupils who chose to follow the short course receiving as little as half an hour to an hour and a half of lessons a week, which is insufficient to create competent speakers (Lewis, 2010). The short course and long course system has now been abolished, and there is no choice for the pupils in how much Welsh they receive, with the first general course having been introduced in 2017 (and the first assessment to be taken in 2019). It is too soon to evaluate the effect of the new course, however, it is hoped that that it will raise the standards of Welsh second language.

[^7]In addition to the worrying fall in the number of students opting to follow the long course at GCSE, examiners have expressed their unease towards the standard of Welsh presented in the examination. One CBAC (2014) examiner stresses this in an annual examiners' report for Welsh second language, stating that many pupils have trouble putting simple sentences together, and are not aware of straightforward vocabulary such as the days of the week.

Furthermore to the fact that there is a worry that the standards that are being reached in Welsh Second Language GCSE exams, and the lack of interest in pursuing the subject (which, again, will be discussed in chapter 7), some scholars believe that language within education should move away from the boundaries of 'first language' and 'second language' education. It is believed that these traditional methods of categorizing language delivery in schools are both old fashioned and too simple to describe the present, complex situation (Baker, 2008). These traditional methods have been described by García (2009) as being 'artificial constructs that are divorced from the day to day reality of school language use' (p. 246). Despite these 'traditional' methods of delivering second language, by means such as immersion, being an important part of second language education in Wales during the last 50 years (Lewis, 2011), Baker (2008) and Gracia (2009) believe that education should move away from the strict classification of L1 and L2. Compartmentalising languages are found to have detrimental effects on language learners due to the learners comparing themselves to native speakers, a rise in language anxiety levels etc (this is discussed in more detail in chapter 4). Interestingly, the new curriculum for Wales by Donaldson intends on introducing a language continuum to replace the traditional L1 and L2 labels, and that pupils will be placed at various stages of the continuum that corresponds to their proficiency, which will be adjusted while they continue to develop their skills.

In addition to the traditional second language pupils, $40 \%$ of pupils in Wales move from Welsh-medium primary schools to English-medium secondary schools, meaning that they should be of first language ability when they leave primary school, although the reality could be debated. Due to the lack of standard in Welsh second
language, the pupils' needs are not met and therefore these pupils often leave school without sufficient abilities to speak Welsh.

Gracía and Baker believe that there should be more flexibility between two languages within the classroom. This would lead to important skills being developed, such as code-switching or translanguaging. This has been suggested as long ago as Jacobson (1990), however Williams (1997) suggests that more research would be needed to support the claims that this model of using the first and second languages side by side has a positive effect on pupils' learning outcomes.

Following the worries raised regarding the circumstances of Welsh second language in English-medium schools, it was realized by the Welsh Government that a review with recommendations was needed to improve on the current circumstances. This work was undertaken by Professor Sioned Davies (2012). While the report itself focuses primarily on Welsh second language as an academic subject, one of the recommendations highlighted within the report was that of the need to introduce Cymraeg bob dydd, a cross-curriculum approach to introducing everyday vocabulary in Welsh in various situations:

- develop best practice guidance on using incidental Welsh in school activities and using Welsh across the curriculum based on the pilot project to extend the use of Welsh as a medium of instruction in English-medium primary schools; and
- set targets to increase the use of Welsh-medium learning across the curriculum, based on best practice, in English-medium schools. (p. 33)

This recommendation enhances on the provision of Welsh beyond that of the Welsh classroom to be integrated as a part of the pupils' everyday lives in school. Professor Davies then states that she believes this to be a crucial element of the curriculum if the language is to be transmitted to the younger generation in order to preserve the history and culture of Wales: 'The future of Welsh and Welsh culture is wholly dependent on transmitting the language to our young people' (p.2). To the best of my knowledge, the mention of Cymraeg bob dydd in this report is the only guidance that schools have received in relation to the innitative. This implies that there has
been no guidance or support in implementing the use of Cymraeg bob dydd which highlights the need for a formal policy or strategy to be created, which will be discussed in more detail in the recommendations chapter.

Professor Donaldson, in his review of the curriculum in Wales (2015), also believes that change is required in order to improve the present circumstances, since Welsh Second Language is not currently sufficient in creating able speakers of Welsh. He also hopes that using everyday Welsh, incidentally, across the curriculum is the supplementary input that is needed for normalising the Welsh language, and taking it away from the confindes of the Welsh classroom. More generally, the new curriculum includes 4 statements relating to languages: language connects us, understanding language is key to understanding the world around us, expressing ourselves through language is key to communication and literature fires imagination and inspires creativity. These four statements are the base to the language education that pupils are to receive. The pupils will progress through 3 progression steps within each of the 4 statements with the view that the pupils will receive a more holistic approach to language education and how they connect to each other than the traditional methods that have been used previously.

It is important to note that, should this new innovative way of applying everyday Welsh across the curriculum succeed, that the consistency is maintained over all subjects. It is known that maths, science and technological subjects are often delivered in the majority language only, both here in Wales in English-medium schools and internationally (García, 2009). This could have a negative effect on the Cymraeg bob dydd initiative in Wales, as pupils would associate those subjects, which are considered important by some in society, with the majority language, therefore, resulting in the pupils viewing the majority language as the most important language. Baker (2006) warns of the dangers of this, stating that it would cause damage to the relationship between Welsh, and the way that it is viewed by the society, regarding economic and status benefits.

### 2.3 Summary

There is no doubt that education has already played a large part in the revitalisation of Welsh during the past decades. Since its start in the primary sector in 1939 and the secondary sector in 1956, the number of Welsh-medium schools has raised dramatically with 445 Welsh-medium and bilingual primary schools and 52 Welshmedium and bilingual secondary schools transmitting Welsh as a natural part of school life across Wales by 1999. There were many factors that contributed to this growth, with parental support and advocation for Welsh-medium education being a large driving force, especially during the early period, followed by the influence of the 1988 education act which made Welsh compulsory and the availability of being assessed through the medium of Welsh for qualifications such as GCSE and A-levels being vital in ensuring that Welsh-medium education was made possible. This has shown in the language use surveys, with the latest Welsh language use survey (201315) (Welsh Government, 2015a) showing that the majority of young Welsh speakers have been created through the medium of the education system. The effort of language revitalisation through the medium of the education system has been supported by organisations such as Mudiad Meithrin and the Urdd which has strengthened the use of Welsh outside lessons. The success of Welsh-medium education has been a subject of pride in Wales, with countries in Europe learning lessons from the models and applying them to their own contexts (Llywodraeth Cynulliad Cymru, 2010). Despite the historic success, the work of education must continue if the Welsh Government are to create a million Welsh speakers. Welshmedium schools succeed in immersing their pupils into the Welsh language and culture, however, most of the pupils in Wales attend English-medium schools, and therefore if the Welsh Government are to target large numbers in creating new speakers, the English-medium sector should be given more attention to. The current success of Welsh in the English-medium sector is low, and concerns have been raised about the lack of achievement in fluency by the pupils when they reach schoolleaving age and their attitudes towards the Welsh language. While Davies (2012) has outlined a number of recommendations to address this concern, it's also important that Wales learn from other pedagogical language teaching programmes that are
used across the world to raise the standards of Welsh second language in the English-medium sector. The next chapter explores these different pedagogical programmes.

## Chapter 3

## Chapter 3 <br> A review of current international bilingual education pedagogies

As outlined in the previous chapter, Wales have adopted pedagogies, such as immersion, which have been successful in attempting to revitalise the Welsh language. However, many more pedagogies are used internationally, and it's very important, if Wales are to continue to develop their language education, that policy makers are aware of these pedagogies and evaluate their benefits and disadvantages to determine the factors which could be applied to the Welsh context. These pedagogies are discussed in this chapter, and will provide an outline of various different programmes that are used in different countries, which will demonstrate where the Welsh context lies within a global context.

It has long been established within the language revitalisation literature that languges are unlikely to survive unless they are supported at school, in the home and in the wider community (Fishman, 1991; 2001). However, pupils who attend Englishmedium schools and are learning Welsh as a second language are often limited in their exposure to Welsh, with that exposure often limited to the school domain. Their exposure to Welsh is often through the medium of instructed learning that takes place for couple of hours a week in a formal classroom setting. As mentioned in Chapter 2, however, the current provision of instructed learning is not adequate to produce new speakers as pupils are leaving school with a low level of Welsh despite having received lessons for many years over the course of their education. This chapter will discuss the key concepts underpinning some successful teaching methods that are currently in place in Wales and elsewhere in bilingual language communities, including immersion, CLIL (content and language integrated learning), parallel language use, and dual language programmes, and will then look specifically at classroom teaching interventions, including translanguaging, task based learning and incidental language, exploring their potential application as methods of enriching pupils' exposure to and engagement with Welsh.

### 3.1 Immersion

Immersion is famously known to be successful in Canada, which is thought to be one of the first countries to pioneer the pedagogy after it was introduced in Quebec during the mid 1960s following a strong sense of enthusiasm for efficient teaching of French by parents (Lambert \& Tucker, 1972). Implementation in America was closely followed in California in 1971 (Hummel, 2014) and it quickly popularised as a mean of second language delivery elsewhere in the world.

Immersion is said to be unique due to its feature of delivering instruction within subjects entirely through the medium of the target language and is defined as having its 'aim to provide the quantity and quality of involvement in the use of the target language that ensure the development of a high level of proficiency' (Johnson \& Swain, 1997, p.xiii). This can happen during any stage of a child's education, with immersion for young children (kindergarten or grade 1 age ${ }^{10}$ ) being known as 'early immersion' and $4^{\text {th }}$ grade ${ }^{11}$ onwards being referred to as 'late immersion'. While the aim of immersion is to develop both the language proficiency skills of pupils and their academic attainment (their subject knowledge), concerns have grown that practitioners are struggling to balance the focus on form (the language) with the focus on meaning (subject) (Lyster, 2007). According to Swain and Johnson (1997) immersion includes eight distinctive features that apply to all immersion programmes:

1. The L 2 is the medium of instruction
2. The immersion curriculum parallels the local L1 curriculum
3. Overt support exists for the L1
4. The program aims for additive bilingualism
5. Exposure to the L2 is largely confined to the classroom
6. Students enter with similar (and limited) levels of L2 proficiency
7. The teachers are bilingual
8. The classroom culture is that of the local L1 community (p. 6-8)
[^8]These points made by Swain and Johnson (1997) are reflected in the reality of the practice of immersion in Wales. Welsh is the L2 for most pupils in Wales, therefore when they are immersed in Welsh-medium education, they are exposed to their L2 as the medium of instruction, which in many cases, is their only exposure to Welsh, as most pupils come from English-medium homes, and therefore aren't exposed to much Welsh outside the classroom. Due to being from English-medium backgrounds, all pupils that enter the immersion programmes usually start with very little or no knowledge of Welsh, however, as all teachers are bilingual with an ability to speak both Welsh and English fluently, they are able to use strategies such as translation and code-switching to aid the pupils in their language development, which aims to get the pupils to a fluent level. Despite this they do follow the same general curriculum as pupils in English-medium schools.

However, while each programme share those distinctive features, there are 10 elements, also highlighted by Swain and Johnson (1997) that can differentiate programmes from each other:

1. Level within the educational system at which immersion is introduced
2. Extent of immersion
3. The ratio of L 1 to L 2 at different stages within the immersion programme
4. Continuity across levels within education systems
5. Bridging support
6. Resources
7. Commitment
8. Attitudes toward the culture of the target language
9. The status of the L2
10. What counts as success in an immersion program

Despite the similarities and differences, since its beginnings, many studies have found immersion to be one of the most successful approaches concerning academic and language development within second language pedagogy and that pupils are able to achieve native-like levels in both their receptive skills (reading/listening) and productive skills (writing/speaking) (Genesee, 1987; Harley, 1992; Swain \& Lapkin, 1982). Although immersion pupils have been found to reach native-like levels in their receptive and productive skills, Harley et al. (1990) found that there could be a gap
between native-speaking students and non-native-speaking students in their writing and speaking skills due to the lack of opportunities that non-native-speakers have to interact with native speakers outside the immersion programme, and therefore, in many cases, the teacher is the only native-speaking model that they are able to follow, restricting their exposure to the natural form of the target language. Conversely, Bellin (1988) found that children who only received Welsh at school performed closer to the target forms on a test of mutation than children for whom Welsh was their first language, suggesting that different children reach different levels of language abilities depending on the requirements of the task and the type of language they are learning or that they know (formal vs. informal). Other studies have compared pupils' achievement that have received immersion compared to pupils that have been educated primarily in their dominant L1. In terms of academic results, Allen (2004) discovered that immersion students significantly outperform their non-immersion peers in all provinces but one in Canada when assessed on the PISA reading assessments (that one province, Manitoba, produced equal results by all pupils regardless of their immersion background).

Pupils in early immersion situations are exposed to 6000-7000 hours of the target language, while late immersion pupils are exposed to around 3500. Pupils that receive their L2 as a regular subject are typically exposed around 1000 hours (Netten \& Germain, 2004). The amount of additional hours that immersion pupils are exposed to is a likely contributor to its success, and studies have long demonstrated the importance of exposure in language learning success, as attested by input-driven accounts of bilingual and second language learning (e.g., Gathercole, 2007; etc.). According to Lightbown and Spada (2006, p.74), "one or two hours a week will not produce advanced second language speakers, no matter how young they were when they began", which highlights the importance of mass exposure. This is said to be one of the faults of Welsh second language learning, as the pupils are restricted to a couple of hours a week of exposure at the most which is insufficient to learn a language to a high proficiency. One of the aims of Cymraeg bob dydd is to increase the level of exposure that the pupils have which should, in turn, raise their knowledge of Welsh. In addition to mass exposure, immersion is said to work
because of its implicit nature. Young children are said to learn implicitly, which involves learning without being aware that they're learning (Spada \& Tomita, 2010). Immersion works by using the target language naturally during all aspects of school life with the aim that the children are able to acquire the new vocabulary without being conscious that they're learning a new language.

Immersion is often associated with languages such as French and Spanish that may not hold high prestige in a given community but are unthreatened languages globally. However, the principles underpinning immersion education in these languages have also been applied to minority language situations to support revitalization aims. Johnson and Swain (1997) go as far as saying that immersion can sometimes be the only way of reviving a language that is almost extinct. Studies into the Irish context has found that pupils engaged within immersion programmes have far exceeded the proficiency and comprehension abilities in Irish than those of their non-immersion counterparts that received regular second-language Irish as a school subject (Harris et al, 2006). In addition to the achievements in Irish, Parsons and Liddy (2009) and Kennedy (2011) found that this didn't compromise their English literacy skills, and the immersion pupils reached similar levels to those in nonimmersion schooling. Despite its success in raising pupils' abilities in the Irish languages, concerns have been raised that pupils haven't been able to reach nativelike levels (NCCA, 2006) due to English being the majority language. Tarone and Swain (1995) found that immersion programmes outside the Irish contexts were hindered by the use of L1s with pupils deciding to resort to their first language as their language of social interactions despite the overall context of the situation being in the L2. Studies have found that interlocutor effects (Carranza, 1995), the task type and content (Fazio \& Lyster, 1998) and the impact of the L2 form on the L1 when collaborating (Swain \& Lapkin, 1998) were factors that affected the pupils' choice of using their L1 in an L2 context. In addition to the effect of English on the Irish immersion programmes, only 7\% of the primary schools in 2000 in Ireland were immersion schools (Murtagh, 2007) and therefore didn't reach the majority of Irish pupils in the attempt to revitalise Irish.

While the success of immersion has been highlighted over the past decades, Genesee (2011) has argued that consideration must be given to the concerns raised while immersion matures, in order to continue with its success. These concerns cover four main points;

1. advocacy
2. the role of the parents
3. assessment, and
4. accessibility.

Genesee states that advocacy groups consisting of parents, local politicians and businessmen, should be formed in order to monitor changes in policies and to create new policies ac school, local and state/national levels, due to the lack of thought given to immersion programmes by official policy makers. Advocacy groups should safeguard the immersion programmes if changes were to occur to ensure that the programmes can continue in their new context. This is something that has been under scrutiny during the past few years as Wales embarks on a new Curriculum for Wales. Extensive consultation of proposed curriculum reform with a view towards protecting and strengthening the provision for Welsh has led to an assurance of preservation of current good and effective practice alongside new, innovative ways of developing that provision. In addition to their support within the advocacy groups, Genesee also argues that parental support is essential if the pupils are to become fully proficient in the L2, by creating opportunities such as going on family holidays to regions where the L2 is spoken by natives and organising exchange programmes with native speakers and so forth.In addition to encouraging cultural activities outside school, parents, carers and the public are also endorsed in Donaldson's curriculum (2015) to promote the value of commercial benefits of having an ability to speak Welsh and the cognitive effect that it has.

It is also said to be important that the type of assessment is suitable for the immersion programme. Research by Johnson and Swain (1997) found that using summative assessment aided the growth of immersion due to its credibility. Formative assessment is also essential for the continual development of individuals in order to improve long-term, which also allows the teacher to recognise the pupils'
weaknesses and to make modifications to address them (Ainsworth \& Viegut, 2006). In order for the formative assessments to be successful within immersion it must be managed carefully by the teachers, who should take an ownership of the process to eliminate the threat of ownership by outside stakeholders. The formative assessments should also be modified to be parallel to the curriculum material, the instructions and resources if it is to work successfully. Donaldson (2015) has noted the need for the formative assessment in Wales to be much stronger if standards are to be improved. The new curriculum acknowledges that the Welsh Government are aware that the current assessment frameworks bare weaknesses, and need reform if the assessments are to be successful in informing pupils of the next steps in their learning and whether they are making sufficient progress.

Lastly, accessibility is an important factor that should be considered within immersion. An assumption exists that only the able pupils will be able to succeed through the medium of immersion, which may make some parents feel that they are prevented from sending their children to immersion schools or classrooms. However, studies have shown that pupils with low academic abilities, disadvantaged socio-economic backgrounds and minority groups who attend immersion schools perform at the same level as pupils from similar challenging backgrounds in L1 schools (Bruck, 1978; 1982), however, further research is needed to gain knowledge of the current situation. In the Welsh and special education contexts, Ward (2020) has discovered that children with Down Syndrome who receive Welsh-medium education aren't disadvantaged in their English skills, and perform similarly to their counterparts in English-medium education. Genesee believes that the issue of some pupils not accessing immersion due to their backgrounds raises an ethical question that pupils are denied access to cognitive and job-related benefits in the future. Due to this, it's believed that the issue of accessibility for all pupils despite their context should be addressed if immersion is to continue to develop successfully. However, despite its criticisms that need to be addressed for the continuation of immersion for the future, immersion should be credited without a doubt for the success of pupils in acquiring second languages.

### 3.2 CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning)

CLIL is defined as "an approach which teaches a subject, and therefore the contents of that subject through the medium of a foreign language" (Thomas et al, 2017, p. 26). CLIL emerged during the 1990s when the term was coined in 1994 and was then officially launched in 1996 (Marsh, 2006). It's believed that integrating content and languages dates back as far as 5,000 years, when Akkadians in where is now known as Iraq, wished to learn the local language following conquering the Sumerians. This was done by using the Sumerian language to teach subjects such as theology and botany to the Akkadians (Mehisto et al, 2008). The 1990s was considered to be a period in which teaching and learning through a foreign language soared and became very popular (Marsh, 2002). CLIL education was originally introduced into the education systems by countries that had more than one official languages or/and had their own regional or minority languages (Eurydice, 2006). Data from Eurydice (2012) show that CLIL is now present as a pedagogical implementation for language learning within schools in all European countries apart from Denmark, Greece, Iceland and Turkey. Despite its presence in most countries within Europe, the number of actual schools that have implemented CLIL are generally small in numbers. In two-thirds of European countries, language teachers can choose to either opt to teach a language only or to teach two subjects, one of which being a language subject (EACEA \& Eurydice, 2012).

Despite being a specialist pedagogy, in terms of qualifications, a degree in the target language and in the specific language is sufficient as a prerequisite to use the CLIL model in two-thirds of European countries. Considering that CLIL is a specialised method of delivering both language and content, the lack of training could present problems. CLIL is most often implemented within secondary schools rather than primary (Wolff, 2007), and therefore, a teacher is more likely to be trained in a specific subject which makes it harder to combine the specific subject with the language subject or vice versa.

Many stakeholders are credited for implementing CLIL. European institutions and
national language policy makers are often responsible for putting CLIL into practice from a higher level, while schools, teachers and parents encourage the use of CLIL on a more localised level for the pupils to acquire a foreign language. The highest instructions for CLIL come from the European Commission. Due to their aims that EU citizens should be able to speak at least two additional languages to their mother tongue (European Commission, 2009), they have steered language learning towards CLIL through the medium of language policies (European Commission Communication, 2003). However, although this push has been made by the European commission, very few nations have reacted with their own substantial commitments to managing and investing CLIL education. This has left the stakeholders on the ground to make the commitment to securing the delivery of CLIL (Eurydice, 2006). Fortunately, individuals, often parents, have been happy to oblige, as they perceive CLIL education as providing their children with an 'edge' that will then aid them to be frontrunners when competing for employment (Li, 2002). CLIL is different to immersion in that in addition to being taught the subject knowledge, language learning such as grammar are also taught, meaning that the pupils develop their language skills in addition to being given opportunities to use the language (de Graff et al, 2007), which makes CLIL an attractive option for parents and pupils. This is especially true as CLIL is dominated by English (Dalton-Puffer, 2011), a language that is considered to have great economic value given its globalization.

Some studies confirm the thoughts of parents and have shown that CLIL pupils do outperform non-CLIL pupils in language development. It is thought that this may be because the pupils that receive CLIL lessons are more exposed to the foreign language and receive more contact hours than pupils that do not receive CLIL lessons, and only receive a delivery of the foreign language within the language class itself (Dalton-Puffer, 2011; Perez-Canado, 2012). It is also said that the holistic aspect of CLIL that integrates the language and content aspects, that differentiates from the focus of only practicing language that pupils do in a language specific class, means that the pupils are able to master the language far quicker and better (Coyle, 2013).

Many studies have highlighted the extent of the problem that lies with motivating
pupils in language learning. However, CLIL is said to be a powerful pedagogy to drive the motivation due to its nature of encouraging the pupils to use what they had learnt into practice in various contexts (de Zarobe, 2013). This can inspire the pupils and result in them developing their confidence in the language and a 'can-do' attitude towards their abilities to learn and use the language (Marsh, 2000). This has become especially true in lessons that have shifted from being teacher-centered to pupils-centered. This has resulted in pupils becoming more aware of how they learn, and how they could develop this further to study more efficiently, and therefore giving them the tools that they are able to use for themselves and boost their confidence (Chamot \& O'Malley, 1994).

However, other studies have published different results. Dalton-Puffer et al (2008) found that student participation reduces within CLIL lessons, as they use their mother tongue when communicating with their friends. Speaking in the foreign language may cause language anxiety, especially when the pupils begin the CLIL lessons, as they attempt to use a language that they are not entirely competent in and are therefore nervous of speaking (Gardner, 2010). Although there are studies that exist that have found both the positive and negative side to CLIL, Bruton (2011) has called for caution when using these studies to generalize, and that learner characteristics, teaching styles, age, class composition and pedagogic approaches should be taken into account when considering the contextual conditions. Due to the inconsistencies in implementation and results of CLIL between countries, with positive results in Spain (Naves \& Victori, 2010), Finland (Nikula, 2005) and Germany (Zydatiss, 2007) compared to more negative results in Sweden (Sylven, 2004). Sylven (2013) calls for contextual factors such as policy framework, research and teacher training to be considered across the European countries to strive for consistency.

Naves (2009) has attempted to look for the common themes within CLIL in order to demonstrate what makes a successful programme within Europe:

1. Respect and support for the learner's first language and culture
2. Competent bilingual teachers - teachers fully proficient in the language of
instruction and familiar with one of the learners' home languages
3. Mainstream (not pull-out) optional courses
4. Long-term, stable programmes and teaching staff
5. Parents' support for the programme
6. Cooperation and leadership from education authorities, administrators, and teachers
7. Dually qualified teachers (in content and language)
8. High teaching expectations and standards
9. Availability of quality CLIL teaching materials
10. Properly implemented CLIL methodology (p. 36).

Many theories and approaches to language learning support the application of CLIL. These theories include models such as the Monitor Model (Krashen, 1985), Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996) and Focus on Form (Doughty \& Williams, 1998). The most famous theories however are the 4C's framework (Coyle, 1999), SLA pentapie (Westhoff, 2004) and the BICS/CALP distinction by Cummins (2008).

Coyle's 4C framework aims to bring different sides of CLIL together to support the development of CLIL pedagogies, and is built on the following principles:

1. Content (progression towards knowledge, skills and understanding which are connected to specific parts of the curriculum)
2. Communication (using a language to learn content whilst enriching language skills)
3. Cognition (developing mental skills)
4. Culture (exposure to different perspectives which deepen awareness of others and themselves) (quoted from Thomas et al, 2017, p.26)

Although Coyle views the framework as a philosophical stance rather than a theory, the four C's represent content, communication, cognition and culture, and in essence suggests that through the $4 c^{\prime}$ s, where the pupil develops their knowledge, skills and understanding of the content, engages in cognitive processing, interact in the communicative context by developing language knowledge and skills and raising their intercultural awareness, successful CLIL happens (Perez-Canado, 2012).

Westhoff (2004) on the other hand has developed five strands compared to Coyle's 4, which are considered important in CLIL delivery. This theory also looks at the
delivery of CLIL from the teacher perspective rather than the pupils' and therefore gives advice as to what makes successful preparation and delivery for the CLIL classroom. The five strands consist of: Exposure to input (teachers should select texts in advance; adapt texts in advance; adapt the teacher talk in advance; adapt texts during teaching and fine-tune teacher talk), meaning (teachers should stimulate meaning identification; check meaning identification; emphasise correct and relevant identifications of meaning and exercise correct and relevant identifications of meaning), form (teachers should facilitate noticing of problematic and relevant language forms; provide examples of correct and relevant language forms; correct use of problematic and relevant language forms; explain problematic and relevant language forms, for example, by giving rules and should encourage pupils to give peer feedback), output (teachers should ask for reactions; ask for interaction; let students communicate; stimulate the use of the target language; provide feedback that concentrates on correcting the output and organise written practice) and use of strategies (teachers should extract receptive compensation strategies; extract productive compensation strategies; extract reflection on strategy use and scaffold strategy use).

Lastly, Cummins (2008) has made a distinction between BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills) and CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency) which are relevant to the CLIL context. BICS refers to the language that is used within everyday conversations while CALP is geared more towards an academic situation where language is used to express complex meanings either orally or in writing. Because of the amount of new information (both language and content) that is acquired in a CLIL classroom, CALP is necessary in order to be able to understand and discuss the new material, and therefore requires a high level of cognitive demand to develop in the programme. To be able to reach this level Heine (2014) believes that pupils' abilities are scaffolded through three levels. The first step is for the pupils to refine their basic foreign language skills and their fluency of conversation that is based on their general lexicon, morphosyntax, phonolocial competences and their phonetic abilities, which equates to Cummin's BICS category. Following the initial step the pupils build on their BICS abilities and develop competence in general
academic language. This starts to move closer to CALP, and can include interpreting complex texts, the ability to make concise arguments and reasoning and the use of written work. By the third, and last step, the pupils are able to draw on their CALP abilities, and are therefore competent in the CLIL classroom.

### 3.3 Parallel language use

As discussed in Chapter 1, the globalisation of English has had an effect on smaller languages and the way that countries and/or local jurisdictions deal with these languages in their language policies. Parallel language use has been developed and used as a concept since 15-20 years, after it was mentioned within a draft action programme for Swedish language promotion in 1998 (Kuteeva, 2011). Concerns had been raised that home languages such as Swedish were under threat, and therefore the Nordic countries found a need to promote them by using them alongside English as opposed to having English as the dominant language (Hult \& Kallvist, 2016). The Nordic countries' education and cultural ministers decided that English should be used in parallel with their own languages, and they published a report - 'Declaration on a Nordic Language Policy - in 2006 (Nordic Council of Ministers, 2007). While the policy of parallel language use was expected to be implemented on a number of levels within education and research, it was particularly important for the universities of those countries. Many reasons were behind this. The Bologna process, which is a series of ministerial meetings that ensure the consistency within higher education organisations, was being driven in order to standardise degrees across the whole of the European countries. By using English as a lingua franca within the universities and courses, this would contribute towards the consistency that the Bologna process was aiming for. Using more English along with their home languages was also a way of drawing international students to their universities. This was termed 'internationalization at home' and contributed greatly to the globalised image of the universities (Nilsson, 2003). In Sweden, this was seen as a way of raising the universities' research profiles and their international rankings. Despite the benefits, concerns were raised that Swedish students would be at a disadvantage if

English would be over-emphasised as the medium of instruction (Bolton \& Kuteeva, 2012).

Parallel languages use is centred around the idea that every language can be used together within the same domains, and that no language is more dominant than the other as all languages within the situation share the same prestige (Davidsen-Nislen, 2008). The concept of parallel language use is now very well established in the Nordic countries, however, it has not been implemented much in countries outside Scandinavia (Kristina, 2016). This may be because the Nordic countries were in a good position to use more English within their university programmes, as they had an existing grounding, with only the Netherlands having more English within their programmes through the whole of Europe (Wachter \& Maiworm, 2008). This grounding provided a base to work on which provided the Nordic countries with a good start in order to implement parallel language use.

Currently, parallel language use is being implemented through various avenues. English is the expected language to be used by university administrators as a lingua franca when communicating is needed with international students (Kallvist \& Hunt, 2016). In terms of textbooks and resources, materials are now mostly English across most of the subjects offered within the universities, and Swedish universities are proactive in promoting international peer-reviewed journals as a way to publish research (Bolton \& Kuteeva, 2012). In terms of delivery, it is expected that English is used in parallel to the home language. This, for example could mean that the reading materials could be in English while the lecture is delivered in the home language or both languages could be switched simultaneously during the lectures and seminars ${ }^{12}$ (Soderlundh, 2012). Despite the intentions, Kuteeva (2014) states that this doesn't often happen in practice. Since a good competence of each language is needed in order to follow and understand the material in both languages, international students' level of the home languages, Swedish in this case, are not high enough, and therefore English is often used for the vast majority of time.

[^9]The initial cause for concern over the Swedish students have been highlighted in a number of studies. Research by Airey $(2009,2011)$ has shown that the students communicated less with their lecturers when the delivery was in English compared to when the delivery was in Swedish because they were spending more time taking notes instead of concentrating on the subject content itself. This may be because 74\% of Swedish students reported that they found it harder to read in English compared to Swedish and 44\% would avoid choosing an English-medium book because of this reason (Pecorari et al, 2011b), this would explain that they felt the need to take notes to analyse later in their own time as they were unable to understand the subject matter immediately. Ljosland (2011) found that students switched to their L1 at every opportunity possible.

Airey's (2011) study also looked at parallel language use from the lecturer's perspectives. The research found that there was a lack of training in the English language for the lecturers at the universities and they needed more time in order to be able to prepare lectures and materials. The attitudes towards the English language textbooks were not very positive by the teachers either, with only $21 \%$ of the lecturers in Swedish Universities stating that they felt generally positive towards their use within the courses they delivered (Pecorari et al, 2011a). Despite the difficulties that the students found in acquiring the English content, $90 \%$ of the lecturers within natural sciences subjects said that they had very little difficulty when teaching in English. However, 50\% of the lecturers within law and humanities subjects stated that they would prefer to "discuss their subject in Swedish" (Bolton \& Kuteeva, 2012, p. 438). Research by Salo (2010) in Stockholm University stated that there was no consistency in the implementation of parallel language use across different subject areas, and that English was used more in natural sciences subjects than other areas such as law, humanities and the social sciences, which may explain these findings.

Parallel language use is currently only used within the Scandinavian countries within Europe, and would therefore provide a basis for further research for its development
in other countries in the future. Although the parallel languages programme is only currently being used within the Scandinavian countries, this pedagogy does overlap somewhat with other pedagogies such as the Dual language programs (discussed in the next section) in the United States, which highlights the need for countries to model pedgogies that are most effective for their own socio-linguistic situation.

### 3.4 Dual language programmes

Dual language programmes have existed in the United States since the 1960s, where the programme was found to be successful in revitalizing the use of French amongst the pupils in Montreal (Call et al, 2018) and has grown in popularity during the 1990s when greater sources of funding was available. By 2003 there were nearly 300 duallanguage programmes in America with 86\% of them established between 1991 and 2001 (Center for Applied Linguistics, 2004).

The term 'Dual-Language Programmes' is used as an umbrella term to describe a variety of labels such as developmental bilingual education, two-way bilingual education, one and two way immersion, dual immersion and enrichment education. However, despite these various labels, they share the most important factor which is the use of two languages for instruction with the shared aim that pupils become fully proficient in both languages (Freeman et al, 2005). In some schools, they start with 90\% of the instruction being introduced in the target language during the first year while the remaining 10\% is in English, moving to 80\% in the second year (20\% in English), and 50\% in both by the third (Lindholm-Leary, 2004). This is dependent on pupils' competence and how much input they need in the target language in order to acquire it successfully (Howard et al, 2003b). Other schools opt to start straight away with the 50/50 model. This typically involves dividing the day in half with one teacher teaching in the target language while the other delivers their lesson in English (Alanis \& Rodriguez, 2008) with an expectation that the pupils also communicate in those respective languages during those specific times (e.g English during the English delivery) (Palmer, 2007). Schools are encouraged to start the
programme with the pupils as early as possible, as they are more likely to develop better proficiencies and native-like pronunciations in the target languages (cf. Critical Period Hypothesis (Johnson \& Newport, 1991; Abbott, 2011)).

Dual language programmes can also be categorized as 'one-way' or 'two-way'. Within one-way programmes, that there is only one minority group within the classroom, and therefore the programme serves that particular minority language along with English. Within two-way programmes, more than one minority group are present, and therefore they are acquiring more than one language in addition to English, most often, their home language, English and an additional language.

Alanis (2000) introduced a model, which includes four key components as to what dual language programmes are:
I. The programme essentially involves dual-language instruction where the non-English language is used for a significant portion of the students' instructional day;
2. The program meinvolves periods of instruction during which only one language is used;
3. Both native and non-native English speakers are participants;
4. The students are integrated for most content instruction (p. 230).

Palmer (2007) states that dual language programmes aim to reach three goals: (a) bilingualism/biliteracy; (b) cross-cultural understanding; and (c) high academic achievement. De Jong (2002) on the other hand highlights similarly three components; however, they are based on the preparation of the programmes rather than their aims: (a) dual language programmes are set on bilingual theories that emphasize the importance of having strong abilities in the first language in order to become proficient in the second; (b) the teacher must consider successful pedagogical instructional practices of teaching second languages when planning the delivery of dual language programmes; and (c) the programme must built on sociocultural theories, where the pupils' communication are the centre of the learning process.

A safe atmosphere within the classroom is said to be paramount when delivering dual language programmes to ensure that the pupils learn about the target language and culture (Alanis \& Rodriguez, 2008). A dual language classroom is expected to include a balance of pupils that are native speakers of the target language, while the others are native speakers of the majority language (English in most cases). Pupils are integrated within the classes and therefore are able to learn from each other (de Jong, 2002). The more diverse the classroom is, the more likely positive cultural experiences are to happen within the lessons (Pica, 1994; Ellis, 2000; Barden \& Cashwell, 2013). This is especially important as exposure to the other languages that pupils speak during communication means that the pupils are able to hear the language being spoken by native speakers and are given the opportunity to use the language themselves (Snow, 1990). Research has shown that interactions between peers are more supportive within second language learning that interacting with adults (De jong, 1996). The structure of the dual language programmes therefore give the pupils a greater opportunity to learn the second language through natural conversations in addition to the subject knowledge and the lesson itself.

Dual language programmes are considered to be unique in that the language development is not emphasized any more that the academic and social developments as all three are balanced equally within the classroom. This is due to the pluralistic view that dual language programmes, similarly to other pedagogies, take on bilingualism, with the belief that, bilingualism is beneficial cognitively and socially for students learning English and learning the other language within the programme (Roberts, 1995; Thomas \& Collier, 1997).

Dual language programmes have been found to be successful academically with pupils on the programmes achieving grades in reading, mathematics and science, equivalent or better to monolingual peers not on the programme (Lindholm-Leary \& Genesee, 2010). This is found to be especially true within the language-minority pupils, who have higher standardized test scores if they have been on a dual language programme compared to ones that have not (Howard et al, 2003a).

Despite these results, scholars have also reported tensions within the programmes, which is due to the dominance of English within the standardized assessment tests (Menken \& Solorza, 2015). Although the dual language programmes promote bilingualism and biliteracy, the standardized tests are dependent on English achievement, and therefore more importance and emphasis is put on the English proficiency (Duran \& Palmer, 2014), which then has an effect of the classroom's language use (Henderson \& Palmer, 2015), and may take away from the foundations of bilingualism that the dual language programmes are laid upon.

The strict policies of language separation have also been criticized. As discussed in this chapter, many scholars have advocated for languages to be used together within classrooms, and that the idea of language separation is becoming a thing of the past. Keeping languages strictly separate within their specific timetables, dual language programmes are taking a step backwards in bilingual education. This is said to put additional pressure on the programme (Babino, 2017; Menken \& Avni, 2017) as it does not encourage students to draw from all of their linguistic resources at the same time in order to maximize the learning (Sanchez et al, 2017) and therefore makes it harder for the pupils to acquire the language in that sense. This also makes it difficult for the teacher to assess, as they are unable to see the pupils' full linguistic repertoire and abilities and to see whether they are capable of doing different tasks in either languages and switch between the two. In addition to the assessment, it also makes it difficult for teachers to scaffold the lessons appropriately for the pupils' abilities as they are often unaware of what was taught during the other languages' session (Sanchez et al, 2017).

Attempts have been made by researchers to see if dual language programmes could move away from the strictness and rules that they follow to a more fluid approach. Gomez et al (2005) conducted a study that divided the 50/50 approach by academic subject rather than by time allocation, and therefore half the subjects were taught in Spanish while the other half was taught in English. The results were positive as 88\% of the Spanish students reached the standard grade in reading, and $91 \%$ of the English-speaking students also reached the grade. Similar results were had in the
maths test where $86 \%$ of the Spanish speakers reached the standard along with $95 \%$ of the English-speaking pupils. This was significant in showing that the dual language programme could be adjusted to subject areas rather than time allocations, and could provide a base for further research in the fluidity of dual language programmes in the future.

### 3.5 Task-Based Learning

Task-based learning as a pedagogy has been widely used over the past three decades (Ahmadian, 2013) and has grown as a research area during the late 1980s and the beginning of the 1990s (Nunan, 1991; Willis, 1990; Breen, 1987) and has continued to grow to the present day. Many definitions have been offered as to what a 'task' is, however Tavakoli \& Foster (2008) define a task as:
"anything that classroom language learners do when focusing their attention primarily on what they want to say to others or what others are trying to say to them" (p. 441).

There have been many interpretations of what scholars feel the task-based process should entail. Candlin (1987, p.11) provides one framework that includes what the key features of task-based learning should be: Input (this is the written, visual, or aural information that learners performing a task work on to achieve the goal of the task), roles (the roles that learners have in performing a task, such as informationgiver and information-receiver), settings (the grouping arrangements in and outside of classrooms for which pedagogy prepares learners to communicate), actions (these are the procedures to follow in performing the task or the various steps that learners must take along the road to task completion), monitoring (the supervisory process of ensuring that the task performance remains on track), outcomes (the oral, written, and/or behavioral outcomes in which the task is intended to result) and feedback (the evaluation of the whole or parts of a task performance by the teacher or other learners, including corrective feedback on language use as well as other helpful feedback).

The general model that is used across schools within language learning entails three parts: 'pre-task', the task itself and 'task evaluation' (Willis, 1996) and Cardlin's key features are distributed acrosss these stages: The process of task-based learning begins with the 'pre-task' stage that aims to prepare the pupils to perform the task in a manner that will promote acquisition (Ellis, 2003). Dornyei (2001) argues that this phase should act as a motivator for the pupils by honing the pupils' appetites before undertaking the task. Pre-task activities could include performing a similar task, observing a model of the task, non-task preparation activities such as studying the background of the topic area and strategic planning that includes encouraging the pupils to plan how they will do the task (Ellis, 2003). By participating in the pretask phase of the process, this ensures that the pupils will be able to conduct the task successfully and are aware of the final aim, and are therefore able to work towards it to reach the outcome (Lee, 2000).

Following the pre-task phase, the undertaking of the task takes place. Ellis (2009) states that a task should meet the following four criteria: (1) primary focus on meaning; (2) some kind of gap observed; (3) reliance of learners on their own linguistic resources to complete the activity; and (4) the specification of a nonlinguistic outcome.

Samuda and Bygate (2008) have categorized tasks into 'task-supported', 'taskreferenced' and 'tasked-based approaches'. These can be designed specifically to focus on either grammatical structures or lexical items within the syllabus when they follow these categorizations. Task-supported tasks refer to tasks that are inputed into programmes that already exist with the aim of enriching their learning with an additional method of acquiring new vocabulary and forms, and they are used alongside the curriculum and other pedagogical practices. Task-referenced tasks are used to focus on the end result of the learning. Task-referenced tasks are not tasks that are used as a part of the learning, but are instead used as a method to define abilities as assessment tasks, which can then be used to influence the types of tasks that the teacher wishes to use during the learning period before the assessments. Thirdly, tasked-based approaches are the most heavily task-based category from the
three, as the pedagogical programmes that are delivered within this approach are built around the use of tasks, which are centeral to the learning.

Lastly, following the task itself, pupils are expected to evaluate the tasks. Ellis (2003) has also designed a framework that can be applied when evaluating the tasks: (1) student-based, which measures the degree to which students found the task useful and/or enjoyable; (2) response-based, which compares predicted task outcomes to actual ones; and (3) learning-based evaluations, which attempt to measure the degree to which learning took place as a result of the task.

Scholars have recognized many benefits to using task-based learning within language education:
-Tasks provide a context for negotiating and comprehending the meaning of language provided in task input, or used by a partner performing the same task.

- Tasks provide opportunities for uptake of (implicit or explicit) corrective feedback on a participant's production, by a partner, or by a teacher.
- Tasks provide opportunities for incorporation of premodified input, containing "positive evidence" of forms likely to be important to communicative success and that may previously have been unknown or poorly controlled.
- Tasks provide opportunities for noticing the gap between a participant's production and input provided and for metalinguistic reflection on the form of output.
- Task demands can focus attention on specific concepts required for expression in the second language (L2) and prompt effort to grammaticize them in ways that the L2 formally encodes them, with consequences for improvements in accuracy of production.
- Simple task demands can promote access to and automatization of the currently emerged interlanguage means for meeting these demands, with consequences for improved fluency of production.
- Task demands can also promote effort at re-conceptualizing and rethinking about events, in ways that match the formal means for encoding conceptualization that L2s make available.
- Sequences of tasks can consolidate memories for previous efforts at successfully resolving problems arising in communication, on previous versions, thereby strengthening memory for them.
- Following attempts to perform simpler versions, complex tasks can prompt learners to attempt more ambitious, complex language to resolve the demands they make on communicative success, thereby stretching
interlanguage and promoting syntacticization, with consequences for improved complexity of production.
- Additionally, all of the above happen within a situated communication context that can foster form-function-meaning mapping and can do so in ways that motivate learners to learn. (taken from Robinson, 2011 p. 2)

Task based learning is now considered to be important as it links the field of second language acquisition with language pedagogy due to its ability to develop pupils' competence in using the language as it would be outside the class, but within the class (Ellis, 2003). The processing depth theory (Craik \& Lockhart, 1972) states that the way in which a word is processed is the largest influence on how well a new word will be stored in long-term memory, and that greater learner involvement while processing the new words affects the processing of it. This theory has been applied to how task-based learning can produce these different levels of processing new vocabulary (Brown \& Perry, 1991; Stahl \& Clark, 1987). For example, Brown \& Perry (1991) discovered that when comparing a group of pupils that were exposed to keywords compared to another group who were exposed to semiotics with a third group that were exposed to both keywords and semiotics, the group that were exposed to both keywords and semiotics were the most successful in acquiring and memorizing words.

Similarly to the processing depth theory, the 'procedural syllabus' theory (Prabhu, 1987) has also looked at the cognitive benefits of task-based learning, and have argued that the conscious mind works out the meaning-content while the subconscious mind acquires the linguistic structure of the target language. However, given how children learn and how the brain matures across time, this approach may work better for some children than others, or may require adaptations in order to maximize on its success. Specifically, it is known that young children depend on implicit learning, while older children and adults benefit from explicit instruction (Spada \& Tomita, 2010). Some aspects of task-based learning can be explicit - e.g. via the direct involvement with the task - but the linguistic aspect may or may not be wholly or partially implicit, depending on how the task is developed.

On a pedagogical level, there are many factors that can influence the delivery of
task-based learning. Teachers' role within the development of tasks is fundamental in evaluating whether tasks are appropriate for the classroom (Ellis, 1997). Although the pupils are expected to design the tasks, the teacher must be aware of what each tasks entail to ensure that they are fit for purpose, reach a suitable ability level and include the relevant vocabulary and themes. Should these elements not be appropriate, pupils disengage with the tasks, leading to no success (Calvert \& Sheen, 2015). Many studies have looked deeper into this issue. De la Fuente (2002) found that the pupils' vocabulary acquisition was much better when they were given tasks that expected them to negotiate and produce the new vocabulary compared to when they were simply exposed to the target words. Joe $(1995 ; 1998)$ also found similar results, concluding that tasks that required more active participation where the learner generated the context was more successful than tasks such as memorizing from texts. Paribakht and Wesche (1997) came to a similar conclusion. When asked to practice new vocabulary with post-reading vocabulary focused exercise, the pupils had a much better success in remembering the new vocabulary than the reading only group. These studies show that the more the pupil participation within the task, the better the vocabulary retention will be.

Group work has also been recognized as a successful way of undertaking task-based learning. This is said to be because pupils can develop their language by receiving input by others which is on their level, and therefore easy to understand (Long and Porter, 1985); pupils develop their knowledge of content by building on other pupils' knowledge and working explicitly (Mercer, 1996); and pupils can also draw on relevant cultural and linguistic resources by being a part of a group (Gumperz et al, 1999).

### 3.6 Translanguaging

Translanguaging was coined as a term during the 1980s by Cen Williams and Colin Baker to describe the pedagogical use of two languages for teaching and learning inside the same lesson. This specifically refers to a deliberate act where the teacher or pupils switches from one language within the mode of input to another language
during the output (Williams, 1994b). For example, pupils read a book in English, receiving the input in English, but writes a book review based on their reading. In this case, whilst the input language is English and the input format reading, the output language is Welsh and the output format a review or critique.

This term was popularised during a time where languages were encouraged to integrate holistically within the classroom following a period where it was believed that languages should be kept apart in order for the acquisition to be successful (Baker, 2010). The term has however developed from its original definition over the last few years. Garcia has played a major role in this development and has argued that the term goes much further than the original 'input' and 'output' meaning, and that translanguaging occurs much more naturally than first thought, and that pupils are able to move spontaneously between the languages (Garcia, 2009a).

Translanguaging has been found to have many benefits. Baker (2001, 2006, and 2011) has outlined four advantages to the pedagogy. Firstly, by using translanguaging, pupils' understanding of the subject content will developed by elaborating on their pre-existing knowledge. Secondly, translanguaging works by strengthening the weakest language as pupils are expected to conduct the principal parts of their work through the medium of the weakest language. This is supported by the use of the stronger language when conducting smaller tasks. Thirdly, the link between the home and the school could be eased by explaining the subject information through the medium of one language in school and a different language at home, which results in a deeper understanding of their subject content. Lastly, it is also believed that translanguaging can bring together fluent speakers of the language with learners, which again, provides an opportunity to pupils who are learning the language to practice and strengthen their knowledge of the language.

Other scholars have also stated that there are vast benefits to translanguaging including increased access to curricular content, increasing inclusion and participation, deeper understanding of the subject matter, the development of pedagogical tasks and it provides a stronger solidarity between pupils and teachers
(Arthur \& Martin, 2006; Creese \& Blackledge, 2010; Garcia et al. 2011; Garcia \& Kano, 2014; Lewis et al, 2012a, Palmer et al, 2014). In addition to these benefits Creece and Blackledge (2010) have also recognized the following to be advantages of translanguaging:

- Ability to engage audiences through translanguaging and heteroglossia.
- Establishment of identity positions.
- Recognition that languages do not fit into clear bounded entities and that all languages are 'needed' for meaning to be conveyed and negotiated.
- Endorsement of simultaneous literacies and languages to keep the pedagogic task moving (p. 113).

In addition to specialized benefits within the education system, Otheguy et al (2015) stated that tranlanguaging could be beneficial for minority languages and their communities:
"Translanguaging, then, as we shall see, provides a smoother conceptual path than previous approaches to the goal of protecting minoritized communities, their languages, and their learners and schools" (p. 283).

This could be argued to be because of its ability to allow pupils to use languages freely and move from one to the other and therefore is moving away from the isolation of languages and keeping them separate. Translanguaging also ensures the balance between the languages within the classroom, meaning that both are given a place within the delivery of the lesson (Duarte, 2018)

Despite the noted benefits, there is also a worry that translanguaging could also harm minority languages. A study conducted by Hickey (2001) stated that first language Irish students produced half their words in English, while second language Irish students produced around two-thirds of their words in English despite being in an Irish-medium pre-school. Cenoz \& Gorter (2017) have taken this study as a warning sign that if the majority language is allowed to be used within the classroom by means of translanguaging, then the pupils will turn to that language instead of the target language, and will speak less and less of the minority language, leaving it in danger. This may be because of language hierarchies, where majority languages are considered to be more important (Garcia \& Li, 2014).

This doesn't necessarily have to be due to language anxiety (see Chapter 4) and the choice of returning to the majority language because they're not competent in the minority language. This is because for translanguaging, the pupils' abilities in both languages are expected to be rather high in order to process and output information in both languages. It is also seen as a strategy that develops a pupil's bilingualism rather than teaching and learning the language (Williams, 2002). Translanguaging is therefore viewed as an optimal attempt at understanding the subject through the medium of language rather than the language acquisition outcome (Creese and Blackledge, 2010). In recent years, Garcia (2009b) has contradicted Williams (2002) by stating that translanguaging could also be used with pupils who are learning a second language and are emergent bilinguals and could be viewed as being a normal part of a lesson for everyone along the bilingual continua (2009b). Whilst this type of strategy may be effective in communities where there is strong support for both languages (such as French-English in Canada oe Spanish-English in the US), in contexts where minority languages ae struggling for survival, such as strategy must be approached with caution.

In addition to the pupils' language abilities, translanguaging is said to be dependent on the subject areas that are taught whether it's successful as a pedagogy or not. Teachers are said to consider subjects that do not involve too much teaching terms or 'jargon', abstract notions or complicated language when implementing translanguaging, especially if the pupils are early on in their language-learning journey (Lewis et al, 2012b). The difference in abilities could also be considered within Lewis (2008) and Jones' (2010) 'teacher led' and 'pupil led' models. For pupils who have fewer competencies within the language, the teacher could play a significant role (teacher-led) in designing the structured activity, while more competent pupils could take control of their own translanguaging by deciding on the language and information source for themselves.

When designing translanguaging as a teacher-led pedagogy, teachers are expected to take a number of factors into account. These factors include external
considerations such as the sociolinguistic context, language status within the community, languages that the pupils speak at home, parents' aspirations towards bilingual education and language planning on national and local authority levels (Welsh Language Commissioner, 2016). Factors from within the school include the classroom's language of instruction, language policy within the school and the level of its implementation, pupils' and staff's language competence, training available for teachers, and the statutory and non-statutory assessment requirements facing the pupils (Jones, 2017).

Teacher-led translanguaging is also known as 'pedagogical translanguaging' in Cenoz and Gorter's (2017a) model, which contrasts this pedagogical translanguaging, which is designed by the teacher specifically for input and output within the lesson, with 'spontaneous translanguaging'. Spontaneous translanguaging implies a more relaxed approach to translanguaging that can also be used outside the classroom. This approach gives more freedom for the pupils to use both languages as they want, making the use of languages less pressurized if the pupils suffer from language anxiety. This brings us back to Garcia's (2009a) view that the distinction between languages should be relaxed and made to be more fluid.

Likewise with the other bilingual classroom strategies, translanguaging does have its roots in theory. Williams (1996) applied a cognitive process to translanguaging arguing that the various processes used when translanguaging require a deeper understanding than translation alone. This means that translanguaging is cognitively more successful than direct translating.

### 3.7 Incidental language

The term 'incidental language' suggests the act of incidentally using a language. It has been defined more specifically as being:
"Incidental language teaching refers to interactions between an adult and a child that arise naturally in an unstructured situation and are used
systematically by the adult to transmit new information or give the child practice in developing a communication skill" (Warren \& Kaiser, 1986, p. 292)

There has been much debate about how incidental the transmission of the language actually is by scholars, with many arguing that the use of incidental language may not be incidental at all. Swanborn and de Glopper (1999) simply define 'incidental language' as being the opposite of 'intentional language'. This is where confusion arises, as some scholars such as Huckin and Coady (1999) argue that there must be a degree of intent on behalf of both the teacher and learner, as the teacher decides to use certain words at a certain time when engaged in the act of Incidental Language, and the learner must pay attention to these specific words. Barcroft (2009) defines incidental language as being non-instructional regarding the learners, as they are not expected to sit down to learn the new words formally.

It could be argued that incidental and intentional language could be based on a continuum, as there may be varying degrees of use with different situations (Coady, 1997). This could also be said of the range of vocabulary instruction, as they also span from being indirect to direct (Wesche \& Paribakht, 1999). Other scholars disagree with the use of a continuum, and suggest that different terms should be used instead. Terms such as 'induced vocabulary salience' by Burton et al (2011) have been suggested. However, scholars believe that it is difficult for researchers to be aware of the degree of intent behind the vocabulary that is used, whatever it may be called (Reynolds, 2012). For that reason, the term 'incidental language' shall be used in this thesis, as it is the most acquired term in the literature, and is the term most often used during research, despite the disagreements that surrounds it.

Liu (2015) claims that the term Incidental language was first used as 'incidental vocabulary acquisition', and was presented by Nagy et al (1985) in a study that analyzed children's first language vocabulary acquisition. The term derives from the idea presented by Craik and Lockhart (1972), the 'depth of processing Model'. This term is used to describe two forms of cognitive processing, formative and semantic. This means that understanding the meaning of the word is processed on a deeper
level, while processing the phonological form may be done on a more shallow level. This theory was criticized by Mayumi (2006) as being too simple, and that factors such as context and semantic knowledge also has an effect.

According to Sanatullova-Allison (2014) 'incidental learning' has been used in the literature since the start of the $20^{\text {th }}$ century. During the 1960s and 1970s there was a change in the situations in which the term was used from being a behaviorist paradigm to being used to describe cognitive patterns. This shift sparked an interest in researchers in terms of the behavior of how information is processed by language learners, and it was discovered that a deeper understanding of how information is processed can assist language teachers to develop pupils' incidental vocabulary learning and their language acquisition.

Vocabulary is said to play a significant part in second language acquisition, and that the words learnt provide the base for further learning. A pupil learning a second language will learn their first 1000 words through intentional delivery, such as in the classroom, and words learnt after that will be acquired via incidental learning (Huckin \& Coady, 1999).

The frequency of how often pupils hear a word plays an important part in the acquisition, as the more times a word is repeated, the better the pupils memorise that word (Huckin \& Coady, 1999). However, although the frequency of delivery is important, so are the context of the words, and the use of tasks when learning these new words. In order to memorize new words correctly regarding the interpretation of the meaning, attention must be given to both the meaning and the form, which requires a deep cognitive process (Webb, 2008). This can be achieved by giving the pupils tasks that will allow them to concentrate further on both the meaning and form, in order for the word to be processed. Schmitt \& Schmitt (1995) agree with Webb (2008), as they also believe that the more elaborate thought given to a word, the better that the memory of that word will be. Krashen (1989) disagrees, and argues that there is no need for this, as processing the meaning without the words' form is adequate, and therefore the cognitive process is not as deep as Webb (2008)
states. Ellis' (1994) views may be placed between those of Webb (2008) and Krashen (1989) as Ellis' research states that attention must be given to a word's form to some degree.

By using tasks in incidental language, Gass (1999) believes that it plays a natural part in the acquisition, and incidental vocabulary learning is "a by-product of other cognitive exercises (e.g. reading/listening) involving comprehension" (p. 319). Despite the belief that the use of tasks, other than acquiring incidental language by listening, is natural in this context, many researchers have studied the use of various different tasks in this field. One of the main tasks that has been evaluated within the literature regarding incidental language learning is that of reading. Lyster (2007) on the other hand, doesn't believe that incidental language input can be successful as Lyster believes that it can't sustain a person's language development long term.

Researchers have also argued that incidental languge is not confined to listening skills, and that vocabulary can also be acquired through the means of reading in the second language, which exposes the pupils to new vocabulary in various ways. Paribakht \& Wesche (1999) approached the research by using reading as a means of comprehension, and tested the pupils to see how many of the words they had remembered. Ponniah (2011) compared pupils that read passages containing new words to pupils that were asked to look at new words in a dictionary.

Other researchers gave the same reading task to all pupils, but tested them differently. An example of this is Gai's (2003) study that required some pupils to answer questions after reading, and others to summarize the message of the texts. Huang (2004) also approached the methodology in this way with some pupils being asked to create sentences, other to fill gaps in sentences and others to answer multiple-choice questions.

In addition to the research mentioned above, it becomes apparent in Liu's (2015) literature review that research into the role of reading in incidental language learning is very extensive, with scholars such as Elley (1991), Knight (1994), Pulido
(2003) and Lu (2006) all conducting similar research on the scale of success of the use of reading.

Similarly to reading, empirical research has been conducted to the use of writing on incidental language acquisition. Again, these have been conducted in various ways such as writing journals (Cheryl et al, 1999), and writing a composition based on target words (Laufer \& Hulstijin, 2001). Some researchers have compared both reading and writing use, to see which one is most successful in incidental language learning. Kong (2005) and Yin (2007) all found writing to be superior to reading regarding the results, with the writing groups remembering more words when participating in a test that the reading groups. It is thought that this is due to the fact that writing involves more individual participation than reading, and therefore, the level of processing is deeper when writing.

Much less research has been conducted on the effects of listening on incidental language. Vidal (2011) found that listening was a beneficial tool for second language learners. Newton (1995) also concluded that listening is useful when learning words, when a group of pupils that had listened to words triumphed a group that hadn't, when tested.

In a study that compared all three components, reading, writing and listening along with combinations of those, by Fu and Chao (2006) it was found that listening was the most successful method in learning vocabulary when the pronunciations was tested, and the joint listening and reading groups outperformed when required to memorize the words. This study therefore suggests that in order to aquire new vocabulary incidentaly, using a combination of reading, writing and listening skills is more successful than using only one.

Other researchers have applied experimental methodologies and theories to the delivery of Incidental language. McCafferty et al (2001) applied Zinchenko's hypothesis, which is based on Vygotsky's activity theory, to that of incidental language, when one group of pupils were asked to write an essay on zoos using a list
of previously unknown words about animals, while in the experimental group, pupils were required plan an interview that required the pupils to reflect on their L2 acquisition with their peers during an interview. The second group were allowed to ask for vocabulary that they needed to fill any gaps in their own knowledge. Despite being limited to a small group, the results revealed that the second group who asked for the vocabulary and then actively used those words in the interview retained the vocabulary much better than their counterparts who were given the words on a list. This revealed that pupils acquire words more successfully when they are linked to ‘goal-directed action’.

Research by Shahrokni (2009), also rather experimental, used online, text only and picture only and a combination of both, posters for pupils to look at, and were then tested on the main points. The combination of both text and pictures on the poster were the most successful for acquiring new words incidentaly. A computer-based experiment on acquiring vocabulary by the means of incidental language through the medium of video games was conducted by Theodorsen (2015), which shows how this field is developing and becoming more modern when reaching out to the pupils.

As we have seen, there are many ways of which incidental language can be presented to pupils that are acquiring new vocabulary in a second language. While many of the research concentrates at traditional methods, such as writing, reading and listening, new research is making it apparent that it is a field that can be experimented with in order to discover new methods. This PhD study looks at the use of incidental language which is known as Cymraeg bob dydd in Wales, which will provide a baseline overview of what is currently being implemented. This foundation will be used to evaluate the current practice which will then inform future implementations and new methods that could strengthen the use of Cymraeg bob dydd.

### 3.8 Summary

As discussed, many different methods exist to develop pupils' language and bilingual skills. In the Welsh context, whilst immersion education and translanguaging have been the predominant methods use in Welsh-medium schools, some examples of CLIL have been adopted in English-medium and bilingual schools, with Cymraeg bob dydd introduced in the Secondary sector following Davies' 2012 report. The success of Cymraeg bob dydd has not been studied empirically, which suggests we know very little about the factors that hinder or support its success. The purpose of the present study was to explore the extent in which Cymraeg bob dydd is implemented to discover those factors that hinder or support its success. Immersion is already firmly anchored within Welsh education and is to be credited for its success in the Welsh context (see Chapter 2). Despite this, time and resources constraints means that this is not suitable for L2 learners in English-medium schools in Wales. CLIL and dual-language programmes ask for a high proficiency in the target language in order to be able to understand the lessons, and are therefore also unsuitable for L2 speakers in English-medium schools, however, it is something that should be aimed for as Welsh second language as a field develops. Parallel language use is historically based within universities, and could provide a basis for further research in the Welsh context as Welsh in higher education develops with the support of the Coleg Cymraeg Cenedlaethol. Incidental language is well-suited to the Welsh second language context due to its nature to normalize a language and boost pupils' vocabulary in various subjects outside the Welsh classroom. Incidental language could be expanded upon through the use of task-based learning and tranlanguaging, which would require the explicit use of Welsh which would further benefit the pupils' learning of the language. As the field of second language delivery continually develops at the same time as the Welsh Government's aim to have a million speakers, it's vital that lessons from other countries and their strategies are drawn upon in order to create the best possible strategies and possibilities for the pupils in the Welsh context.

## Chapter 4

## Chapter 4: <br> Non-linguistic factors influencing perceived language abilities and use

### 4.1 Introduction

As seen in Chapter 3, various bilingual and language teaching pedagogies can be successful if supported appropriately. Part of the challenge to the successful application of pedagogies aimed at supporting new languages and/or developing pupils' bilingual skills lies with the psychological states of the individuals involved in the learning context, most notably the pupils and their teachers, but also of individuals within pupils' families and within their wider friendship circles. Of particular importance are individuals' attitudes, motivation, and confidence in relation to the language(s) and the context in which they are learning. Without the existance of these affective factors within pupils and teachers it's unlikely that the implementation of Cymraeg bob dydd will succeed, as a positive attitude, sense of motivation and a good level of confidence is needed when delivering a language that is not native to the individual. These states are interlinked in that an individual's attitude may influence an individual's motivation to learn (and vice-versa), impacting ultimately on their language abilities and how confident they may feel in using the language.

The attitude that one may have towards a language is considered to be paramount to its success or failure within a language revitalization context, particularly in relation to policy. As articulated by Lewis (1981):

Any policy for language, especially in the system of education, has to take account of the attitude of those likely to be affected. In the long run, no policy will succeed which does not do one of three things: conform to the expressed attitudes of those involved; persuade those who express negative attitudes about the rightness of the policy; or seek to remove the causes of the disagreement. In any case knowledge about attitudes is fundamental to the formulation of a policy as well as to success in its implementation (p. 262)

Whilst it is estimated that the majority of the world's population is multilingual (with bilingual being a type of multilingual), the extent to which individuals embrace,
understand and support multilingualism differs. Within Europe, citizens recognise the importance of learning a language (TNS Opinion \& Social, 2012), with 88\% of respondents to a survey stating that knowledge of other languages besides their mother tongue is very useful, and $98 \%$ of respondents believing that knowing other languages is important for their children's future. 84\% of respondents believed that every citizen within the EU should be able to speak at least one foreign language, and $72 \%$ agreed that more individuals should be able to speak more than two additional languages, with $77 \%$ of the opinion that improving language skills should be made a policy priority. Despite these supportive statements however, what happens in practice does not always match. Around a quarter of Europeans state that they had never learnt another language, and an additional 44\% state that they haven't learnt another language recently and do not intend on starting. Although English only accounts for $13 \%$ of the EU population's mother tongue, 19 of the 25 member states in the EU that do not have English as an official language state that English is the most widely spoken foreign language in their countries. 67\% of Europeans consider English as one of the two most languages that would be most useful for themselves (TNS Opinion \& Social, 2012). However, as noted in Chapter 1, attitudes towards languages in the UK and Ireland have been notably worse, making the revitalisation of minority languages challenging.

This chapter explores affective factors, namely attitude, motivation and confidence that may affect language learning, and the studies that have been conducted on the subject in Wales. This chapter will also provide an insight to why these factors are important if the implementation of Cymraeg bob dydd is to succeed.

### 4.2 Affective factors in second language learning: (i) Attitude

A wealth of research shows that there is an important relationship between having a positive attitude towards a language and levels of achievement in that language (Masgoret \& Gardner, 2003). Not only is harbouring a positive attitude an important part of language maintenance, learning and revitalization (Sachdey \& Hanlon 2001),
but also an influence on the motivation that is needed to learn a second language (Gardner, 1985). Without a positive attitude, language learning will not happen (Huguet et al, 2008) and the more positive encouragement a pupil receives, the better they will achieve in the long run (Bartram, 2006). These three components attitude, interest and motivation - are important in order to learn a second language successfully.

An attitude can be defined as 'a psychological tendency to view a particular object or behaviour with a degree of favour or disfavour' (Albarracin et al, 2005, p.4). Despite there being a substantial body of studies that argues for the importance of attitude when learning a language, Baker $(1988,1992)$ cautions that no matter how persistent the learner is with their positive attitude (individual intererst), it may be modified, either by the individual or through the influence of others and the context in which they exist (situational interest). According to Rotgans and Schmidt (2018), individual interest must be present before the situational interest if a learning context is to be successful. Individual interest can have a noteworthy influence on the situational interest when pupils are occupied with a task (Tapola et al, 2013), suggesting that the curriculum and the type of tasks given to pupils have an important role to play in sustaining individual interest and developing situational interest (Huguet et al, 2008). In the context of this thesis, the implementation of Cymraeg bob dydd is the situational interest, however, the individuals (in this case, the pupils and teachers) must also have an individual interest if they are to absorb the situational interest successfully.

Hidi and Renninger (2006) on the other hand have developed a theoretical model of interest development that states that interest is develop over 4 progressive stages. The first stage consists of a triggered situational interest, which develops into a maintained situational interest by the second phase. A transition occurs between the second and third phase in which the interest moves from being situational to an emerging individual interest. The model ends with a well-developed individual interest. Going by this theory, the role of the curriculum, classroom tasks, quality of
instruction etc. is vital in order to begin the process of interest, and must be present before the pupils develop their own well-developed individual interest. This model reflects the aim of Cymraeg bob dydd. Although the pupils are exposed to Welsh in their formal Welsh lessons, because of the lack of exposure outside of those specific lessons, pupils only identify Welsh as a classroom objective. By normalising the use of the language by introducing it in other school-based contexts outside of the formal Welsh lessons, it should capture their interest by helping the pupils to realise that Welsh can be used outside the Welsh lessons. This interest and normalisation of the language should spark the individuals' motivation to not only continue to learn Welsh by acquiring new words and forms incidentally, but to also use the language in different settings, which in a perfect situation, would then encourage the pupils to use Welsh in more contexts outside lessons.

As noted above, attitudes are known to change (Bohner \& Dickel, 2011). In some cases, attitude has been shown to be able to decline (Baker, 1992; Heining-Boynton \& Haitema, 2007; Tragant, 2006). However, according to Eagly and Chaiken (1995), the stronger the attitude, the more resistant they are to change, therefore informants who 'agree somewhat', select 'no opinion' and 'somewhat disagree' are individuals who could most likely change their attitudes. Ensuring the right conditions in the language learning process is therefore vital, and tailored language learning programmes can improve attitudes towards a language (Bromley, 1995).

However, research has been known to show that in contexts where there are two or more languages used together there may be a difference between the attitudes towards the languages and the conduct of the people towards those languages (King, 2000). In Ireland, people have a positive attitude towards the Irish language, but rarely use it (Brudner \& White, 1979) while in the United States, immigrants are typically positive towards their own languages, but again, scarcely use them (Fishman, 1966), a situation that which will be echoed in the results section of this thesis. This means that in addition to creating the right programme and classroom situations, an effort must also be in place to ensure the use of the target language outside school.

Zhan and Hopper (1985) believe that language attitudes are represented in three ways: attractiveness, superiority and dynamism. The former is linked to the appeal of the attitude object that is its features that makes is pleasurable and enjoyable. The second - superiority - speaks of the perceived status of a language, its position and prestige compared to other attitude items. The third - dynamism - concerns the language speakers' social power, activity level and the self-presentational aspects of speech.

Similarly, Baker (1992) categorises attitude on two dimensions: instrumental orientation and integrative orientation. The former refers to the usefulness of knowing a language for matters such as economic benefits (finding a job etc) or to improve themselves as an individual. Integrative orientation includes the need to integrate and/or identify with the speaking community and to be able to converse with different people. These components, although normally viewed as categorization, can be combined in that the integrative attitude is felt alongside the integrative attitudes and that an individual may feel that they wish to have both the individual benefits while also being a part of the desired community. These characterizations of integrative and instrumental are particularly important within a minority-language context within the home. If they are absent and an individual displays negative instrumental or integrative attitudes within the home, this may indicate that the heritage language is not being transferred from the parents which can then effect on their success of acquisition of the language within the school (Gardner, 2002). Whilst Dornyei (2010) questions whether the aspect of integritiveness is applicable in educational contexts where there is an absence of native speakers (e.g. the English-medium school context in Wales), and therefore the pupils have no contact with the language speakers, attempts to increase contact with native-speakers (e.e. from Welsh-medium schools) should be encouraged.

Attitudes can be measured in a variety of ways, at an individual level or a group/community level, using different methods. Surveys (which can differentiate the data by contextual information such as age, gender, social-economic class, etc.,
to give a deeper understanding of the attitudes displayed) is considered to be amongst one of the most popular options of measuring attitudes. Attitude questions within surveys are normally based on scales, which consist of statements relating to the language and culture and the participants are asked to respond on a five point scale (strongly agree to strongly disagree in most cases) to demonstrate how they relate to the statements provided (Baker, 2006).

Other techniques involve text analysis from autobiographies and interviews (Baker, 2006). The matched guise technique is considered to be a more specialized measurement of attitudes, which analyses the attitudes towards particular language varieties (e.g accents) (Garret et al, 2003).

However, considering Oroujlou \& Vahedi's (2011) differentiation between attitudes and motivation, it may be that Baker's theory refers to that of motivation rather than attitudes:

An attitude is a set of beliefs and motivation is a reason for doing something. This can be confused because a set of beliefs can be a reason for doing it (p.994).

Whilst the two terms overlap in some aspects, there are some vital differences with some studies opting to measure only one of the two states whereas other opt to measure both.

### 4.3 Affective factors in second language learning: (ii) Motivation

As with interest and attitudes, motivation is a vital part of a pupils' journey in learning a language. According to Gardner (1985) motivation refers to
the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity ( p.10).

Williams and Burden (1997) have identified three stages of motivation. First, the individual must have reasons for doing something. Second, the individual should
decide to do the action, and lastly, the effort must be sustained by persistence that ensures the continuation of the act.

Motivation has been researched since the 1950s where research in Canada stated that the social context within language learning could drive the instrumental and integrative aspects of motivation to acquire a language. According to Dornyei and Ushioda (2011) research exploring motivation can be categorized into four distinct phases: the social psychological period (1959-1990), followed by the cognitivesituated period (during the 1990s) and the process-orientated period that occurred during the turn of the $21^{\text {st }}$ century until recently, while the present research that is being undertaken is referred to as the socio-dynamic period. A change of methodology behind the research within the field has been a characteristic of the different periods. Previously, motivation research was conducted via quantitative methods such as the Motivation Test Battery (Gardner et al, 1992; Gardner and Tremblay, 1994) and self-reporting surveys (Gardner, 1985). More recently, a need for qualitative methods have been highlighted in order to get a deeper understanding of 'why' an individual may display certain levels of motivation, and therefore qualitative methods have been used in addition to quantative methods during the process-orientated and socio-dynamic periods (Dornyei, 2009; Shuman, 2014).

One of the earliest works within the field was Gardner's (1985) integrative motive. This theory included three strands which were factors that he believed drove language learning: integrativeness, attitudes towards the learning situation and motivation. Research on motivation that was conducted during a similar time was largely focused on these factors, and Gardner's model. However, a change occurred during the 1990s when the focus towards motivation within classroom contexts and education was developed during the cogitative-situated period and new theoretical frameworks were created (Dornyei, 1994; Williams \& Burden, 1997). Many longitudinal studies were conducted during this period, which focused on comparisons of learning different second languages (rather than the traditional method of looking at one sample of students that were learning one language).

These studies found that students ranked English as being more important than German, French, Russian or Italian (Dornyei \& Clement, 2001; Dornyei et al, 2006). Ushioda (2013a, 2013b) suggest that the rise in English as a global language has driven the interest in L2 motivation, because of the increased concerns for smaller languages and their use within education. Ushioda continues the argument by stating that English may affect pupils' motivation to learn other languages, and that education providers may offer a less varied language curriculum in schools due to the emphasis placed on English as the most important language.

Despite the change in focus, Gardner's theory continued to provide a base for development within the field at the end of the 1990s, when Dorynei and Otto (1998) recognised the need for an approach that considered time and context. Their process-orientated model states that variable contexts that change with time have an effect on learners' motivation and that while the context and situation impacts on the pupils, the pupils can also impact on the classroom context. In 2003 Dornyei acknowledged that language learning is a social and cultural process and that these are an integral part of the classroom context that is referred to in the 1998 research (Dornyei, 2003).

This was developed into a model by Dornyei (2005) which was labelled as the L2 Motivational Self-System which was labelled as possibly the 'most current and influential model of L2 motivation' by Ryan and Dornyei (2013, p. 91) due to its integration of cognition and affects while also focussing on the context of learner motivation. This model consists of three components: ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self and the L2 learning experience. The ideal L2 self-drives a learner's motivation to decrease the inconsistency between their current situation of 'actual L2 self' and the end result of where they wish to be. The ought-to L2 self also considers the learner's end desire; however, with the motivation to avoid negative outcomes that may arise (e.g such as social pressure within the learning environment). The L2 learning experience is the component which acknowledges the contextual information within the learning situation such as the teacher, curriculum, fellow pupils and success (Deckner, 2017).

Dornyei has acknowledged that Noels et al's (2000) self-determination theory had influenced his development of the L2 motivational self-system. Lanvers (2017) argues that this self-determination theory model is best applied to an adult learner who has left compulsory education, and can be particularly useful for distance learners especially. Like with the Dornyei model, there are three components to the self-determination theory: competence, relatedness (in the context of social connections with other people) and autonomy, which encourages the need to selfimitate and self-regulate (Deci \& Ryan, 2000). The aim is that the self-determination theory is able to predict that if these components are present to support the learner, then the more motivated the learner will be, and will therefore be more successful in learning the language (Noels et al, 2000).

Deci and Ryan (2000) have produced a continuum that describes the factors that may influence a person's motivation. There are five points that lie on the continuum: 1. external regulation (motivation that is influenced entirely by external sources such as rewards or threats); (2) introjected regulation (rules that students accept that they should follow in order to decrease their feelings of guilt); (3) identified regulation (taking part in an activity because the learner recognises its benefits and usefulness); (4) integrated regulation (the individual's choices based on their own needs, values and identity); and (5) pure intrinsic regulation (the learner's own choices purely based on their interests). The similarities between the L2 motivational self-system and the self-determination theory can been seen when placed on Deci and Ryan's motivation continuum. For example, the ideal L2 self from Dornyei (2005)'s model closely links to intrinsic motivation, as does the three components of the self-determination theory.

The relationship between identity and motivation has been a characteristic of the process-orientated period within motivation research that occurred following the cognitive-situated period of the 1990s, which was recognised as a re-theorisation by Ushioda (2006) and Dornyei (2009). Although the idea of identity within the field of motivation was highlighted within these research, other results have shown that external factors can also have an effect on motivation. In China, geographical
location is said to have an effect on levels on motivation (You \& Dornyei, 2016) in addition to high quality language provision that could also have an effect on acquisition (Wang, 2012). This has also been found to be the case in Indonesia (Lamb, 2012, 2013) and in Poland (Dej \& Guzik, 2011), where pupils from rural areas were less motivated than pupils from built up areas, possibly because of greater difficulty in gaining access to quality education in those rural areas. Noels et al (2003) states that travel, friendship and knowledge are also essential factors that can drive a person's motivation, and can be more significant than contact with native speakers of the target language. Research has also been conducted on the importance of the languages that are being learnt on the motivation of the learner. For example, Coleman $(1995,1996)$ found that students learning English in Italy, Germany and Austria had greater motivation towards learning English than their counterparts who were learning different European languages. Lamb (2004) discovered that students that were learning English were more motivated when speaking with other communities that spoke English as a second language than with native English speakers. In line with Zhan and Hopper's (1985) categorisations of attitudes, and the superiority category in particular, as discussed above, this shows that the status of a language may therefore affect the level of motivation, with the context of English as a global language having an effect on how the students feel about learning and using the language. This view can also be applied to the Welsh context, where English holds its status as the superior language which in turn makes Welsh, as the minority language, less important for some individuals.

One of the most recent models that has been developed within the field of motivation is the process motivation model, adapted by Bower (2017) from the works of Williams and Burden (1997), Dornyei (1994), Coyle (2011) and Bower (2014). This model looks at different perspectives of motivation research within language learning by contextualising key motivation components within classroom situations while providing a new framework to support researching pedagogies or evaluating teaching and/or learning. The structure of the process motivation model is based on Coyle's (2011) three components of motivation: learning environment, learner engagement and learner identity. The sub-sections within those three main
components are then drawn from the other models, listed above. These themes can then be used as an indicator of where to begin the research/implementation of learner engagement and their motivation, while also giving enough room for interpretation due to different approaches to pedagogies within different contexts. Bower (2017) describes the model as being:

> Indicators of motivation are identified in sufficient detail to enable the teacher, learner or researcher to consider in depth the aspects of motivation they may wish to focus on at any given time, whilst having an awareness of other aspects and characteristics that contribute to the multi-faceted nature of motivation. The focus is not on creating/initiating interest, but rather on how interest is sustained over time for the individual as well as groups within a lesson, a series of lessons or a longer period of study (p. 8).

This framework, therefore, gives access to practitioners to be able to access key motivational themes and apply them to their own contexts and interpret the themes in the best suited way for them.

Desipte the differences, attitudes and motivation have been treated as inter-related concepts within the area of second and foreign language learning for many years (Gardner \& MacIntyre, 1993), and both must be present if the language learning is to be successful.

### 4.4 Affective factors in second language learning: (iii) Confidence

Due to the increase in linguistic complexity within a globalised society, almost all teachers, regardless of their subject expertise, are now expected to be language teachers, and motivated to deliver language in addition to subject knowledge (Fan, 2013). However, teachers must reach a threshold level of proficiency in order to be able to teach effectively in the target language (Medgyes, 2001), which is not often the case in multilingual contexts. This will be examined in the results section of this thesis in detail to see whether the teachers who are expected to deliver Cymraeg bob dydd are confident in doing so. This is paramount as an expectation to deliver something in which they are not confident could be detrimental, and support should be provided. Teachers who are not at that expected level are more likely to be
dependent on resources (e.g., textbooks, worksheets, teacher guides, etc.) and are less likely to be creative and improvise in their teaching (Dewaele, 2015) which is known to sustain pupils' motivation (Piccardo, 2013), particularly in language learning classrooms (Arnold, 1999). Added to this challenge is the fact that people often report that they feel different when speaking a different language and don't feel like themselves (Dewale \& Nakano, 2012), which may also affect the delivery of a language. In all or most of these cases, teachers' attitude, motivation and confidence is key, but these 'states' can be easily hindered unless appropriate support is put in place.

When teaching a foreign or a second language, ensuring that the pupils have an interest in the lesson is a crucial component of the success of learning the target language, and should the lessons be unattractive to the pupils then they will be unsuccessful in its acquisition (Dewaele, 2015). Within the context of Cymraeg bob dydd, this brings an additional pressure as it's not only the Welsh element that should be made to be attractive to the pupils, but also the subject content that the teachers are expected to deliver. However, if a teacher is fully aware of their limitations in delivering that language, this can affect their confidence. Confidence, which can be defined as 'a general belief in one's ability' (Greenacre et al, 2014, p. 3) is essential in maintaining the pupils' interest if the teacher is to be successful in delivering the target language.

Confidence, a sense of security and self-efficiency are all linked to wellbeing (Ađalsteinsson et al, 2014), and an individual's wellbeing can change depending on how they assess themselves in different situations (Carr, 2004). Humans have natural instincts to try and attempt to avoid failure, and this can lead them to become sensitive to criticism and view any weakness that they may have as a threat (Mruk, 1999). Within the context of integrating language and content, having a weak grasp of the target language may lead to reduced confidence and increased selfconsciousness in delivering that language in the classroom (Seidlhofer, 1999), and teachers who lack in their own abilities are also less likely to take an interest in
students' success (Bandura, 1997). However, although a wealth of research has identified teachers' role in supporting children's mental health and wellbeing (Mazzer \& Rickwook, 2013; 2015; Brooker, 2009; Graham et al, 2011; Ekornes et al, 2012 Askell-Williams \& Lawson, 2013), surprisingly little is known about issues relating to teachers' own mental health, despite suggestions that teachers' mental health can be of greater importance than subject knowledge or the teaching method employed (Smith, 1968; Mundia, 2013). With 47\% of educational professionals reporting that they had experienced depression, anxiety and panic attacks due to their work (Education Support Partnership, 2018) - conditions that are closely linked to an individual's levels of self-esteem (Sowislo \& Orth, 2013) - identifying the triggers to teachers' psychological wellbeing is important.

Language anxiety can hinder the success of the language learning to a great degree and can become a barrier to the use of the target language (Zhand \& Zhong, 2012), and can affect individuals who are otherwise generally calm (MacIntyre, 1995) and is said to be caused by the exposure an individual has when they become in contact with an alien situation (Horwitz et al, 1986). Maclntrye and Gardner (1991) describe a language learner who experiences language anxiety as:
'an individual who perceives the L2 as an uncomfortable experience, who withdraws from voluntary participation, who feels social pressures not to make mistakes and who is less willing to try uncertain or novel linguistic forms.' (p. 112)

Nicolson and Adams (2010) states that the level of anxiety one experiences can make or break the language learning process by either making the classroom a place where they feel at ease and comfortable or by making it feel like an obstacle course.

Aragao (2011) suggests that there are a number of emotions that can be linked to anxiety such as shyness, embarrassment and self-esteem. Many factors relating to the individuals themselves can cause these emotions to develop and result in language anxiety. These factors include competence, where individuals are worried about their abilities, identity, due to the pressures to feel a part of a particular group (Stroud \& Wee, 2006), worries about negative reaction from other people (Rose,
2008), communication fears, and test anxiety, if the individual is expected to be tested on their knowledge and abilities (Horwitz et al, 1986).

A number of studies have explored the relationship between proficiency and confidence. Many studies (e.g. Dewaele \& Ip, 2013; Liu, 2006; Dewaele \& MacIntyre, 2014) have found that participants that rated their own proficiencies to be higher experienced less anxiety. On the other hand, a study conducted by Marcos-Llinas and Juan-Garau (2009) found that advanced students of Spanish experienced more language anxiety than participants who identified as being beginners. They felt that this was because the more advanced participants had taken Spanish as one of their main subjects, compared to beginners who had only taken it as a requirement for other subjects, and therefore the anxiety was higher for the advanced students as they were being assessed on their abilities and their desire to become proficient was greater (cf. Horwitz etal., 1986 above).

In addition to their own personal levels of emotion, external factors can also be held responsible for raising levels of language anxiety. Young $(1991,1994)$ has categorized these factors, and while the first category consists of the learner themselves, they also state that the teacher and instructional practice are also vital factors in language anxiety. However, for teachers that have no language teachers of their own, such as the teachers in the Cymraeg bob dydd context, this support does not exist which makes the level of anxiety worse.

Living in the country where the target language is spoken, with Welsh in Wales being an example, this anxiety can be transferred outside of the classroom, as learners feel an extra pressure while living amongst native speakers. Interaction with native speakers has been suggested as the highest provoker of anxiety for language learners (Woodrow, 2006). Learners may feel that making mistakes when speaking to native speakers is much worse than making a mistake in the classroom, where students are more forgiving (Cenoz, 2008). This can cause the learners to withdraw further from learning the language in order to try and avoid contact in the target language and the native speakers to cope with the anxiety (Pappamihiel, 2001). This
can put an added pressure on the learners, and despite claims that being amongst native speakers is the most successful way of becoming proficient in a language, it can also be a factor that can distance a learner from the learning process if they suffer from language anxiety.

Other factors relating to the individual have also been said to heighten the levels of anxiety. Many researchers (Dewale, 2007, 2010; Dewale et al, 2008; Thompson \& Lee, 2013; Thompson \& Khawaja, 2016; Santoz et al, 2015) have found that multilingualism is connected to lower levels of anxiety. This suggests that the more languages a person has, the less anxious they will be when learning new languages, which makes it harder for monolinguals especially. This is a pressure experienced by teachers in the English-medium sector as they are mostly monolinguals. Age is also said to have an effect on language anxiety with studies by Dewaele (2007) and Dewaele et al (2008) reporting that anxiety levels were higher when participants were speaking in languages that they had learnt later in their lives. Krashen (1982) has recognised motivation, self-confidence and anxiety as being barriers to language learning in his affective filter hypothesis, due to the fact that they may distract the language learner subconsciously from the learning itself and prevent them from progressing.

Interestingly, researchers have debated whether anxiety is caused by low levels of langauge performance or if anxiety causes lower levels of langauge performance. Horwitz (2001) and MacIntyre (1995) have argued that anxiety can cause low success rates in language learning due to it being a 'well-known source of interference in all kinds of learning' (Horwitz, 2001, p. 118). However, Sparks and Ganschow (2007) have claimed that language learning is dependant on the skills that an individual has concerning their native language, and therefore those individuals could have a general anxiety that affects their language abilities.

Attempts have been made to try and reduce the levels on an individual's language anxiety, and studies have explored their effectiveness (Kao \& Craigie, 2013; Kondo \& Ling, 2004; Nagahashi, 2007; Tallon, 2008; Tsiplakides \& Keramida, 2009). However,
despite the positive effects of these interventions, these studies consist of viewing the teacher as the main support within the classroom by ensuring that they are able to provide a relaxed atmosphere in class, and do not therefore consider the wellbeing of the teachers themselves.

Language teachers are conscious of the importance that positive emotions and classroom dynamics have on the long-term success of language learning (MacIntyre \& Mercer, 2014). Positive feelings can increase pupils' ability to notice things in the classroom and build on their knowledge, which results in greater absorption of the target language (MacIntyre \& Gregersen, 2012). Ensuring positiveness is especially important in the context of Cymraeg bob dydd due to its competition with English, a strong a global language that leads pupils to question the purpose of learning less 'useful' languages (Morris, 2010). Such attitudes serve as a barrier to the acquisition of a new language, particularly in contexts like the UK and Ireland where language learning is particularly poor (Williams et al., 2007).

Teachers have a role to play in trying to reverse pupils' attitudinal barriers, however, in order for teachers themselves to express positivity towards Welsh, they must have the confidence and ability to use the language effectively.

### 4.5 Attitudes in Wales

As discussed in Chapter 1, English as a global language has had profound effects on the long-term prospects of languages such as Welsh, and has been responsible for the shift from traditional Welsh-speaking heartlands to more English-dominant ones. However, in line with the slow but steady increase in Welsh-medium education, more favourable attitudes have been emerging towards Welsh, and these have been researched within a variety of contexts across Wales. Early research during the 1970s showed that Welsh-medium sixth-form students in anglicised areas held more favourable attitudes towards Welsh than Welsh-medium sixth-formers in the Welsh heartlands (Williams \& Thomas, 1978, cited in Gruffudd, 2000). However, research conducted at the turn of the $21^{\text {st }}$ century claimed that a change in attitudes towards

Welsh had occurred by the 1990s, amongst both Welsh speakers and non-Welsh speakers, with a general positive attitude being shown towards the language (Aitchison \& Carter, 2000; Jenkins \& Williams, 2000).

In a survey conducted by the Welsh Language Board (1995), 71\% of the respondents either supported or strongly supported the use of Welsh, with only 4\% of the respondents opposing its use. When asked whether Welsh was something to be proud of, $88 \%$ of the respondents agreed, showing a positive attitude towards the language. A more recent survey, the National Survey for Wales: 2017-18 displayed similar results, where $86 \%$ of the respondents stating that the Welsh language was something to be proud of, which shows that attitudes towards the Welsh language haven't changed in the past two decades. The survey also revealed that $68 \%$ of Welsh speakers feel confident to use it, however, only $40 \%$ agreed that the language will be stronger in 10 years time.

In a survey conducted by Gruffudd (2000), 40\% of the respondents agreed that Welsh was very important in the family, while only half of that number (20\%) said the same for friendships. Similarly to Williams \& Thomas' work, Gruffudd also found that respondents from areas that were traditionally Welsh-speaking, however are situated outside the main heartland, displayed more negative attitudes than respondents from more anglicised areas. Their conclusions were that the biggest achievement for language planning in Wales was the turn in attitude towards the need for Welsh as a prerequisite for a respectable job.

However, despite these positive findings, Gruffudd (2000) found that the positive attitudes was not transferred into daily use of Welsh by the participants, and therefore, although the change in attitudes has been favourable, the lack of use remains a key cause of the declining trend in the census results. However, the positive attitudes form a base that can be worked on, and should be used to develop the positive attitudes into self-determination to use the language. This is vital in order to create new speakers.

More recent research on attitudes towards the Welsh language by Morris (2014) has shown a similar result, with students displaying generally positive attitudes towards the language. The study consisted of two different groups of sixth form students with parents with semi-professional or professional careers, from North East (Welshmedium school) and North West Wales (a bilingual school). While the results found that there were no difference between the different areas, home language or sexes, the participants did show an overall positiveness towards the language when answering statements such as 'Welsh is beautiful' and 'Welsh is friendly'. Most participants also viewed Welsh-medium education favourably and supported organizations in their efforts to provide services in Welsh, and felt that more should be done to further promote the language. However, a significant correlation existed between participants' self-reported ability and the promotion of Welsh ( $r=0.368, p$ $=0.006)$ and their opinions of Welsh $(r=0.511, p=0.006)$ which echoes this chapter in saying that confidence in their own abilities has a large part to play in the usage and opinions towards the language.

Hodges' (2012) study concentrated on the reasons why parents send their children to Welsh-medium schools in South East Wales. The results, which included 400 semistructured questionnaires and 50 interviews found that cultural reasons were the main factors (for $50 \%$ of participants) for sending their children to Welsh-medium schools, while educational reasons came a close second (30\%). Although studies show that economic value can influence an individual's choice in learning a language and that its economic prestige is the main drive for a language's success (British Council, 2013) only $8 \%$ of the participants in this study chose economic and personal reasons as a reason for sending their children to Welsh-medium establishments. Positive attitudes were shown towards the Welsh language and culture in the participant's reasoning with quotes such as the following being heard at the interviews:

I just wanted it, I'm Welsh, they are Welsh and I wanted them to speak Welsh. . . my children didn't have to wear a tall black hat, a woolen shawl, and a pleated skirt to prove they are Welsh . . . all they have to do is to open their mouths. (Interview 32, 237_42)
. . . it is important for our children to learn their own language, they are Welsh, and have the opportunity to learn, speak Welsh and use it, not as a backup language, but as a language side by side to English . . . we don't want the language to die out . . . (Interview 4, 99_101)

I wanted them to have what I missed out on, the culture, the commitment, the intense feeling of belonging to a close Welsh-speaking community . . . and also to give them the opportunity that Mum and Dad weren't brave enough to give me. (Interview 14, 72_5)

As discussed in chapter one and two of this thesis, in order to raise the number of Welsh speakers in the aim to revitalize the language, the role of education is vital. Attitudes like this towards Welsh-medium education and its value is therefore paramount if it should continue to grow, and these benefits that parents in Hodges' (2012) study feel should be made known for parents that may not be aware.

Yet another study on attitudes by Owen (2018) found that school children in Welshmedium schools had a very positive attitude towards the Welsh language. When asked to rate 'how important is it to you that Welsh survives as a living language' on a scale of 1 (not at all important) to 10 (extremely important), no school rated less than 7.4 on the scale. However, despite the positive attitudes, this doesn't transfer to active usage of the language in most cases. Owen suggests that opportunities outside school to speak Welsh, family influences and in-school influences can impact on the pupils' choice of language socially. In a questionnaire that was distributed to 8-11 year olds in Gwynedd, North Wales, Thomas and Roberts (2011) asked the pupils about their use of Welsh in a number of different social settings such as in the street, in shops, in cafes, in places of worship, in sports facilities, in clubs and with friends. The results revealed that the children who live in areas with more than $70 \%$ of the population Welsh speakers were more inclined to use Welsh within these social settings than the children who lived in areas with less than $70 \%$ of the population being Welsh figures. The results for the street and place of worship categories didn't display a significance, with $25 \%$ of the under $70 \%$ stating that they used mostly Welsh or almost always Welsh compared to $35.3 \%$ of the pupils who lived in areas with over $70 \%$ in places of worship. A large difference could however be seen in the other categories with the largest difference being in sports facilities
with $18.1 \%$ of the pupils from the areas with less than $70 \%$ Welsh speakers stating that they almost always speak Welsh compared to $60 \%$ of the pupils stating the same thing in the areas with more than $70 \%$ that could speak Welsh. These results also revealed that the children who attended schools with a higher percentage of pupils from Welsh-medium homes were more likely to speak Welsh socially than the pupils that attended schools with a higher percentage of pupils from non-Welsh backgrounds.

### 4.6 Summary

As seen in this chapter, it 's clear that there are positive attitudes towards languages on both European and Welsh levels with promising percentages. which shows a good foundation to learning languages. The literature shows that having these positive attitudes are paramount if an individual is to succeed in their attempt to learn a language and become proficient. While the affective factors, such as attitude, motivation and interest are important, it must be remembered that a variety of factors can influence on these factors, with both internal and external elements playing a part in the affective factors, and that the more motivational and attitude factors an individual has surrounding them during the language learning process, the more successful the end results will be. The case seems to differ in Wales, as while the positive attitudes towards the Welsh language clearly exist, this is not transferred into everyday usage of the language, which presents an issue that should be addressed if the Welsh Government are to create new speakers for their aim of a million speakers by 2050.

Confidence is also an issue amongst individuals who are learning a language and are not yet fluent. This matter is one that is especially significant in the Welsh context as the teachers who are expected to deliver Cymraeg bob dydd are, in most cases, not Welsh speakers themselves. Being expected to deliver a certain amount of their lessons in Welsh when they are not competent in the language themselves can cause their anxiety levels to raise and their confidence to drop. This is an important factor to consider if the Welsh Government are to expect these teachers to successfully deliver Cymraeg bob dydd, and will be explored in further detail in Chapter 8.

However, while we acknowledge the importance of these factors, it becomes clear that while the focus of the research discussed in this chapter is on the learner in most-part, support for the teacher that is expected to deliver the target language is very little. The pressures of delivering a positive atmosphere for the pupils is discussed here, however, it must be considered that the teachers within the Englishmedium school contexts are in most cases not Welsh speakers themselves, but are expected to use some Welsh within their lessons. A lack of proficiency can lead to high levels of language anxiety and low levels of confidence, and has a profound effect on the expected delivery of the target language. This could serve as a barrier to Cymraeg bob dydd, as low levels of confidence and high levels of language anxiety may prevent a teacher from delivering and developing the target language. The next chapter outlines the methodology used within this PhD that aim to discover the current situation regarding issues such as the ones discussed in this chapter, namely attitudes towards Welsh and confidence levels in using Welsh, along with other factors such as to what extent is Cymraeg bob dydd implemented in the Englishmedium secondary sector.

Research chapters

## Introduction to the Research Chapters

In order to explore the use of Cymraeg bob dydd, the study was built around three distinct phases. The main aims, across the three phases, were to identify best practices in relation to supporting L2 speakers' use of, and increasing exposure to, everyday Welsh within academic subject classes in an 'incidental' fashion, and to identify the barriers to the delivery of Cymraeg bob dydd.

In order to do this, an exploratory mixed-methods approach was used. Phase 1 (Study 1) took the form of a scoping study, which allowed for the identification of current practices of Cymraeg bob dydd as they are currently delivered (Arksey \& O'Malley, 2005). This involved a series of observations in four different Englishmedium secondary schools in north east Wales, totalling 25 hours' worth of data focusing primarily on when, where and in what context Cymraeg bob dydd was used.

Based on the results of Phase 1, a second Phase was implemented involving two studies. These studies were conducted to help identify and explore some of the factors inhibiting or promoting the delivery and potential success of Cymraeg bob dydd, i.e., to try to identify the causal factors behind the current use observed (Cohen et al., 2007). Given that Cymraeg bob dydd is delivered by teachers but 'received' by pupils, both teachers' and pupils' perspectives were examined. Study 2 (Phase 2) looked at pupils' perspectives, focusing on their attitudes towards Welsh in particular to explore their readiness to use, and potential barriers to their use of Welsh in the classroom. As was the case in Phase 1, the focus of Study 2 (Phase 2) was on pupils attending English-medium schools. These English-medium schools were the same schools that were observed in Study 1 (Phase 1). However, in order to understand to what extent English-medium pupils' perspectives were unique or specific to their context, pupils from Welsh-medium and bilingual secondary schools were also invited to participate as controls in order to triangulate the data obtained from the English-medium sample. Study 3 (Phase 2) explored teachers' perspectives in delivering Cymraeg bob dydd. A questionnaire was emailed to all English-medium secondary schools in Wales. The questionnaire requested teacher's opinions about
their own levels of Welsh language abilities, their use of Welsh, and potential barriers to its use. The findings of the three studies in Phases 1 and 2 revealed that very little Cymraeg bob dydd was being implemented in the EM schools observed, and that the pupils found Welsh lessons at school uninspiring and dull. Techers elsewhere in Wales were very limited in their use of Cymraeg bob dydd and were mostly of the opinion that extra support would help develop their confidence to use more Welsh. Phase 3 (Study 4), which was conducted as a part of a GwE evaluation, therefore examined the experiences of a group of teachers who had received purposefully-delivered Welsh language support sessions in order to help raise their confidence in delivering Cymraeg bob dydd.

## Mixed Methods

The origin of the Mixed Methods approach goes back to the 1950s/60s, although some argue that the mixed approach has existed for over 80 years (Pelto, 2015). The mixed methods approach has grown to be a popular choice amongst researchers in recent years (Creswell \& Plano-Clark, 2003; Dunning et al, 2008; Leech \& Onwuegbuzie, 2009). Traditionally, scholars have treated research as being located within a qualitative or a quantitative approach (Rossman \& Wilson, 1985), although it has been long debated that such a dichotomy has been restricting research (e.g., Howe, 1988) and the strict division between the two is a myth (Cohen et al, 2007). The mixed method approach therefore represents a 'third methodological movement' (Tashakkori \& Teddlie, 2009, p.3), and has progressively gained approval as an alternative to a single methods approach (Johnson \& Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Lincoln \& Guba, 2000).

The mixed methods approach can be worthwhile as it gives the researcher the opportunity to draw from various methods' strengths (Twinn, 2003) and approach the research question in different ways yielding a variety of data types and sources that can enrich the researchers' perception of, and contribution to, the field (Tashakkori \& Teddlie, 2009; O’Cathain et al, 2010; Coyle \& Williams, 2000; Morse \&

Chung, 2003). Although mixed methods can be more time consuming than using a single approach, as the researcher will need to analyse both quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell \& Piano-Clark, 2011), the advantages outweigh the disadvantages. In relation to the current study, various methods are employed across the different phases yielding both qualitatively rich and quantitatively sound data.

Chapter 5 outlines the methods used in each of the three phases of the research.


Figure 1: Study Design

## Chapter 5

## CHAPTER 5

Methodology

### 5.1 Introduction

As noted in the literature review, no formal analysis has been undertaken, to my knowledge, of the extent to which IW is used in practice, of how it is used, or of the extent to which it succeeds to deliver its goals (where implemented) since its inception following Sioned Davies' report in 2012. This is not surprising given how new innovations take time to root. However, in order that the initiative succeeds in achieving its goals, it is important that we know the extent to which it is used, how it is used, and what are the barriers to its implementation. Information gained from such explorations can help ensure the continuous development of the initiative and provide useful directions for its future development. The research presented in this thesis was therefore developed in order to address these concerns, and is, to my knowledge, the first study to explore the implementation and effectiveness of IW in detail

This chapter outlines the methods used to collect data within each phase of the research. It discusses why those particular methods were chosen; how the data were used to fit the purpose of the study; and the research questions and ethical considerations that helped shape the research. Due to the qualitative nature of parts of the data, issues relating to researcher bias and positionality are reviewed, as well as the validity and reliability of the methods chosen in line with the specific research questions posed.

### 1.2 Phase 1: Scoping Study

## Study 1: Current use of Cymraeg bob dydd

### 5.2.1 Research questions

Study 1 aimed to explore the following research questions:

- To what extent is Cymraeg bob dydd implemented across the curriculum in English-medium high schools?
- In which contexts is Cymraeg bob dydd implemented in lessons across the curriculum?
- Through what medium is Cymraeg bob dydd implemented by teachers and pupils in English-medium schools? E.g verbally, written etc.

These questions raise the need for an approach that observes the behaviours undertaken within the classroom context. This first study specifically is a qualitative study due to this need to report on a real-life situation (Silverman, 2014). Bryman (2012) quotes qualitative research as being the use of words rather than numbers (p. 366) while Sandelowski (2001) defines this strand of research as being focused on the attitudes towards humans' understandings, experiences and interpretations. Although Cohen et al (2018) admits that qualitative research can be loosely defined as being a method that 'gives voice to participants and probes issues that lie beneath the surface of presenting behaviours and actions' (p.288), many perspectives can be taken on how to undertake the research. This study uses observations (see appendix 3) as a qualitative method within a case study approach which will be explained during the next part of this chapter.

### 5.2.2 Case study approach

A case study can be defined as:
"an empirical inquiry about a contemporary phenomenon (e.g., a case), set within its real-world context" (Yin, 2009, p.18)

For a case study to be appropriate, the research must comply with the following four rules (Yin, 2003, p. 4):
(a) The focus of the study is to answer "how" and "why" questions;
(b) You cannot manipulate the behaviour of those involved in the study;
(c) You want to cover contextual conditions because you believe they are relevant to the phenomenon under study;
(d) The boundaries are not clear between the phenomenon and context.

Case studies have the ability to generate new hypotheses (George \& Bennett, 2004), in an inductive manner. In the context of the current study, I was interested in 'how' Cymraeg bob dydd is being used in schools and 'why' it is being used or not used in that way. By looking at each school as individual cases, I could explore how ideas and various strategies fit into the wider context within the field (Nisbet \& Watt, 1984) in this case, the use of Cymraeg bob dydd 'on the ground' - and explore specific aspects in order to answer certain research questions (Gerring, 2004; Ragin, 1987). Contextual information is paramount to the study, as both internal and external factors to the individual can have an influence on the use and implementation of IW, factors that may have influence on the results that emerge. This makes a case study approach appropriate for this project, as it allows the researcher to delve deep into a situation, whilst also looking at the situation more holistically. This flexibility allows the researcher to choose the number of case studies appropriate to the research, although there are limitations to the generalisability of the findings, due to the limited number of contexts that can be explored (Stark \& Torrance, 2005). This can lead to a lack of feasibility within the research, which means that the research may not always contribute as much to knowledge, policies and curriculum as it could (Corcoran et al, 2004), and there is little control to be had over multiple case studies (Shaughnessy et al., 2003). However, a multiple case study design does work with complex situations due to its flexibility, and can contribute significantly to knowledge (Stake, 2003). Should new hypotheses and theories arise, it will be possible to compare each case study to each other to gain a more thorough understanding of
the behaviour in context (Robson, 2002). As Glaser \& Strauss (1967) note, the use of multiple case studies provides:
> simultaneous maximization or minimization of both differences and similarities of data which is vital for discovering categories and for developing and relating their theoretical properties which are necessary for further development of emergent theory (p. 55)

For this reason, multiple school settings were recruited for Phase 1 in order that the findings could be compared and contrasted across settings to maximise the potential strength of the observations and conclusions.

### 5.2.3 Data collection methods \& tools - observations

The method was used during this phase of study was observations. One of the oldest methods within social research (Ellgring, 1991), observation looks at and systematically notes people, behaviours, and artefacts within different situations and events (Simpson \& Tuson, 2003). It differs from many other methods in that it allows the researcher to see first-hand in 'live time' what is happening, using vision as its principal source (Sarantakos, 2013). This makes the method an authentic one that gives the researcher an immediate awareness compared to methods that gather the information second hand from the participants' (or others') perspective (Cohen et al., 2011). Of particular relevance to the current study is that fact that what happens in a classroom may differ from what a teacher or headteacher may claim to be happening, and may also be different from individuals' feelings or thoughts about the specific issue in hand. By observing a real-world event in live time, the researcher can see for her/himself what happens in reality (Robson, 2002), although there is no way of controlling what happens during the observation, which may impact on the data received (Bailey, 1994). For example, a specific, targeted behaviour might not appear within a given observation or a specific, non-targeted behaviour may appear artificially in a given observation due to the Observer's Paradox (Labov, 1972). However, observations may bring to light new lines of enquiry that the researcher may not have expected or been aware of had they not
have been in the classroom observing (Cooper \& Schindler, 2001; Moyles, 2002) such as behaviour or events that teachers/headteachers/pupils etc. may not have been willing to share via other methods of data collection although the frequency of observed behaviours beyond what a researcher sees is not usually identified via this method (Mahr, 1995).

Target behaviours during observations are usually captured via pre-defined and carefully-designed observation schedules. Denscombe (2007, p.207) defines the purpose of an observation schedule as a tool that can "eliminate variations arising from the psychological factors that influence individual researchers' perceptions of events and situations" in addition to warranting the researcher to be aware of what to expect during the observation, recording the data correctly and to produce data that is stable from one observation to the next. Flick (1995, p. 137) outlines the following five core factors that should be considered prior to conducting an observation:

1. whether the observation should be structured, systematic and quantitative versus unstructured, unsystematic and qualitative;
2. Participant observation or non-participant observation (e.g how far does the observer become an active part of the observed field);
3. whether the observation should be overt (i.e., made obvious to participants that they are being observed) or covert (e.g., observing from behind a twoway mirror);
4. whether observations should take part in natural settings (e.g., the classroom) or in unnatural, artificial settings (e.g., a laboratory or contrived situation);
5. Self-observation or the observation of others: mostly other people are observed, so how much attention is paid to the researcher's reflexive observation for further grounding the interpretation of the observed?.

Cooper and Schindler (2001) condense the consideration process to three key factors:

1. whether the observation is direct or indirect (the former requiring the presence of the observer; the latter requiring recording devices);
2. whether the presence of the observer is known or unknown (overt or cover e.g., does the researcher takes up a visible role in the school);
3. The role taken by the observer (participant to non-participant). This factor concerns whether the observer should participate in the situation while observing. Should the researcher decide to be a participant within the observation in addition to being the observer, factors such as influencing
other participants and increased bias on the observer themselves should be considered. (pp. 406-409)

These factors were reviewed during the development of the observation schedule and influenced the final design of the schedule. Of particular consideration for the present study was the consideration of participation and structure, and the necessity to explore positionality of the researcher. These are elaborated somewhat below.

Participation. One key element to both Flick (1998) and Cooper and Schindler's (2001) list of factors to consider when developing observation schedules is the nature of the researcher's participation. A researcher's role within an observation can be placed on a continuum (Gold, 1958), ranging from the researcher being a complete participant - i.e., becoming a member of a group in order to collect data (also known as ethnographic research) - to the researcher being a complete observer that observes from the outside without making themselves known to the group (e.g., when observing in a laboratory setting through a two-way mirror). For the purpose of the present research, I adopted a partial 'observer-as-participant' approach as this allowed me to participate a little (or not at all) in the groups' activities whilst being known to the persons within the group. This is appropriate for classroom observation, as the researcher is able to sit within the classroom to gather live data, while also being unobtrusive. This was the approach that I'd embraced, as I sat at the back of the class, with the pupils and teachers aware of my presence. Despite not wanting the teachers and pupils to behave differently to how they would usually, being present was vital in order to secure more reliability in the data collection than by using technology such as a camera, in order to be able to hear what was being said clearly. The Hawthorne effect refers to a belief that a researchers' presence could have an affect on the participant's behaviour (Oswald et al, 2014) . Despite being present in the lessons, I took no part in the activities and didn't obstruct the lesson in any way. By adopting a passive role within the observation, this limited the effect I could have on the teachers while being observed as I made my presence in the classroom as small as possible.

Structure. Similar to participation, the structure of an observation also lies on a continuum ranging from unstructured to being highly structured. Highly structured observations are more time-consuming to design (Cohen et al., 2011) but easier to analyse as the pre-determined categories make it a quicker process to undertake. The focus of the observations is pre-determined in advanced by the researcher, who decides before the data collection period exactly what they wish to discover (Bryman, 2012). This means that an observation schedule will be prepared thoroughly, and the observer will look for specific behaviours/actions etc. to inform their pre-determined categories. This also makes it efficient, as the researcher is able to concentrate on what's happening during the observation rather than thinking about how the observed behaviours may generate ideas. Structured observations can be systematic and rigorous, removing any bias that may arise by the observer (Denscombe, 2007). Unstructured observations, on the other hand, allow hypotheses to evolve rather than work to explore pre-determined assertions, and the data gathered from the observation will decide the course of the research (Cohen et al., 2011). The observations conducted in the present research took the form of structured observations, in that some specific behaviours were clearly targeted within the observation schedule. However, the observation method employed also allowed the researcher to note additional behaviours/actions etc. that were not targeted specifically with the ultimate goal of understanding if a certain behaviour existed, and why. When designing an observation schedule, there are a few key principles that need to be considered from the outset (from Dyer, 1995, p. 181-184):

1. the choice of environment (the availability and frequency of the behaviour of interest to the observer - a key feature if unusual or special behaviour is sought);
2. the need for clear and unambiguous measures (particularly if a latent characteristic or construct is being operationalized);
3. a manageable number of variables (a sufficient number for validity to be demonstrated, yet not so many as to render data entry unreliable);
4. overt or covert observation;
5. continuous, time-series or random observation;
6. the number of people to be observed;
7. the number of variables on which data must be gathered.

The choice of environment (first point above) is often pre-determined and limited by the general focus of the study, such as in the present research where observations were necessary in a school classroom within a specific type of school (Englishmedium secondary). Points two, three and seven from Dyer's list are largely determined by the research questions. With regards to the number of people observed (point six), this is often dictated by context. In the case of the present study, the number of participants involved in any given observation was limited to the number of pupils that were present on that particular day. With regards to point five, there are four time categories that can be considered in the context of observation (Sarantakos, 2013): continuous observation, time-point observation, time-interval observation and event observation. The present study utilised two of these categories to some degree - continuous observation and time-interval observation - in that the researcher observed behaviour throughout the school day (continuous observation) whilst also ensuring observations in a variety of settings (time-interval observation) in order to know when (if at all) Welsh was heard (at the start of the lessons, when the teacher explains the content, during the time the pupils are engaged in work etc.).

A learning walk approach was also adopted, where I was assigned a pupil for each day and followed them for the duration of my time at the school. This meant that the lessons of which I observed were not chosen before hand, but were rather the lessons that that pupils would experience that day, giving me an authentic experience of a day in the life of the pupil. Learning walks are a widely-used tool in schools by teachers as they are encouraged to observe other teachers' lessons in order to learn from them (Ginsberg and Murphy 2002, Downey et al. 2004). Although the learning walk in this research was conducted for the duration of a whole day at a time, brief learning walks of 5 minutes each in each classrooms are regularly encouraged in practice in schools and can benefit the participants in terms of observing school's curriculum and instructional practices (Schomburg 2006, Protheroe 2009), assessing the school climate (Protheroe 2009), establishing oneself as the instructional leader (Schomburg 2006, Protheroe 2009) and communicating to students the value placed on learning by all adults in the school (Protheroe 2009)
and professional development (Richardson 2001, Bushman 2006, Black 2007, Hord 2008).

### 5.2.4 Design of the observation schedule

The observation schedule developed for the current study allowed for the collection of background/contextual information alongside the target behaviours under observation. The collection of background/contextual information served to supplement and help interpret the behaviours observed. The schedule took the form of a record sheet that provided a space to gather facts across a series of four distinct themes: (i) background/contextual data (name of school; date; the subject of the lesson observed, the time of day the observation took place); (ii) lesson activities (time the activity took; what was going on in the lesson; was Welsh heard, and if so, in what context); (iii) the level of the use of Welsh (generally, the teacher's use and the pupils' use) and (iv) examples of Cymraeg bob dydd in a form of tick-boxes (greetings, praise, subject terms, commands etc). A table was also provided for the researcher to write the time, what was happening at that point in the lesson, and whether any Welsh was heard during that phase (and if so, what). This information was written in real time by the researcher as the event unfolded. The third part of the observation consisted of a table that allowed the researcher to note whether Welsh was heard 'most of the time', 'little of the time', 'not at all' etc in general, by the teacher and by the pupils. This allowed for the quantification how much Welsh was heard during the lesson as opposed to the contextual, qualitative data that was coded in the previous table. At the end of the record sheet there was a place to tick if Welsh was heard in a particular way such as 'as a greeting', 'when explaining the work' etc., which helped identify whether Welsh was used in specific ways during the lessons. It also allowed the researcher to look at whether there was any Welsh visible on wall demonstrations within the classroom.

## Observation procedure

Observations were accounted for immediately on paper during the observations, using the pre-prepared schedule. This ensured instantaneous recording that was
accessible immediately after data collection to process (Wilson, 2013). The results of Study 1 (Phase 1) are presented in Chapter 6.

### 5.3 Phase 2: Teacher and learner perspectives

The results of the observations probed a need for further scoping into the perceptions of pupils and the teachers. The following research questions were developed in relation to the findings of Phase 1 of the research in order to explore possible reasons for the findings of the observations conducted:

1. To what extent do pupils in English-medium schools use and engage with the Welsh language and culture?
2. What are pupils' attitudes towards the Welsh language and culture?
3. What are the pupils' confidence levels when speaking Welsh and how does this compare with their confidence when speaking English?
4. Are there differences according to medium of instruction at school?
5. Do pupils in English-medium schools feel supported in their journey in learning Welsh?
6. What do pupils enjoy and/or not enjoy about the Welsh lessons in school?
7. Do teachers in English-medium schools feel supported in delivering Cymraeg bob dydd?
8. Who provides the support, if any, for the teachers to use Welsh in their lessons?

In order to address these questions, two separate questionnaires were developed and shared among teachers (Study 2) (see appendix 5) and pupils (Study 3) (see appendix 4) in English-medium secondary schools in Wales.

### 5.3.1 Data collection methods $\&$ tools - questionnaires

A questionnaire is a method of collecting data that includes a set of predetermined questions that are administered in written form to the participants to complete and return to the researcher, which permits the researcher to gather specific data relatively quickly (Johnson, 2008). The use of questionnaires was deemed appropriate for the current study for many reasons, as outlined below:

First, this study aimed to gather information and opinions from a very large number of pupils and teachers, and therefore questionnaires are more cost- and timeeffective than alternative methods such as interviewing. Second, questionnaires allow the researcher to ask all pupils the same questions in exactly the same way in order to compare and contrast factors such as schools/language background etc. in influencing their responses. However, pre-coded questions can be susceptible to bias, due to the researcher deciding on the questions asked and how they are asked (Descombe, 2007). (However, see section on researcher bias below.) Third, information from questionnaires can elicit both factual information and opinions. The questionnaire for the present study drew from both these categories, in terms of quantifiable measures of language use and personal opinions about lessons/language etc. The involvement of both types allows for the exploration of the influence of one on the other. Fourth, the pupils were able to complete the questionnaire at their own convenience, which is particularly useful in schools due to the busy nature of the lessons. Fifth, pupils were more likely to respond more honestly when the researcher was not present, reducing the occurrence of the Hawthorne Effect whereby pupils respond according to how they think the researcher wants them to respond (Sarantakos, 2013).

## Structure

As with the observation method, questionnaires also exist on a continuum from standardized to unstandardized in terms of structure (Sarantakos, 2013). The questionnaires designed for the present study were semi-standardized questionnaires, with some questions open-ended and others closed in both instances.

### 5.3.2 Study 2: Pupils' perspective

The pupil questionnaire includes a variety of sections. The first section explored participants' background information (participant demographics) such as gender and their language background. This allowed the researcher to see whether there was a relationship between factors such as school and/or language background etc. and confidence/attitudes.

The second section went on to explore opinions about pupils' own confidence in Welsh and English, before they entered secondary school and currently. This provided information about whether the pupils had seen a change in their language ability since attending secondary school, and whether their confidence in Welsh and/or English had grown (or diminished) over time.

The third section went on to look specifically at Welsh in the school. This section included filter and contingency questions (Lavrakas, 2008) such as 'Do you hear Welsh outside the Welsh lessons' and 'If so, what?'. This gave pupils the opportunity to expand on their answer if needed and provide examples of what they claim to hear.

The final section ended with a range of questions/statements exploring pupils' attitude towards the Welsh language, using a 5-point scale ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. This section consisted of 17 questions within themes that ranged from the pupils' own relationship with the Welsh language (e.g Learning Welsh is important to me; I want to be fluent in Welsh etc), the school's role in providing them with the opportunity to learn the language (e.g Enough is being done in school to support the use of Welsh), how Welsh relates to other factors such as culture and economic prospects (The Welsh language is a part of Welsh culture, It's easier to get a job if you can speak Welsh etc) and how they feel when using the Welsh language (e.g Communicating in Welsh is fun, Speaking Welsh makes me feel proud etc).

### 5.3.3 Study 2: Teachers' perspective

The teachers' questionnaire explored a range of questions with a view towards obtaining information about teachers that are teaching in English-medium secondary schools in Wales that had not received any formal training in delivering Cymraeg bob dydd. The questionnaire first asked about teachers' backgrounds, such as in which local authority in Wales they taught what subject they taught, where (Wales, England or elsewhere) they came from originally and for how long they had been teaching in Wales. These questions would help identify whether these factors had any effect on their linguistic practices as teachers.

The remaining sections of the questionnaire explored teachers' use of Welsh, their own self-assessment of their proficiency and confidence with Welsh and their use of it. In order to measure their self-assessed proficiency, a statement was provided (What is your proficiency in Welsh), and was presented on a 6-point likert-type scale ranging from 'none at all', 'some basic words' or 'beginner' and 'intermediate' to 'nearly fluent' and 'fluent'. A similar approach was taken when enquiring about their confidence level, with a 5-point likert-type scale being provided, with answers ranging from 'no confidence at all' and 'very little confidence' at the bottom end, then moving to 'middling', 'quite confident' and 'very confident'. In terms of their use of Welsh, teachers were asked to note whether they used any Welsh in their lessons, and, if they did, they were able to provide examples, or if they did not, they were able to explain why.

Teachers were also asked about previous support with questions such as 'have you been on a Welsh sabbatical course? and 'what support, if any, do you get to develop your Welsh language skills and confidence?', with the latter being an open-ended question to provide the opportunity to elaborate. The questionnaire ended by enquiring about whether they felt like they needed or would like to receive more
support, and If so, they were provided with a space to say what that support would be. '

Together, the data gathered from the observations conducted in Phase 1 of the research alongside the data obtained from the two questionnaires conducted in Phase 2 of the research (Studies 2 and 3) helped form a clearer view of how Cymraeg bob dydd was implemented currently in schools and what types of barriers there were to its implementation. This knowledge was supplemented further in the third phase of the research through the evaluation of a personalised Welsh language training programme that was currently underway in a selection of schools in Wales.

### 5.4 Phase 3: Intervention

## Study 4: Evaluation of a Welsh language intervention for teachers

As noted above, the purpose of this third phase of the research was to evaluate the effectiveness of an intervention that was implemented in one English-medium and two bilingual secondary schools ${ }^{13}$, consisting of personalised Welsh language support for teachers to improve on their knowledge and confidence in using Welsh in order that they could engage with the delivery of Cymraeg bob dydd in the classroom following an intervention that was implemented by GwE. GwE worked closely with the schools to establish their needs and to tailor an intervention to meet those needs in the form of personalised support via additional Welsh lessons. This was beneficial as they were able to fund the interventions and organise the support in accordance with the schools. I was then invited to evaluate the effect of that personalised support. Despite GwE's role in funding and organising the intervention, I was given the freedom to design and conduct the evaluations, and GwE didn't influence on the methodology, as they too wished for an objective analysis. A series of observations took place in a school where the intervention had taken place. These

[^10]interventions focused on three specific teachers who had undergone a 6-week programme of support (see below). After the observations, each teacher was interviewed (see appendix 6) in order to gather their insights about the programme, what they felt they had from it, and how effective they felt it had been.

Given the rapid pace of educational reform in Wales at present (see Chapter 2), the need for continuous evaluations of the effectiveness of various teaching pedagogies, teaching resources, and training opportunities, to name but a few, is essential.

However, there is some debate as to how 'evaluation' fits into the wider application of research.

Smith and Glass (1987) argue that there are 8 differences between research and evaluation (the following is taken from Cohen et al, 2014, p. 79-80):

1. The intent and purpose of the investigation: the researcher wants to advance the frontiers of knowledge of phenomena, to contribute to theory and to be able to make generalizations; the evaluator is less interested in contributing to theory or the general body of knowledge. Evaluation is more parochial than universal
2. The scope of the investigation: evaluation studies tend to be more comprehensive than research in the number and variety of aspects of a programme that are being studied
3. Values in the investigation: much research aspires to value-neutrality. Evaluations must represent multiple sets of values and include data on these values
4. The origins of the study: research has its origins and motivation in the researcher's curiosity and desire to know
5. The uses of the study: the research is used to further knowledge; evaluations are used to informs decisions
6. The timeliness of the study: evaluations must be timely; research need not be. Evaluators' timescales are given; researchers' timescales need not be given
7. Criteria for judging the study: evaluations are judged by the criteria of utility and credibility; research is judged methodologically and by the contribution that it makes to the field
8. The agendas of the study: an evaluator's agenda is given; a researcher's agenda is her own.

Norris (1990) also reports on the differences between research and evaluation, including the motivation of the enquirer, the objectives of the research, laws versus description, the role of explanation, the autonomy of the enquiry, properties of the phenomena that are assessed, universality of the phenomena studied, salience of the value question, investigative techniques, criteria for assessing the activity and disciplinary base. Cohen et al. (2014) has similarly drawn up a comprehensive list including 20 points of differences between research and evaluation. In order to conduct the evaluations, observations and interviews were used. Evaluation in the case of the present study is treated as a type of research as both share common features - both have methodologies, ethical issues, involve sampling, are susceptible to reliability and validity measures, involve instrumentation and data analysis (Arthur \& Cox, 2014). The methods used as part of the evaluation for Study 4 were interviews and observations.

### 5.4.1 Interviews

In order to gain a deeper understanding of the effectiveness of the Welsh language support provided for teachers, interviews were conducted with 3 teachers teaching in bilingual schools in north Wales. Kvale (1996) defines an interview as being an exchange of views between two or more people on a topic of mutual interest, and therefore is considered to be intersubjective rather than objective or subjective. It is focused on the participant, and has a specific purpose (Cannell \& Kahn, 1968). Together, interviewers and interviewee's construct the interviews, making it a twoway exchange (Walford, 2001), which Baker and Johnson (1998) believe results in how people make sense of each other's world.

There are many reasons why an interview was suitable for the present study. First, it was felt to be the best way to identify variables of interest and the relationships between them (Cohen et al, 2007), and, second, it would allow for the identification of unexpected results (Kerlinger, 1970).

In order to conduct a successful interview when collecting data, it is important that the right type of interview is selected. Different types of interviews are described differently by different authors. For example, LeCompte and Preissle (1993) identify 6 types of interviews: standardized, in-depth, ethnographic, elite, life history and focus groups. Bodgan and Biklen (1992) also use these terms to describe various types of interview, but additionally uses the terms semi-structured and group interviews. Oppenheim (1992) adds exploratory interviews to his definitions, while Morrison (1993) uses very different terms to the ones listed to describe the same type of interviews. For the purpose of the present research, the terms 'structured, semi-structured and unstructured' are used to describe the nature of the interviews (Dunn, 2005).

Semi structured interviews are said to be the most used research method in qualitative research (Kitchin \& Tate, 2000) and this is the preferred method for this third phase of study. Structured interviews use a pre-set of certain questions, which are kept exactly in a specific order and kept consistent in every interview. At the other end of the spectrum, an unstructured interview lets the participants take the lead and is more descriptive. Semi-structured interviews allow the interviewer to ask certain questions, but also allows for other questions to be asked should a different and interesting topic be mentioned (Clifford et al., 2010). Being able to probe and ask additional questions, allows the researcher to explore new paths that were not initially considered (Gray, 2004) and to ask questions in any order or to vary the wording, dependent on what the participants is saying (Power et al., 2010). Some researchers however believe that novice researchers shouldn't use this type of interview. This is because that they may not be experienced enough to be able to recognize when to probe questions and direct the conversation appropriately and that this may have a negative effect on the nature of the interview, and that the data is not as deep as it could be (Doody \& Noonan, 2013). Doody and Noonan also feel that interviews can be time consuming, not only when conducting them, but also traveling to the suitable venues and the post interview work such as the transcription and the analysis.

The questions within this phase of research aimed to provide a base for the discussion while also allowing enough space for the participant to answer in as much depth as they wished when replying. The questions for the teachers consisted of their abilities and confidence before and after the interventions, the impact of the intervention and in what they would benefit from in the future.

During the interview the interviewee should be made to feel at ease and motivated throughout (Patton, 1990). This can be done in a number of ways. The question order will be prepared carefully beforehand, with simple questions, such as describing their role being first, and questions about the future being last. This will ensure that there is a flow to the interview and there is no confusion caused by jumping from one subject to another (Field \& Morse, 1989). To make certain that the interview runs smoothly, it is expected that the interviewer is an active listener in order to know when to move to the next question, be prepared to repeat the questions if needed, and give the participant time to think of an answer (Arksey \& Knight, 1999). These were steps that I undertook in order to ensure successful interviews. Although most questions were pre-prepared, I allowed for expansion and further discussion as the interviewee wished, and allowed them plenty of time to answer, by letting them lead the conversation in a manner which they found most comfortable.

### 5.4.2 Observations

In order to evaluate the effect that the intervention had on the delivery of Cymraeg bob dydd in the lessons, the three teachers were observed during a lesson each. For a detailed explanation on the benefits of observation as a data collection tool and the factors to be considered when using said method, please see earlier in the chapter (phase one, study one: scoping study). The observation schedule and procedure used was exactly the same as what was used and delivered in phase one, study one. Again, this series of observations focused mainly on the teachers' implementation of Cymraeg bob dydd - how Welsh was used, when, for what
purpose and how often. This information was recorded on a purposefully-designed observation schedule, which was also used in Phase one, study one, where each instance of Cymraeg bob dydd was recorded and quoted, as appropriate. None of the classes were recorded in video or audio form due to the small-scale nature of the study, and in order to reduce the anxieties experienced by the teachers.

### 5.5 Cross-study methodological considerations

### 5.5.1 Ethical Considerations

The proposals for the three phases of this present study was approved by Bangor University's CBLESS Research Ethics Committee. Information sheets were sent to the headteachers of the schools participating (see appendix 2 ) and to each parent of a child that was part of a class observed and given questionnaires. These information sheets included a detailed description of the research and what it entailed, to ensure that the headteachers and parents were fully aware of what was expected of the school/children. The information stated clearly that confidentiality and anonymity was protected, and that the schools/parents/child were allowed to withdraw from the research at any time, and without an explanation, and that following the data collection, the data were kept on a laptop secured by a password, ensuring that no other person could access that data. Any data that was presented on paper was kept in a secure locker that was locked. In regards to data that was kept digitally, such as the teacher questionnaires, interview transcriptions etc, the data was kept on a password protected laptop, of which no one but myself knew the password to. Data was also coded so that there were no names associated to the data, as each participant were allocated a number and that their anonymity was protected at all times. Consent was sought by the headteachers and teachers that were participating in the study on behalf of their schools and pupils (see appendix 1).

### 5.5.2 Validity \& Reliability

Validity is defined as being
"the property of a research instrument that measures its relevance, precision and accuracy. Validity tells the researcher whether an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure, and whether this measurement is accurate and precise" (Sarantakos, 2013, p.99).

There are two ways of examining if a research method is valid in quantitative research: through empirical validation and theoretical validation (Sarantakos, 2013). In empirical validation, this means that the results from the data can be checked against results from similar research to see whether they are similar. Theoretical validation on the other hand looks to see whether the theory within the work comply with the principles within the theory of the subject. These measures could be adopted in order to check the validity of this research, by looking at similar works within the broader context of educational research. In terms of the present study, the attitudinal questions were derived and adapted from existing questionnaires with the addition of specific questions regarding the use and the implementation of Cymraeg bob dydd.

Validity must also be complied to within qualitative research. Researchers such as Miles and Huberman (1994) have stated that methodological excellence is more important than displaying validity and there are 'tactics' that can be used to confirm validity in a different manner within qualitative research. Despite some writers claiming that validity can be avoided, for this research, I believe it to be important as a correct and truthful outcome is wanted.

In order to ensure validity within the qualitative aspects of this research, triangulation was adopted:

> Triangulation has risen an important methodological issue in naturalistic and qualitative approaches to evaluation [in order to] control bias and establishing valid propositions because traditional scientific techniques are incompatible with this alternate epistemology (Mathison, 1998, p. 13)

This will be particularly important when answering the most prominent research questions of 'is Cymraeg bob dydd implemented?', and if so 'in which way is

Cymraeg bob dydd implemented?'. This will be observed during the observations, and will also be featured as questions in both questionnaires, where the pupils and teachers will be able to confirm/refute what was seen during the observations. This therefore ensures that the research is valid, as the methodology used is appropriate to test the research questions in question.

## Reliability

Reliability is defined as being 'the capacity of measurement to produce consistent results' (Sarantakos, 2013, p. 104). This means that if the research were to be repeated, the results would be the same, thus making the method a reliable one and not liable to the researchers' bias (see below).

Reliability should be ensured in both quantitative and qualitative research. There are many ways that reliability can be explored. The test-retest method is thought to be the most common method of testing reliability (Sarantakos, 2013). This entails retesting the data more than once to see whether the same results are produced. This was an approach that was adopted within this research. In regards to both questionnaires, the results were first calculated by myself, by physically counting the answers and calculating the percentages etc. They were then retested by inputting the data into SPSS, and calculating the results once again by using the digital method, and results from my own calculations were then compared to those of the ones calculated by SPSS. The test-retest method was also used to ensure that the interviews had been transcribed correctly, as I ensured that I listened back to each interview while reading the transcriptions to ensure that they matched.

Bloor (1978) believes that reliability in qualitative research can be ensured in three ways: by the researcher's attempt to predict what the classifications of situations could be; that the researchers attempt to prepare hypothetical cases and how the pupils could respond to them and following the data collection; that the researchers show the participants the findings reports and record the reactions to that report. In order to ensure reliability in the analysis of this PhD study, I personally went through
the data and categorised them into themes. The data was also passed on to a second person to undertake the same task to ensure that the same themes were noticed.

### 5.5.3 Researcher bias

Bias can be defined as a

There are three possible reasons that bias may have an influence on research: the researcher's feelings could pose a threat to the true value of data obtained and its analysis, the researcher may not be entirely prepared to conduct the research, and the researcher may conduct inappropriate interviews (Poggenpoel \& Myburgh, 2003, p. 2320).

According to Smith and Noble (2014) it's vital that all researchers are aware of bias due to three reasons:
> "first, bias exists in all research, across research designs and is difficult to eliminate; second, bias can occur at each stage of the research process; third, bias impacts on the validity and reliability of study findings and misinterpretation of data can have important consequences for practice." (p. 100)

The effect of researcher bias on research outcomes and activity can be quite substantial (Mehra, 2002). Whilst inductive modes of enquiry are not based on a pre-determined theory per se, there is no such thing as a purely inductive process (Blaikie, 2007), particularly in the case of observations, since it is often the case that the observer has a particular behaviour or issue that they need to focus on, a behaviour/issue that has been informed by their reading in the field. Social scientists do not believe that social reality holds an objective view (Burnard et al, 2008), and this is heightened more within the subjectivity in qualitative research than in quantitative research where qualitative researchers often interpret data differently from each other, even when they are analysing the same results (Pope et al., 1999), which may questions of the validity of the results due to the bias that may influence the data.

Researchers have a duty to make every effort to reduce the chance of their own known, or unknown biases influencing their data, such as enlisting a third party to look at the results, and then analyse them themselves as a form of inter-rated reliability measure (Mays \& Pope, 1995; Barbour, 2001). Another procedure involves sending transcriptions back to the participant to confirm that the data are a true reflection of what occurred that day (Long \& Johnson, 2000). However, there is limited validity to this procedure, as some participants may not remember what had been said, while others may change their account (Cutcliffe \& McKenna, 1999). The method that I adopted personally during this research was to relisten to the recordings of the interviews while reading the transcripts to ensure that what was written was an exact account of what was said. This ensured that each word was written correctly and was an accurate account of what was said during the interviews.

In terms of the present study, the following steps were taken in order to aim to reduce potential bias in terms of sampling or interpretation of the data:

First, each English-medium school in North Wales was invited to participate in the study, regardless of their geographical area, size, demographic background etc., and each school that was willing to participate took part in Phase 1 of the study. This eliminated potential bias within the selection process.

Second, although questionnaires are pre-prepared and guided by the purpose of the study (which, to some extent, is guided by its creator's bias in some way or another), bias can be reduced by carefully selecting the manner in which participants are able to express their answer. For example, open questions allow participant to decide for themselves exactly what they would like to give as an answer and how. A combination of open-ended questions and closed, scaled responses were presented to the participants in the present study.

Third, observational bias can also be avoided by ensuring a thorough preparation before going to schools to conduct the research. Looking at the research questions
and deciding what exactly must be observed in order to answer those questions, can help reduce any bias during the research. Within this particular study, I, as the researcher attended the schools with no expectation at all that all teachers deliver Cymraeg bob dydd. The sole purpose of the research was to review whether it was delivered, and if so, to what extent, under which contexts and how. Finding no use or plentiful use of Cymraeg bob dydd would both yield useful findings. In that respect, the goal to gain a truthful representation of the true situation as it lies currently in order to gain a base to direct the pathway for future research.

Recognising one's positionality in research is considered to be very important when reducing the researcher's bias (Milner, 2007). Positionality is defined as being a construct that determines where a person stands in relation to others (Merriam et al, 2001), and when applied to the research process, positionality can be achieved by the truthful use of the researcher's biographical history and a self-reflection of their views (Tufford \& Newman, 2012). The principals of positionality are applied to the process of research in educational-based contexts (Martin \& Van Gunten, 2002), and have been categorized into three stances on the views of positionality within educational research by Relles (2016);

1. Positionality-on-action uses hindsight to acknowledge instances of bias after the fact.
2. Positionality-in-action uses spontaneity to acknowledge biases as they may arise organically within everyday classroom dynamics.
3. Positionality-for-action uses foresight to acknowledge bias and to engage students in critical discussion to improve classroom equity in the future. (p. 314-315)

Despite the need for an awareness positionality during the research process in order to distance the researcher from the element of bias, some researchers have questioned whether complete positionality can be achieved. Hall (1990) argued that the researcher must be able to position themselves somewhere within the process in order to be able to have a voice within the research:
"You have to position yourself somewhere in order to say anything at all" (p. 18).

Freire (2000) similarly argues that complete positionality cannot be achieved, and argues that an attempt to eliminate bias completely is a naïve aim, and that subjectivity will always be present despite the effort to be objective. However, despite these criticisms, for the purpose of the present research, all efforts were made to reduce bias and ensure the validity and reliability of the findings, as outlined above. These efforts to reduce the bias began from the beginning of the research, where all schools in North Wales were invited to participate in the research, and therefore were not selected by the researcher. The schools then chose the pupils that I would follow for the day, therefore I had no say in the lessons in which I would observe. The decisions made by the schools on which pupils could lead me for the day were made on the merit of who was responsible enough to guide me rather than the lessons that I would observe, therefore, the lessons that I observed were random. During the data analysis during all parts of the research, I make comments and draw conclusions based on the data, and nothing else. As I have no prior experience of English-medium schools, any background bias was nonexistent, which also ensured that conclusions were made based only on the data in this research.

### 5.5.4 Analysis

This research entailed both qualitative and quantitative data which called for various analysis following data collection. First, the observations (both studies one and three) were analysed in an inductive approach due to the need to examine the findings to infer the conclusions. The first part of the analysis required a thorough reading of all examples that were heard during the observations to gain an understanding of the nature and contexts of the Welsh that was heard. Those examples were then coded thematically into types of pedagogical strategies such as framing of the lesson, classroom management, and bilingual discourse strategies etc. The teacher interviews in study two were also analysed in this way due to its qualitative nature. Again, they were coded thematically, however, this time, due to the transcriptions being much longer examples than those of the
observations, NVivo was used to support thematic analysis. These processes followed Parsons and Brown's (2002) steps in analysing qualitative data by firstly organising the data ready to be analysed. To recap, in the context of Parsons and Brown's recommendations, the organisation of the data in the first study involved the completion of the observation schedules while with the interviews, the recordings were transcribed. Both instances were then coded thematically, before being described in the results. The interviews and the observations were then interpreted in conjunction with the phenomenon of Cymraeg bob dydd.

The questionnaires (both pupil and teachers) included both open and closed questions. The open questions were analysed similarly to the observation and interview data (i.e., thematic analyses) and presented in quotations where applicable. The closed questions were presented in different ways. Each of the answers were inputted into a large excel database, and each variable coded (e.g. each strongly disagree answer as a 5, disagree as a 4 etc). It was then possible to export the data into SPSS to produce a variable summary which then presented percentages of how many pupils answered each variable for each question. Presenting the data as percentages also allowed for the possibility of comparison between groups (e.g. females and males) and between the schools. The percentages were also worked out manually to validate the correctness and to ensure that no mistakes had been made when inputting the data. Responses to the attitude questions are presented as bar graphs to provide a visual representation of the results and to show the comparison between the schools. Chi square and Kurskal-Wallis tests were performed on the data, while correlations test were also performed between the attitude questions to see whether one aspect of the pupils' attitudes had an effect on another. Non-parametric tests were chosen for these data sets due to the nature of the data (ranked scales are recognised as categorical data, not continuous data, despite being transformed into percentages).

### 5.6 Summary

This chapter has outlined the methodology used during the research, their merits, and the justification of their use to ensure ethical and reliability/validity considerations. The use of questionnaires, interviews and observations will together form the base for this research that aims to evaluate the use of Cymraeg bob dydd in English-medium secondary schools in North Wales along with factors that can contribute to the hindrance/success of Cymraeg bob dydd such as pupils' attitudes towards the language and the teachers' confidence in delivering Welsh. The next chapter will outline the results of a scoping study, formed by observations that looked at the current situation of Cymraeg bob dydd.

## Chapter 6

# Chapter 6 <br> Phase 1 results: <br> Study 1: Scoping Study 

### 6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the results of the first phase of the research. As noted in Chapter 5, Phase 1 (Study 1) observed the use of Cymraeg bob dydd across the curriculum in English-medium schools in north-east Wales. This chapter begins with a summary of the methods employed (see Chapter 5 for detailed information), followed by the results obtained. Given that this phase of the study involved a case study approach, the results are presented for each school in turn, followed by a discussion of the findings across cases.

### 6.2 Method

In order to gain first-hand experience of the actual use of Welsh in practice in English-medium schools in Wales, a series of classroom observations were conducted in four English-medium government-maintained schools in North East Wales. Following Davies' (2012) recommendation, all schools were expected to deliver Cymraeg bob dydd as a part of their everyday curriculum. These observations would identify the extent to which this was implemented, focusing primarily on when, where and in what context Cymraeg bob dydd was used.

North East Wales was chosen for three main reasons: first, because of the number of English-medium schools that are available in that region as compared to north West Wales; second, due to its interesting socio-linguistic background as a neighbouring location to England; and third, for convenience due to its proximity to the researcher's base. For more detailed information about the linguistic background of the areas in which the observed schools are located, see Chapter 1.

Ideally, the study would also have included English-medium schools elsewhere in Wales in order that comparisons could be made on a broader basis, particularly given that schools in different regions of Wales are supported by one of four regional school improvement consortia. For the present study, it was only possible to conduct in-depth observations in schools in one region, where all schools were supported by the same consortia.

### 6.3 Schools -

### 6.3.1 Schools A and B: Flintshire

Schools A and School B were secondary schools located in Flintshire. The 2011 Census figures showed that $14.4 \%$ of the county's population was Welsh speaking, which showed a slight increase from $13.2 \%$ in the 2001 census indicating a small, upward trend for the region (Census, 2011). Flintshire neighbours Cheshire in England, and the influence of English in Flintshire is strong. According to the most recent Estyn report for each school less than 1\% of pupils attending either school came from homes where Welsh was spoken and less than 2\% of pupils had English as an additional language. Both schools' percentages for pupils eligible for free school meals was lower than the national average in Wales of $17.4 \%$, and were also under the national average of $25 \%$ of pupils with special educational needs ${ }^{14}$.

### 6.3.2 School D: Wrexham

School D was located in the county of Wrexham, which also borders with England and where the percentage of the population that speaks Welsh is also in the low teens $(12.9 \%$ of the population), but on a downward rather than an upward trend (having dropped from $14.4 \%$ in the 2001 census). Again, very few pupils at this school were from Welsh speaking backgrounds, and only 1\% that use English as an additional language. Both the percentages of pupils eligible for free school meals and pupils with a special educational need is significantly lower than that of the Welsh national average.

### 6.3.3 School C: Denbighshire

Finally, School C was located in Denbighshire - the county with the highest percentage of Welsh speakers in the study, with $24.6 \%$ of the population stating that they could speak Welsh (Census, 2011). Unlike the other two counties, whilst

[^11]Denbighshire does not border with England it does border with both Flintshire and Wrexham, and is also quite close to the English border. The influence of English is therefore equally strong in this region, although pockets of the region may still have higher percentages of speakers than in Wrexham and Flintshire. Almost all pupils speak English as their first language, with very few coming from Welsh speaking backgrounds. The number of pupils eligible for free school meals is much lower than the national average in Wales, however, the number of pupils with a special educational need is above the national Welsh average.

### 6.4 Procedure

Observations were held for a whole day in each of the four schools, and took the form of a 'learning-walk' in the sense that I followed some pupils for the day and observed their lessons, and therefore had a view of what a typical day consists of for those year 8 pupils. As mentioned in Chapter 5, an observation schedule was used to record if, when, why and by whom verbal Welsh was used during all lessons and registration periods. In schools A, C and D 5 lessons and a registration period was observed, while 6 lessons and a registration period was observed in school B. The number of lessons observed and the subjects taught in those lessons in each school is reported for each school separately below.

In order to compare across schools, the use of Welsh observed per lesson and as a total per school was categorised according to the following criteria:

| Whole lesson was in Welsh |
| :--- |
| Welsh in the majority |
| Mixture, but with more Welsh |
| Equal amounts of both languages |
| Mixture, but with more English |
| Welsh in the minority |
| No Welsh at all |

In what follows, examples of Welsh are glossed where the Welsh deviates from the English in terms of word order and/or parts of speech, and the English translation is provided.

### 6.5 Results

### 6.5.1 School A

In school A, a series of six lesson were observed: the registration period, ${ }^{15}$ and five individual subject lessons. Each lesson was led by a different teacher each time, resulting in observations of six individual teachers' use of Welsh.

## Lessons 1-4

The first four lessons observed took place over the course of the morning. Lesson 1 involved morning registration, Lesson 2 involved Physical Exercise (PE), Lesson 3 focused on food and nutrition and Lesson 4 focused on English. Across all four lessons, no Welsh was heard either from the teacher or from the pupils. Welsh was

[^12]visible, however, on the classroom walls where the lessons were taught (see Table 2) (an exception to this was PE that was taught in the gymnasium):

Table 2: Welsh examples on the classroom walls

| Lesson | Examples of Welsh on the walls |
| :--- | :---: |
| Lesson 1: morning | $\bullet$ days of the week |
| registration | $\bullet$ numbers |
|  | • months of the year |

Despite having these visualisations of Welsh in the classroom environment, no references were made to any of the Welsh labels or lists during the observation sessions.

Lessons 5 \& 6

During the afternoon, two lessons were observed: Lesson 5 - Welsh, and Lesson 6 Spanish. Given that both sessions involved language lessons it was expected that pupils would be encouraged to speak using Welsh or Spanish.

## Lesson 5: Welsh

At the start of the Welsh lesson the children chanted as a class
P'nawn da Miss
afternoon-good-Miss
'Good afternoon, Miss'
and the teacher used a descending Welsh digit count down -

> tri, dau, un
'three, two, one'
when requesting silence. When praising the children or requesting assistance, Welsh was used each time:

os gwelwch yn dda<br>if-see-is-good<br>'please'

It was sometimes necessary to explain aspects of the lesson in English, but when that happened, the teacher also translated the sentences into Welsh. Whilst translation is important to encourage pupils' exposure to Welsh vocabulary, lexical meanings, and grammatical patterns (Hummel, 2014), hearing an explanation first in English may not necessarily encourage attention to the translation since the information has already been processed (Butzkamm, 1998). An alternative means of combining the two languages in an additive way is via code-switching. Code-switching is the use of two or more languages interchangeably within a single speech event (Gumperz, 1982). This process may happen in one of two ways: intra-sentential code-switching and inter-sentential code-switching. Inter-sentential code-switching applies when the switch takes place at a clause or a sentence barrier while intra-sentential codeswitching occurs within a sentence or a word (Romaine, 1995). When giving commands, the teacher did resort to inter-sentential code-switching, using a mixture of Welsh and English within a single phrase:

## Go into chwech o grwps ${ }^{16}$

go-into ${ }_{\text {Eng }}$-six Welsh-Of $_{\text {Welsh-groups }}^{\text {Borr }}$
'Go into six groups'

At the end of the lesson, the teacher resorted to a mixture of inter- and intrasentential code-switching rather than translation, using a mixture of both languages (English code-switched elements shown in bold):

Dydd Llun dwi'n gweld chi gwers pedwar. Dydd Llun dwi eisiau i chi focus on pronunciation. You'll be doing a performance in front of the class, Dydd Gwener. Have a look in your book dros y penwythnos.

[^13]'Monday I am seeing you fourth lesson. Monday I want you to focus on pronunciation. You'll be doing a performance in front of the class, Friday. Have a look in your book over the weekend.'

This approach provides more of an onus on the pupil to listen, store, and process the key Welsh words and phrases than translation (Martin, 2005). However, in order that this approach is effective, care must be taken to ensure that the English is there to support the Welsh, and therefore selecting which aspects of the linguistic exchange to deliver in Welsh and which in English is an important consideration. In general, therefore, the lesson itself and the teacher's language did involve the use of both Welsh and English with greater amounts of Welsh than English, while the pupils' language did also involve a mixture of both languages but with more examples of English than Welsh.

## Lesson 6: Spanish

Towards the end the day, the final lesson observed was a Spanish lesson. As expected, children were encouraged to respond to the teacher using Spanish. Besides the instructions and questioning in Spanish, the remainder of the time English was heard. No Welsh was heard at all, which is not unexpected. Like in many of the other classrooms, the days of the week, numbers and the months of the year were displayed in Welsh on the wall.

## School A: Summary

No Welsh was heard in any of the lessons apart from the Welsh lesson. As expected, the Welsh lesson included great examples of bilingual discourse strategies such as code-switching and translation that could be applied to the other subjects should the subject teachers be trained on how to use them. By using the methods used by the Welsh teacher in other subjects, the pupils would be familiar with the methods, and therefore, the consistency would result in the Welsh that is presented to the pupils
being normalised across all subjects. Despite the lack of spoken Welsh, Welsh was seen visually on the classroom walls, which is an aspect the teachers could develop further by changing the words each term and to use more subject-specific terms to expose the pupils to new vocabulary.

### 6.5.2 School B

In School B, seven lessons were observed: the registration period, and 6 individual subject lessons. As was the case in School A, each lesson in School B was led by a different teacher each time, resulting in observations of a further seven individual teachers' use of Welsh. More Welsh was heard in School B than in School A. The Welsh observed in School B is described below for each lesson in turn.

## Lesson 1: Registration.

Registration started with the pupils reciting the Lord's prayer in Welsh. Following this, the children went on to respond to the class register in Welsh using yma 'here' to indicate their presence. Posters on the classroom wall showed the pupils how to ask for something in Welsh - e.g.

Gaf i bensil os gwelch yn dda can I have-I-pencil-if-see-is-good 'please may I have a pencil'

Gwaith dosbarth 'Classwork' and the date were written in Welsh on the whiteboard, and mathematical terms were presented bilingually on the wall. The use of Welsh on the walls in this context went beyond that of school A. While the posters on the walls in school A only displayed a lexical use, this was extended in school B to a lexicogrammar use. Despite having Welsh visible within the classroom and the pupils orating the Lord's prayer and responding with yma to the class register, the language of the registration period in general, by the teacher and the pupils, was 'Welsh in the minority'.

The first subject lesson of the day was Geography. The teacher greeted the pupils in Welsh with

bore da blant morning-good-children 'good morning children'

and the pupils responded in a recitation manner with

bore da Miss<br>morning-good-Miss<br>'good morning Miss'

They then recited the Lord's prayer in Welsh and answered yma 'here' to the register. The teacher then proceeded to engage the pupils by means of codeswitching:
right, get your books out and write gwaith dosbarth a dyddiad
work-class-and-date
'right, get your books out and write classwork and date'
As was observed in School A, in order to demand attention the teacher used

Tri, dau, un, tawelwch. Diolch
'three, two, one. Silence. Thank you.'
Added to this, there were many lexical triggers on the wall. Gwaith dosbarth 'Classwork' and the date were written in Welsh on the whiteboard and a laminated sheet was also displayed nearby with gwaith cartref 'homework' and a section for each year labelled b/wyddyn 7 or blwyddyn 8 'year 7; year 8' etc where the teacher would list the homework of the week. Bilingual, historical terms were also present e.g., civil war / rhyfel cartref - along with incidental words such as bore da 'good morning'. Addressing both the Welsh language and Cwricwlwm Cymreig (Welsh (culture) curriculum), there was an Owain Glyndwr ${ }^{17}$ poster in Welsh, and a sgiliau hanes 'skills of history' sheet in Welsh in their books. The colours were also displayed in Welsh through the means of 'thinking hats'. Beyond these instances of codeswitching, class recitation, classroom management and one-word response to the register, the teacher's language and the pupils' use of Welsh was minimal.

[^14]
## Lesson 3: Religious Education.

A Religious Education lesson followed. Again, the use of Welsh here was minimal, beyond the flanking of the lesson with Welsh via an initial Welsh greeting -
bore da blant
morning-good-children
'good morning children'
and the Welsh response
bore da Miss...
morning-good-Miss...
Good morning Miss...
and a final closing of the session with

> caewch eich llyfrau
> close (3'd person plural)-your-books
> 'close your books'.

The lesson, the teacher's language and that of the pupils were all 'Welsh in the minority'. The walls were adorned with bilingual terms such as priodas - marriage along with a small sheet with the Lord's prayer in Welsh. Gwaith dosbarth 'Classwork' and the date in Welsh were written on the whiteboard.

## Lessons 4 \& 5: English and German

As expected, the use of Welsh within the English lesson and on wall displays was minimal. However, Welsh was used during the class recitation of the last line of the Lord's prayer:

> y tad, y mab a'r ysbryd glan
> 'the father, the son, and the holy spirit'
and Cymraeg bob dydd was practiced in so far as the pupils answered the register with yma 'here'. Similarly, no Welsh was heard during the German lesson, but there was a Welsh banner on the wall, and a small poster with Welsh greetings such as bore da 'good morning', which served as a reminder for the pupils.

## Lesson 6: Science

The afternoon began with a science lesson, where the teacher greeted the pupils with

dewch i mewn<br>come-to-in<br>'come in'

and

> p'nawn da blwyddyn 8
> afternoon-good-year 8
> 'good afternoon year 8'.

The pupils then answered the register with yma Miss 'here Miss'. The lesson in general, the teacher's language and the pupils' language was 'Welsh in the minority'. On the wall there was a 'FALF DIFFODD NWY' poster along with an English version, and gwaith dosbarth 'classwork' and the date in Welsh were written on the white board.

## Lesson 7: History

The final lesson was history and the only Welsh that was heard was when the pupils answered yma to the class register, again making the lesson and the pupils' language 'Welsh in the minority' and the teacher's language 'no Welsh at all'. On the wall there was a poster including everyday Welsh phrases, along with a copy of the Lord's prayer in Welsh and the Welsh flag. Bilingual terms were scattered across the wall e.g parliament - senedd, and gwaith dosbarth 'classwork' and the date in Welsh was written on the blackboard.

## School B: Summary

The use of Welsh in school B went beyond that of school A, both verbally and visually. While more Welsh was used in contexts such as framing of the lessons and classroom management, this could be extended further to subject vocabulary in the
future to expose the pupils to a wider set of words. The visual aids on the walls were to be commended, due to the use of subject-specific terms, and is could be used as an example for other schools.

### 6.5.3 School C

In school C, six lessons were observed: the registration period, and five separate subject lessons.

## Lesson one: registration

The registration period started with the teacher greeting the pupils with "Bore da blant", with the pupils answering, similarly to the previous schools, in a recitation manner, with "Bore da, Mrs ****". She then commanded the children to

## eisteddwch rwan.

I didn't mean eisteddwch and chat! Just eisteddwch quietly.

## "Sit now.

I didn't mean sit and chat! Just sit quietly"

The pupils then replied to their name being called on the register with yma, before they were asked to go to the main hall for assembly with the whole school. Again, they were greeted with 'bore da blant', and they answered with 'bore da Mrs X'. Therefore, generally the lesson, teachers' language and the pupils' language were 'Welsh in the minority'.

Lesson two: science

The first full lesson was science, and again, the pupils were greeted with 'bore da blwyddyn wyth' (good morning year eights) and they answered with 'bore da miss' (good morning miss). No other Welsh was heard during that lesson, apart from one instance. The teacher made conversation with the researcher in Welsh. A pupil was surprised to hear that Welsh was the language of communication and exclaimed

Waw! Miss $X$ can siarad Cymraeg!<br>'Wow! Miss X can speak Welsh!'

Again, the lesson generally, the teacher's language and the pupils' language could be classified as 'Welsh in the minority'. The walls displayed a poster of the planets with their Welsh names labelled on them:

Sefwch wrth y drws
'Stand by the door
gwrandewch
'listen'
and
gwyddonwyr Cymru: y dyfodol
scientists-Wales- the-future
Wales' scientists: the future

In addition to the smaller posters named above, there was also a large 'periodic table' poster with the elements all labelled in Welsh provided by Prifysgol Bangor.

## Lesson 3: Design and technology

During the design and technology lesson, the pupils were heard answering the register with 'yma', however, no other Welsh was heard. On the wall, there were posters of different design and technology tools that were labelled with their Welsh names. Beyond these, no Welsh was heard spoken throughout the $1 / 2$ hour. The lesson in general and the pupils' language was 'Welsh in the minority' while the teachers' language was 'no Welsh at all'.

## Lesson 4: Maths

No Welsh was heard at all by the teacher during the maths lessons at school C. The pupils did, however, like with many of the other lessons, answer 'yma' to the register, making their use of Welsh 'in the minority' during the whole lesson.On the
wall there were posters of mathematical terms that were labelled with some Welsh terms.

## Lesson 5 and 6: Art and Music

The first lesson of the afternoon was art, where no Welsh was heard at all however, there were posters on the wall, with the months of the year and a sheet with Welsh prayers.

During the Music lesson, one of the pupils sang 'Sosban Fach' while another pupil accompanied on the keyboard, however, that was the only Welsh that was heard during that lessons, meaning that the lesson generally and the pupils' language was 'Welsh in the minority', while the teacher's language was 'no Welsh at all'. On the wall the learning objectives and achievement levels were bilingual. Also, work were labelled with 'blwyddyn 7' 'blwyddyn 8' etc, and a musical terms were displayed in Welsh.

## School C: Summary

The use of Welsh during the registration period was much higher than that of the remainder of the day. The use of bilingual course strategies such as translation and code-switching during registration were similar to those in school $A$, and should be taught to other subject teachers to be used in their own lessons. Apart from the registration period, extremely little Welsh was heard, therefore this school would need to start working from a baseline of basic classroom management before moving towards academic subject terms. Although there was some Welsh to be seen visually, it was in the minority, and therefore, this is an aspect which could also be developed in the future.

### 6.5.4 School D

The registration period and 5 lessons were observed in School D.

During the registration period, the teacher's language could be classified as 'mixed, but more English, while the pupils' Welsh could be classified as 'in the minority'. The teacher started with

Eisteddwch i lawr. Rwan, dwi am wneud y gofrestr<br>Sit-to-down-now-l-is-do-the-register<br>'Sit down. Now, I'm going to do the register'

During the register the pupils answered with 'yma'. They were then asked to read quietly and independently and she asked who didn't have books to do so. Those without were counted in Welsh and were given bilingual information books, while the ones that did already have their own books read in English. The teacher finished with

> welai chi wedyn
> 'See you later'
and the pupils said 'diolch' to me as the went through the door that I was holding open for them. As could be expected, the classroom was full of Welsh posters on the wall, as it was a Welsh classroom and the teacher was a Welsh teacher.

Lessons 2, 3 and 4: Maths and music

There was a double maths lesson during the morning (lessons $1 \& 3$ ), and on both occasions, no Welsh was heard at all, and no Welsh was seen on the walls. In between the two maths lesson, a music lesson took place. The pupils answered the register with 'yma' and the teacher praised the pupils with 'da iawn' when they correctly answered some questions. When giving the pupils some headphones the teacher said 'dyma ti' (there you go). She also commanded in Welsh with 'pawb i wrando' (everyone listen). This makes the pupils' and the teachers' language, along with the lesson in general on the high end of 'Welsh in the minority'. Where the pupils' work was shown on the wall, they were labelled with 'blwyddyn 7' 'blwyddyn 8 ' etc. On the white board, it was possible to see 'nod y wers' written, and the Welsh national anthem was visible on the wall.

During the afternoon a Welsh lesson was observed. Naturally many examples of Welsh were heard. The pupils answered the register with 'yma'. The teacher then asked:

> oes unrhywun eisiau pren mesur neu phensal
> does-anyone-want-ruler-or-pencil
> 'Does anyone want a ruler or a pencil?'
with the pupils responding with
ga'i un melyn plis?
can-I-one-yellow-please
'Can I have a yellow one please?'
When asking questions, the teacher used a mixture of Welsh and English, but tended to use more English when explaining words e.g 'gweithio is the verb, to work'. The teacher used Welsh to praise, and when asking for answers, and also used a little Welsh when asking questions. This meant that the lesson in general and the teacher's language was a mixture, but included more Welsh, while the pupils' language was also mixed, but included more English.

## Lesson 6: Physical education

The day finished with a P.E lesson. The pupils answered the register with 'yma', but no Welsh was heard at all after that. There were bilingual signs in the leisure centre along with Welsh posters about the teachers, and 'nod ac amcanion' was written on the white board. The lesson in general and the pupils' language was 'Welsh in the minority' while the teacher's language was 'no Welsh at all'.

## Summary: School D

As expected, due to the teachers being first language Welsh speakers, the teachers in both the registration period and the Welsh lesson used strategies such as translation to deliver a level of Welsh to the pupils. The level of Welsh heard otherwise was very minimal, and non-existent at times. Again, as with the other schools, it would be useful for the teachers to transfer their knowledge of bilingual
discourse strategies to other subject teachers and provide training on how to deliver basic Welsh. Due to the limited use of Welsh that is currently used, this school would also need to start with some basic vocabulary, such as commands and greetings and ensure that it is rolled out across the school to ensure consistency. School D could also expand on their visual use of Welsh by creating labels to put on the walls.

### 6.6 Conclusion

When excluding the Welsh lessons themselves, the level of Welsh observed across all 4 schools were very minimal, both on part of the teacher and the pupils, with some instances where the Welsh was non-existent. Overall, the minimal use of Welsh observed could be classfied according to the following themes:

Table 3: Themes of observations

| Practice | Examples from the schools during my observations | Advantages | Disadvantages |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Framing of the lesson | Opening the lesson with Welsh <br> 1. P'nawn da Miss (School A) <br> 2. Dewch i mewn (School B) <br> 3. P'nawn da blwyddyn 8 (School B) <br> 4. Answering 'yma' to the register (All schools) <br> Closing an activity with Welsh <br> 1. Caewch eich llyfrau (School B) <br> 2. Wela'i chi wedyn (School D) | - Increases the status of Welsh, by placing it first, and therefore as a linguistic framework for the lesson <br> - Normalises the use of Welsh within the lesson <br> - Increases the exposure of Welsh orally | - These structures can be static if they are not varied <br> - This may result in exposing limited syntax <br> - Keeping Welsh for the start and end of the lessons may convey the negative message that Welsh can't be linked to academic work <br> - This example doesn't encourage the pupils to use Welsh themselves (apart from 'yma' during the register). |
| Classroom management | Praise: <br> - Da iawn (School A and C) <br> - Os gwelwch yn dda (School A) <br> Behaviour management: <br> - Tri, dau, un (School A \& B) | - Increases the status of Welsh <br> - Normalises the use of Welsh within the lesson <br> - Increases the exposure to verbal Welsh <br> - Use of Welsh within the context of praising and behaviour management | - This can include restricted forms of words and syntax <br> - Phrases like these can be processed as unanalysed chunks <br> - These examples don't invite the pupils to use the language, only exposure to certain words and phrases of the language. |


|  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Translating | 1. Dyma ti. Here you are (School D) <br> 2. Gweithio is the verb 'to work' (School D) | - Translating exposes the pupil to Welsh vocabulary, meaning of words and grammatical patterns. <br> - Translating single words help the pupils to develop their mental lexicon in both languages. <br> - Translating sentences provide the pupils with two sets of vocabulary, two sets of syntaxes and provides pupils with situational clues to the meaning. <br> - Translating can help the pupil to make links between vocabulary and grammatical patterns in both languages. | - Extended phrases can be translated literally verbally, which can make them sound mechanical. <br> - Presenting the information fully in the English too makes the pupil concentrate on the English version as there is no need to then listen to the Welsh version as they have already understood what was said through the English. |


| Code switching | - Go into chwech o grwps (Welsh lesson) <br> - Dydd Llun dwi eisiau i chi focus on pronunciation (School A) <br> - You'll be doing a performance in front of the class dydd Gwener (School A) <br> - Have a look in your book dros y penwythnos (School A) <br> - Get your books out and write gwaith dosbarth a dyddiad (School B) | - Normalises the use of Welsh in a subtle way <br> - Provides semantic cues to word meanings o'r phrases that are borrowed from the other language <br> - Presents both languages at the same time | - It doesn't necessarily encourages the pupils to use Welsh verbally or in writing themselves <br> - Examples often contain 'borrowed words' and therefore the use of code-switching is restricted to vocabulary development rather than grammatical development |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Using Welsh to chat | 1. Oes 'na unrhyw un eisiau pren mesur neu phensal? (School D) | - It exposes the pupils to natural/verbal Welsh <br> - Normalises the language within the lesson | - Constant questioning can lead to one worded answers rather than extended phrases. <br> - Some phrases don't encourage answers from the pupil (e.g phrases in the imperative form) |


| Visual Welsh | Terms: <br> 1. In the cookery lesson, there were Welsh labels around the pupils' work that explained the cooking process e.g 'ymchwil', 'cynllunio' etc (School A) <br> 2. In many of the classrooms, days of the week, numbers and months of the year were clearly displayed on the walls (School A) <br> 3. In the library, the different genres were labelled bilingually e.g 'fiction - ffuglen' etc (School A) <br> 4. Historical terms such as "civil war - rhyfel cartref" (School B) <br> Extended language: | - This gives the pupils an exposure to written Welsh <br> - It exposes the pupils to how similar/different the forms look in both languages <br> - This gives the pupils and exposure to new vocabulary |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |

- It tends to be vocabulary rather than extended language
- There can be a tendency to keep the same terms up on the wall for a long time without updating them

|  | 1.Examples of how to ask <br> for things e.g Ga i <br> bensal... (school B) <br> 2. <br> Phrases such as 'bore da' <br> (School B) |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

During the observations that were undertaken at all four schools it's apparent that in many cases, there was no use of Welsh or very limited us that was restricted to greeting the pupils and during registration. A thorough analysis will be discussed within the discussion chapter, however, these results suggest that Cymraeg bob dydd is not being implemented to the extent that the Davies (2012) report suggests, nor is it enough for the purpose of expanding on the pupils' knowledge of Welsh. Apart from 'yma', what little amount is being initiated in the classroom, is being delivered by the teacher. These findings raise the questions as to why teachers are not going beyond simple greetings and why the pupils aren't engaging with Welsh. The next chapter will examine these questions and address the need for a further scoping study to try and see why Cymraeg bob dydd is not being implemented as intended.

## Chapter 7

## CHAPTER 7 <br> Phase 2: <br> Study 2 - Pupil Questionnaire

### 7.1 Introduction

Classroom observations conducted during Phase 1 of the research revealed that elicited opportunities for pupils attending English-medium schools to use Welsh with the teacher was limited to the occasional greeting (bore da 'good morning') and the affirmative response (yma 'here/present') to the daily class register call-outs. Whilst some of this is obviously linked to the nature and frequency of interactive contexts set up by the teacher - that serve to induce a response in Welsh, the reasons behind the likely uptake of those opportunities and behind pupils' reluctance to use Welsh in interpersonal interactions more generally was beyond the scope of Phase 1. Likewise, understanding the reasons behind teachers' reluctance to use Welsh in those cases where no or very limited Welsh was delivered, was beyond the scope of Study 1. Phase 2 of the study, therefore, aimed to discover some of the reasons why pupils and teachers may be reluctant to engage with and use Welsh in subjects outside Welsh. Phase 2, Study 2 explored English-medium secondary school pupils' linguistic backgrounds, perspectives on the Welsh language and culture, their language engagement behaviours, their perceptions of their own linguistic abilities, their enjoyment of Welsh lessons and the amount of support the school provides in order to support their use of Welsh. By means of a language use and attitudes questionnaire (see Appendix 4). The aim was to try and identify the factors that may influence pupils' engagement with and use of Welsh. Chapter 7 outlines the results obtained from Study 2 (Pupil Questionnaires).

### 7.2 Procedure

The Pupil Questionnaire was distributed to Year 8 pupils who attended the Englishmedium schools that participated in Phase 1 of the study. Control data were also collected from a further set of Welsh-medium and bilingual schools in order to evaluate the extent to which certain patterns of response were indicative of the $\mathbf{L 2}$ experience specific to English-medium schools or a more common pattern that occurred among Year 8 pupils (L2 and/or L1) in general.

### 7.3 Participants

581 children took part in Study 2. They were divided across three types of schools: English-medium secondary schools, bilingual secondary schools and Welsh-medium secondary schools. ${ }^{18}$ Children in the English-medium group ( $\mathrm{n}=192$ ) attended the same English-medium schools that took part in Phase 1, Study 1 (see Chapter 6). A further set of Welsh-medium and bilingual schools were also invited to participate as control. In total, 290 pupils returned questionnaire from Welsh-medium schools and 99 from bilingual schools. For the purpose of Phase 2 (Study 2) analysis, Englishmedium schools are labelled as $A, B, C$, and $D$ in keeping with the criteria outlined for the same schools in Chapter 6. Welsh-medium schools are labelled School 1, 2 and 3, and the bilingual schools are labelled Schools X and Y . (See Chapter 1 for the linguistic background of the areas where these schools were located.)

Table 4: Participating Schools

| English-medium <br> (n=192) | $\underline{\text { Welsh-medium }}$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| School A (Flintshire) | School 1 (Conwy) | Bilingual Schools <br> $\mathbf{n}=\mathbf{9 9 )}$ |
| School B (Flintshire) | School 2 (Denbighshire) | School Y (Anglesey) |
| School C (Denbighshire) | School 3 (Flintshire) |  |
| School D (Wrexham) |  |  |

### 7.4 Background information

The first section of the questionnaire collected some demographic information around their knowledge of language. This provided a baseline measure that could be

[^15]compared across groups and that could be used as factors in subsequent analyses. Table 5 provides the demographic information per school, and Table 6 provides the demographic information per schools language type.

Table 5: Background information per school

|  | English-medium Schools |  |  |  | Welsh-medium schools |  |  | Bilingual schools |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | School A | School B | School C | School D | School 1 | School 2 | School 3 | School X | School Y |
| Number of respondents | 26 | 32 | 22 | 112 | 86 | 127 | 76 | 49 | 50 |
| Male/Female | 65\% female $(n=17)$ <br> 35\% male $(n=9)$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 66 \% \\ & \text { female } \\ & (n=21) \\ & 34 \% \text { male } \\ & (n=11) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 73 \% \text { female } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=16) \\ & 27 \% \text { male } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=6) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 69\% female } \\ & (n=77) \\ & 31 \% \text { male } \\ & (n=35) \end{aligned}$ | 56\% female $(n=48)$ <br> 44\% male $(n=38)$ | 52\% female $(\mathrm{n}=66)$ <br> 48\% male $(\mathrm{n}=62)$ | 62\% female $(n=47)$ <br> 38\% male $(\mathrm{n}=29)$ | 45\% female $(\mathrm{n}=22)$ <br> 55\% male $(\mathrm{n}=27)$ | 72\% female $(\mathrm{n}=36)$ <br> 28\% male $(n=14)$ |
| First language | 96\% English $(n=25)$ <br> 4\% Welsh $(n=1)$ | 97\% <br> English <br> ( $\mathrm{n}=31$ ) <br> 3\% Polish <br> ( $n=1$ ) | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 95 \% \text { English } \\ & (n=21) \\ & 5 \% \text { Welsh } \\ & (n=1) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 97\% English } \\ & (n=109) \\ & 2 \% \text { Welsh } \\ & (n=2) \\ & 1 \% \text { Spanish } \\ & (n=1) \end{aligned}$ | 50\% English ( $\mathrm{n}=43$ ) <br> 47\% Welsh $(n=40)$ <br>  <br> English equally $(n=3)$ | 61\% English $(n=78)$ <br> 38\% Welsh $(\mathrm{n}=48)$ <br> 1\% Welsh and English equally $(n=2)$ | 80\% English $(n=61)$ <br> 18\% Welsh $(n=14)$ <br> 2\% Welsh and <br> English equally $(\mathrm{n}=1)$ | 86\% English $(\mathrm{n}=42)$ <br> 12\% Welsh $(\mathrm{n}=6)$ <br> 2\% didn't <br> answer $(\mathrm{n}=1)$ | 84\% English $(n=42)$ <br> 10\% Welsh $(\mathrm{n}=5)$ <br> 6\% Welsh and English $(\mathrm{n}=3)$ |
| Are you bilingual? | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 88 \% \text { no } \\ & (n=23) \\ & 8 \% \text { yes } \\ & (n=2) \\ & 4 \% \text { 'ish' } \\ & (n=1) \end{aligned}$ | 50\% no $(\mathrm{n}=16)$ <br> 22\% yes $(n=7)$ <br> $3 \%$ 'a bit' $(n=1)$ <br> 25\% no <br> answer $(\mathrm{n}=8)$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 68 \% \text { no } \\ & (n=15) \\ & 32 \% \text { yes } \\ & (n=7) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 83 \% \text { no } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=93) \\ & 13 \% \\ & \text { yes } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=15) \\ & 4 \% \\ & \text { no answer } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=4) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 97 \% \text { yes } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=83) \end{aligned}$ <br> 3\% no answer $(n=3)$ | $\begin{aligned} & 9 \% \text { no } \\ & (n=12) \\ & 85 \% \text { yes } \\ & (n=108) \\ & 6 \% \text { no answer } \\ & (n=8) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 91 \% \text { yes } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=69) \\ & 1 \% \text { no } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & 8 \% \text { no answer } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=6) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 96 \% \text { yes } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=47) \\ & 4 \% \text { no } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 88 \% \text { yes } \\ & (n=44) \\ & 12 \% \text { no } \\ & (n=6) \end{aligned}$ |

Table 6: Background information per linguistic type

|  | English medium | Welsh medium | Bilingual |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Number of respondents | 192 | 290 | 99 |
| Male/female | 68\% female $(n=131)$ <br> 32\% male $(n=61)$ | 56\% female ( $\mathrm{n}=161$ ) <br> 44\% male $(n=129)$ | 59\% female $(\mathrm{n}=58)$ <br> 41\% male $(\mathrm{n}=41)$ |
| First language | 97\% English $(\mathrm{n}=186)$ <br> 2\% Welsh $(n=4)$ <br> 1\% other $(n=2)$ | 63\% English $(n=182)$ <br> 35\% Welsh $(n=102)$ <br> 2\% Welsh and English equally $(n=6)$ | 85\% English $(n=84)$ <br> 11\% Welsh $(n=11)$ <br> 3\% Welsh and English equally $(n=3)$ |
| Are you bilingual? | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 77 \% \text { no } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=147) \\ & 16 \% \text { yes } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=31) \end{aligned}$ <br> 1\% a little bit $(\mathrm{n}=2)$ <br> 6\% no answer $(\mathrm{n}=12)$ | $\begin{aligned} & 4 \% \text { no } \\ & (n=14) \\ & 90 \% \text { yes } \\ & (n=260) \\ & 6 \% \text { no answer } \\ & (n=17) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 8 \% \text { no } \\ & (n=8) \\ & 92 \% \text { yes } \\ & (n=91) \end{aligned}$ |

Together, these data provide the following trends:
The great majority of pupils in English-medium and bilingual secondary schools considered English to be their first language. Only a small proportion (1 pupil in English-medium and 11 pupils in bilingual schools) considered Welsh to be their first language. Welsh-medium schools, on the other hand, returned a higher figure albeit still low (35\%) - who considered their first language to be Welsh. This difference in number was significant across schools ( $\mathrm{X}_{2}(6, \mathrm{n}=588$ ) $=93.555, \mathrm{p}<$ .001). However, the most surprising difference across school types was the number of pupils who considered themselves to be bilingual. Whereas $16 \%$ of pupils attending English-medium schools considered themselves to be bilingual, this compared very poorly to the $92 \%$ who did in bilingual schools and the $90 \%$ who did in Welsh-medium schools $\left(\mathrm{X}_{2}(4, \mathrm{n}=588)=338.740, \mathrm{p}<.001\right)$. This is despite claims from the pupils that they not only receive Welsh lessons at school, but they also enjoy them, and that they hear Welsh being used outside the Welsh lesson and use it a little outside of the classroom themselves (see Table 7 below). This is a very significant finding that warrants further exploration in the discussion.

When comparing the pupils in terms of gender, including only those who claimed Welsh or English as an L1, $76 \%(n=174)$ of the male pupils and $80 \%(n=278)$ of the female pupils reported English as their L1. Among the remainder of the sample, 1\% ( $n=2$ ) of males and $2 \%(n=7)$ females reported Welsh and English as equal L1s, and $23 \%(n=54)$ of the males and $18 \%(n=63)$ of the females claimed Welsh as their L1. ( $\mathrm{X}_{2}(8, \mathrm{n}=587)=590.542, \mathrm{p}<.001$.)

Interestingly, when comparing across males and females in terms of identifying with being bilingual, the pattern was similar although a smaller proportion of males $26 \%$ ( $n=57$ ) claimed that they were not bilingual $34 \%(n=112)$ of females said they weren't bilingual and $\mathrm{x}_{2}(6, \mathrm{n}=587)=591.080, \mathrm{p}<.001$. The same pattern was highlighted when comparing male and female pupils across the schools categorised by language type. In English medium schools $16 \%(n=10)$ of the male pupils stated that they were bilingual while $17 \%(n=22)$ of the females also agreed with the statement $\left(\mathrm{x}_{2}(6, \mathrm{n}=180)=194.585, \mathrm{p}<.001\right)$. Although the percentage of pupils identifying with being bilingual was significantly higher in the Welsh medium schools, there was no difference between the males and females with $90 \%(n=116)$ of the males agreeing with the statement along with $89 \%(n=143)$ of the females ( $x_{2}$ $(6, n=272)=293.387, p<.001)$. The difference was slightly higher in the bilingual schools, but again there was no real difference, with $90 \%(n=37)$ of the males agreeing that they were bilingual compared to $93 \%(n=54)$ of the females ( $\chi_{2}(4, n=$ 99) $=292.780, \mathrm{p}<.001$ ).

### 7.5 Welsh in school

Questions in this section of the questionnaire elicited pupils' use of and exposure to language in school, and their enjoyment of the Welsh lessons. For the purpose of Cymraeg bob dydd, English medium school pupils were also asked if they heard and used Welsh outside the formal Welsh lesson themselves to see whether they were engaging with Welsh within their other school subjects and to triangulate the observation data discussed in Chapter 6. The pupils in the bilingual schools were not asked about their enjoyment of the Welsh lessons as the questionnaire was used for a slightly different study that evaluated an event that was held in their school as opposed to the lessons. The Welsh and bilingual schools were also exempt from answering questions regarding hearing and speaking Welsh outside their Welsh lessons, as this is expected naturally due to the linguistic nature of their schools and is not something that has been inputted purposefully.

Table 7: Welsh in school themes per school

|  | English-medium schools |  |  |  | Welsh-medium schools |  |  | Bilingual schools |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | School A | School B | School C | School D | School 1 | School 2 | School 3 | School X | School Y |
| Language in school | $\begin{aligned} & 92 \% \text { English } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=24) \\ & 8 \% \text { no answer } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 97 \% \text { English } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=31) \\ & 3 \% \text { Welsh } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \end{aligned}$ | 100\% English ( $\mathrm{n}=22$ ) | $\begin{aligned} & 98 \% \text { English } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=110) \\ & 2 \% \text { no answer } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \end{aligned}$ | 50\% English ( $\mathrm{n}=43$ ) <br> 47\% Welsh $(\mathrm{n}=40)$ <br> 2\% Welsh and <br> English equally <br> ( $\mathrm{n}=2$ ) <br> 1\% no answer $(n=1)$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 41 \% \text { English } \\ & (n=53) \\ & 54 \% \text { Welsh } \\ & (n=69) \\ & 5 \% \text { Welsh and } \\ & \text { English equally } \\ & (n=6) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 26 \% \text { English } \\ & (n=20) \\ & 67 \% \text { Welsh } \\ & (n=51) \\ & 7 \% \text { Welsh and } \\ & \text { English equally } \\ & (n=5) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 69 \% \text { English } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=34) \\ & 22 \% \text { Welsh } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=11) \end{aligned}$ <br> 8\% Welsh and English equally $(n=4)$ | 98\% English $(\mathrm{n}=49)$ <br> 2\% Welsh and <br> English equally $(n=1)$ |
| Enjoyment of Welsh lessons | $\begin{aligned} & 85 \% \text { yes } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=22) \\ & 15 \% \text { no } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=4) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 89 \% \text { yes } \\ & (n=28) \\ & 11 \% \text { no } \\ & (n=4) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 50 \% \text { yes } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=11) \\ & 50 \% \text { no } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=11) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 54 \% \text { yes } \\ & (n=61) \\ & 45 \% \text { no } \\ & (n=50) \\ & 1 \% \text { 'middle' } \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 85 \% \text { yes } \\ & (n=73) \\ & 8 \% \text { no } \\ & (n=7) \\ & 7 \% \text { no answer } \\ & (n=6) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 81 \% \text { yes } \\ & (n=105) \\ & 18 \% \text { no } \\ & (n=22) \\ & 1 \% \text { no answer } \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 63 \% \text { yes } \\ & (n=48) \\ & 29 \% \text { no } \\ & (n=22) \\ & 8 \% \\ & \text { 'ish' } \\ & (n=6) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | n/a | n/a |


| Hear Welsh | 54\% yes | 91\% yes | 77\% yes | 70\% yes | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| outside the | ( $\mathrm{n}=14$ ) | ( $\mathrm{n}=29$ ) | ( $\mathrm{n}=17$ ) | ( $\mathrm{n}=78$ ) |  |  |  |  |  |
| Welsh lessons | $\begin{aligned} & 46 \% \text { no } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=12) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 9 \% \text { no } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=3) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 32 \% \text { no } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=5) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 30 \% \text { no } \\ & (n=34) \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| Speak Welsh outside the Welsh lessons | $\begin{aligned} & 42 \% \text { yes } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=11) \\ & 58 \% \text { no } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=15) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 47 \% \text { yes } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=15) \\ & 53 \% \text { no } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=17) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 45 \% \text { yes } \\ & 55 \% \text { no } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 24 \% \text { yes } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=27) \\ & 76 \% \text { no } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=85) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a | n/a |

The main patterns observed in Table 7 are discussed per question below.

### 7.5.1 Language in school

The questionnaire asked pupils which language they spoke mostly in school. In all English-medium schools, the majority of the sample reported that they spoke English in school ( $92 \%-100 \%$ across the four schools). The predominance of English in these schools was much higher than in Welsh-medium (26\%-50\% English across the three schools), but was not too dissimilar to one of the bilingual schools, where $98 \%$ of pupils reported speaking English (69\% in the remaining bilingual school).

### 7.5.2 Enjoyment of Welsh lessons

Across-the-board, the majority of pupils in English-medium and Welsh-medium schools enjoyed Welsh lessons (this question was not given to the pupils in bilingual schools, as they were asked about their enjoyment of a project that was implemented in their schools instead). Response rates spanned $50 \%-89 \%$ across the English-medium schools and 63\%-85\% in Welsh-medium schools. When pupils attending English-medium schools were asked what they enjoy about the Welsh lessons (this question was not asked for the pupils in Welsh-medium schools or bilingual schools), three themes emerged: personal progression; pedagogy of the lessons; and links with the wider culture.

Some pupils mentioned that they enjoyed seeing themselves progress and improve, becoming more fluent:

> 'Starting to speak more fluently' (school A)
> 'Hoping that I will be fluent' (school C)
'Being able to go to a Welsh speaking area and understanding what they're saying'

Others stated that they enjoyed the lessons because they felt that the teacher helped them, and they enjoy activities such as speaking to each other and watching the PowerPoints:
'Miss speaks to us in Welsh and then translates so that we understand' (school A) 'Speaking tasks when we have conversations with each other' (school A)
'Teacher makes it fun' (school B)
'Games' (school B)
'When we work in teams' (school B)
'The lessons are relaxed' (school D)
'Playing games \& pop quizzes to help us remember' (school D)
'The environment makes me want to learn/relaxed environment'

Other pupils enjoyed the way engagement with the lessons led to them being able to participate in the wider culture, as they could use and understand the language within the community and feel part of the wider culture:
'Learning something that I could use outside school' (school A)
'Learning about all the local things that we know about in English and being able to translate them into Welsh' (school B)
'Getting to learn our country's language' (school B)
'Learning a language that we can speak to fluent people' (school B) 'Looking at the culture' (school C)
'Learning about Wales and the Welsh culture' (school D)

The pupils in English-medium schools were also asked about what they don't enjoy about Welsh lessons. When asked what they did not enjoy about Welsh lessons, the lack of differentiation within lessons was a prominent theme. Some stated that the lessons were too easy, while others felt they were too hard. Many pupils stated the different levels of ability found within a single class influenced their enjoyment of the lessons.

```
'not setted - some struggle, but others are held back' (school A)
    'Some words are difficult' (school A)
    'Some things are too easy (school A)
                    'I struggle' (school B)
    'Already done much of the stuff in primary' (school B)
    'Too easy - it gets boring and repetitive' (school C)
    'Too difficult' (school C)
```

Finding the language itself difficult was also a barrier to the pupils' enjoyment of the lessons:

```
    'can't pronounce words'(school B)
    'teacher gives instructions in Welsh and we don't understand' (school B)
    `I often make mistakes' (school B)
    'Mutations/past tense' (school C)
    'Learning spellings' (school D)
    'Struggling with pronunciation' (school D)
```

    'It takes me a while to understand the meaning of most paragraphs and sentences'
        (school D)
    Despite the pedagogy of the lessons being a reason for the pupils to enjoy the Welsh lessons, there are some aspects of the pedagogy that the students don't enjoy:
'The writing' (school B)
'When we copy things from the board' (school B)
'We don't get to use much ICT' (school B)
'Having to write a lot' (school D)
'Being rushed to understand things' (School D

The methods of assessment such as tests and presentations were a prominent theme of why pupils don't enjoy the Welsh lessons:
'Talking in front of the class' (school B)
'End of year tests' (school A)
'Speaking in front of the class' (school A \& C)
'Tests' (school D)

When asked 'what would you like to be different about the provision of Welsh in school?', it was no surprise that some commented that they would prefer Welsh lessons to be 'setted' according to ability.

Other responses referred to measures that could be taken outside the Welsh lesson, instigated either by the pupil themselves or as measures for the School/teachers to consider, such as asking for food in Welsh in the canteen, Welsh learner clubs and having trips to 'Welsh places', having a place to go (cf. a 'linguistic space' Gutiérrez et al, 2000) where they could speak Welsh, and for teachers in other subjects to use it more.

Despite a couple of responses that wanted teachers from outside the Welsh department to speak more Welsh to influence the pupils when asked what they'd like to see different about the Welsh language provision, most responses were related to the Welsh lessons themselves. The pupils asked for less tests and more activities, and a variety in the topics. Some also asked for more time to be given to them for them to 'grasp the hard bits'. In improving the current provision at their School, pupils in school B in particular noted a desire to include more ICT, more paired work, more games, and learning more 'everyday' Welsh:
"Let us work with a partner"
"More use of ICT"

When asked about any factors that could prevent a pupil from learning Welsh, a range of answers were given. Disruptive students and the difficulty were two prominent themes across all four schools, however 'attitude' showed itself several times, with quotes such as 'Would be more useful to learn a more well-known language'; 'it's a load of rubbish' and "Welsh is boring". Lack of enthusiasm on the part of the teacher, and that it's not fun enough were other answers that were written.

### 7.5.3 Hear Welsh outside the Welsh lessons

Children in each of the four English-medium schools heard Welsh outside of the Welsh lesson, ranging from 54\%-91\% response rate. When asked for examples of where and when Welsh was heard, the responses fell under three categories: use during opening and closing of the lesson; in commands; and in praise, which match two of the themes that were observed in the first phase; framing of the lesson and classroom management. One pupil in school A mentioned that they also heard some teachers who could speak Welsh, speaking Welsh to each other, however, as this was an isolated case it hasn't been analysed as a theme.

Pupils from all four schools reported that they heard Welsh during the opening of lessons:

```
`gwaith dosbarth' (schools A, B & D)
                'yma' (all schools)
'bore da/pnawn da' (all schools)
    'sut wyt ti heddiw?' (school B)
    'nod y wers' (school D)
    'pawb yn barod?' (school D)
```

Although the pupils noted many more examples that referred to the opening of the lessons, there were a few examples that are mentioned in relation to the closing of the lessons:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 'hwyl fawr' (school D) } \\
& \text { ‘cerwch allan' (school C \& D) }
\end{aligned}
$$

There is a clear difference between the beginning of the lesson compared to the end, which implies that the teachers should develop their use of Cymraeg bob dydd further by continuing to use their Welsh throughout the lesson and not isolating its use to the beginning.

The pupils also provided an extensive list of commands which they have heard the teachers using in their lessons:

```
                    'un, dau, tri' (school A)
    `eisteddwch i lawr' (all schools)
        'dim siarad' (schools A & D)
        'brysiwch' (school C)
    'ysgrifennwch' (school C & D)
`darllenwch/siaradwch/gwrandewch' (school C)
```

```
‘os gwelwch yn dda’ (school C)
'dewch i mewn' (schools C \& D)
    'cau'r drws' (school D)
'byddwch yn dawel (school D)
```

These commands were used alongside praise, with pupils from all four schools reporting that they also heards words such as 'da iawn' and 'diolch/croeso'.

### 7.5.4 Speak Welsh outside the Welsh lessons

42\% $(\mathrm{n}=11)$ of the pupils in school A stated that they themselves spoke Welsh outside the Welsh lesson; however, the majority of these responses related to their use of Welsh outside school with their extended family, with only a very small minority saying that they spoke Welsh in other lessons.

Despite $97 \%(\mathrm{n}=31)$ of the pupils in school B coming from non-Welsh-speaking homes, $47 \%(n=15)$ of the pupils reported that they themselves speak Welsh outside the Welsh lessons, while $53 \%(n=17)$ reported that they did not. Those using the Language outside the Welsh lessons reported that they used it in other lessons during the register, with other teachers and at home with family and friends.
$45 \%(n=10)$ of the pupils in school C stated that they themselves used Welsh outside the Welsh lesson. Many said that this was during registration, while others stated that they used Welsh in other lessons. Some pupils also stated that they used Welsh outside school with friends that attend Welsh schools and at home.
$24 \%(n=27)$ of the pupils in school $D$ uses Welsh themselves outside the Welsh lesson. The participants state that this is during other lessons, during the register, at home, talking to friends, and when saying 'diolch' (see Chapter 6).

### 7.5.5 Relationship between use and enjoyment

Despite being in its early stages, research around the subject of enjoyment and its influence on language learning show that positive emotions such as enjoyment have a positive influence on the pupils' learning and language acquisition (Boudreau et al, 2018). This section explores the correlation between the pupils' enjoyment of Welsh lessons and their own personal use of Welsh.

Table 8: Relationship between enjoyment and use

|  | English medium |  | Welsh medium |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Do use Welsh | Don't Use <br> Welsh | Use Welsh in school ${ }^{19}$ | Use English in school | Use both equally |
| Do enjoy <br> Welsh lessons | 47\% | 53\% | 61\% | 36\% | 3\% |
| Don't enjoy <br> Welsh lessons | 7\% | 93\% | 27\% | 63\% | 10\% |

When considering whether there is a connection between the enjoyment of the English-medium school pupils of Welsh lessons and whether they use it in school, unsurprisingly, $93 \%(n=64)$ of those who do not enjoy Welsh lessons do not use it outside the Welsh lessons. Of particular note, however, $53 \%(n=65)$ of those who did enjoy Welsh lessons did not claim to use Welsh outside Welsh lessons and 47\% ( $n=58$ ) of those who did enjoy Welsh lessons did ( $x_{2}(1, n=192)=31.934, p<.001$ ), showing a potential link between enjoyment and use that will be discussed later in the discussion in Chapter 10. .

Within the Welsh-medium schools' results, $63 \%(\mathrm{n}=33)$ of those who did not enjoy Welsh lessons spoke English in school, $10 \%(n=5)$ spoke both equally and $27 \%(n=$

[^16]14) spoke Welsh. Of those who did enjoy Welsh lessons, $61 \%(n=140)$ spoke Welsh, $36 \%(n=82)$ chose to speak English in school, and $3 \%(n=8)$ spoke both equally ( $x^{2}$ $(2, n=282)=20.458, p<.001)$. This again suggests that there is a link between enjoyment and use.

Pupils from bilingual schools weren't asked about their enjoyment of the lessons, as they were asked about the enjoyment of a Welsh-medium session instead, as the results from the bilingual schools comes from the GwE evaluation. However, when comparing the Welsh and English-medium schools a significance was found between both types of schools in terms of enjoyment, with pupils in Welsh-medium schools more likely to enjoy the Welsh lessons compared to the pupils in English-medium schools $\mathrm{X}_{2}(2, \mathrm{n}=482)=22.538, \mathrm{p}<.001$. As expected due to the linguistic natures of the schools, there was also a significance between the main language that is spoken across the three types of schools, with Welsh much more likely to be used in Welshmedium and bilingual schools compared to English $x_{2}(4, n=576)=202.920, p<.001$

Table 9: Relationship between use and assumed first language

|  | Welsh-medium $\times 2$ (4, $\mathrm{n}=$$289)=20.376, p<.001$ |  |  | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { Bilingual } \times 2(4, n=98)= \\ 6.213, p>.05 \end{gathered}$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Welsh <br> L1 | Both equally | English <br> L1 | Welsh <br> L1 | Both equally | English <br> L1 |
| Speak Welsh mostly at school | 71\% | 67\% | 46\%\% | 18\% | 33\% | 11\% |
| Speak both equally | 5\% | 17\% | 4\% | 0\% | 0\% | 5\% |
| Speak English mostly at school | 25\% | 17\% | 50\% | 82\% | 67\% | 85\% |

Comparisons have been made to see whether there is a tendancy to use the home language in school. In the Welsh-medium schools ${ }^{20}$, this was found to be true with Welsh L1 pupils more likely to use Welsh more than English in school and vice versa for the English-medium pupils. This was not the case in the bilingual schools, with most pupils choosing to speak English mostly in school regardless of their home language. Despite finding a significance in the Welsh-medium schools, no

[^17]significance was found between the pupils' first language and their main language in schools when comparing all three schools together, perhaps because of the very large number of English L1 pupils in the dataset. : $\mathrm{X2}(4, \mathrm{n}=98)=6.213, \mathrm{p}>.05$

A different comparison has been made in the English-medium schools, as they were enquired about their enjoyment of Welsh lessons. A comparison was made between the gender of the pupils and their enjoyment of the Welsh lessons. $24 \%$ of males didn't enjoy Welsh lessons, while 76\% did. 26\% of the females didn't enjoy Welsh lessons while $74 \%$ did. There was no significance between the males and females and their enjoyment of Welsh lessons $\mathrm{x}_{2}(1, \mathrm{n}=475)=.241, \mathrm{p}>.05 \mathrm{~A}$ comparison was also made between gender and the language the pupils speak most in the schools. $65 \%(n=147)$ of the males spoke English mostly in school, $1 \%(n=2)$ spoke both equally and $34 \%(78)$ spoke Welsh the most. $68 \%(n=239)$ of the females spoke English mostly at school, $5 \%(n=17)$ spoke both equally and $27 \%(n=93)$ spoke Welsh the most. A significance was found in this comparison, with male pupils more likely to use Welsh in school than the female pupils $\mathrm{X}_{2}(2, \mathrm{n}=576)=9.679, \mathrm{p}<.05$

### 7.6 Confidence

As a part of the questionnaire, pupils in Welsh and English-medium schools were asked about their confidence in speaking, writing and reading in both Welsh and English, and before secondary school and their current levels of confidence. The data were transformed into percentages in order to account for the variation in number of respondents and to be able to see the average trends. With the exception of the graphs that compare with the Welsh-medium schools, these graphs demonstrate the results from the English-medium schools. Although analysis from the Welsh-medium schools were also made during this study, due to word count constraints, these results concentrate on the comparison from the schools from both language types and the results from the English-medium schools as the thesis is mainly focused on the issues surrounding the English-medium secondary school sector.

$X_{2}(5)=95.648, p<.001$

Figure 3: Current confidence in speaking English (comparison between Welsh medium and English medium schools)

$X_{2}(5)=41.679, p<.001$

When comparing the English-medium schools with the Welsh-medium schools, 'as expected, confidence with speaking Welsh was high in Welsh schools (quite confidence/very confident), yet the majority of pupils in English-medium schools felt middling or quiet confident in speaking Welsh, despite not using it very often (see above). Conversely, most pupils in both school types were quite or very confident in using English.

Figure 4: Confidence in speaking Welsh before secondary school with now (English medium schools)

$X_{2}(4)=55.412, p<.001$

Pupils in English-medium schools were asked about their confidence in speaking Welsh at primary school and at secondary school in order to make a comparison to see whether they feel that they have progressed in their confidence to speak Welsh. Being 'quite confident' however seems to have been a relatively recent selfevaluation that happened since entering secondary school (see Figure 4). The blue line shows that most pupils felt that they had 'middling' confidence before secondary school, however, since entering secondary school, most pupils felt 'quite confident' with a higher, which shows an increase confidence across time.

$X_{2}(8)=4.925, p>.005$

Levels of confidence did not seem to vary much across type of language task (reading, writing and speaking).

### 7.7 Attitudes

Due to the vast amount of data that were associated with this section of the results, data are displayed in relation to the linguistic medium of the school rather than by each school individually. 17 questions were asked within the questionnaire that were associated to attitude. Results are presented in graphs for each question individually within their four themes; affective factors, emotive connotations, cultural applications and educational aspirations:

### 7.7.1 Affective factors:

Figure 6: The Welsh language is a part


Figure 7: Learning Welsh is important
to me
$x 2(2, n=579)=73.037, p<.001$


Figure 8: I feel like I need Welsh

$$
x 2(2, n=575)=73.418, p<.001
$$



Figure 9: Learning languages like French is more important to me

$$
x 2(2, n=560)=14.441, p>.05
$$



The four statements above relate to how the pupils identify with the language and its value for them. When comparing all the linguistic background of the schools, significance was found in all statements apart from 'learning French is important to me'. All of the other statements proved to have a significance, with Welsh-medium schools in most cases displaying more positive attitudes, bilingual schools in second place and English-medium schools displaying the least positive attitudes. Englishmedium schools had the highest levels of 'no opinion' in most of the statements, which suggests that they have no strong feelings towards the language and are not as emotionally invested as pupils from the other schools. Although some of the pupils agreed with the three statements, English-medium schools also demonstrate the highest percentages of 'disagree' and strongly disagree' which indicate that the Welsh language is of less value for them, generally than for the pupils in Welshmedium and bilingual education. Interestingly, bilingual pupils felt the most passionate that Welsh was more important to them than other languages, such as French. Again, the English-medium pupils had the highest levels of 'no opinion', however, the remainder of the responses were mixed across all three linguistic types, perhaps indicating why there is no significance in this statement.

### 7.7.2 Emotive Connotations:

| Figure 10: I feel nervous when speaking Welsh$\mathrm{x} 2(2, \mathrm{n}=577)=49, \mathrm{p}<.001$ |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 6040 |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| $\begin{array}{r} 40 \\ 20 \\ 0 \end{array}$ |  |  |  |  |
|  | $\square$ | $\square$ |  |  |
|  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Strongly } \quad \text { Agree } \\ & \text { agree } \end{aligned}$ | No opinion | Disagree |  |
|  | $\square$ Welsh medium | ■ Bilingual | $\square$ English m | dium |



Figure 12: I feel that the Welsh language is enforced on me

$$
x 2(2, n=558)=2.824, p<.05
$$



Figure 13: Speaking Welsh makes me feel proud

$$
x 2(2, n=562)=91.407, p<.001
$$



The emotive connotation statements relate to how using the language makes the pupils feel. Two of the statements reflect positive feelings (communicating in Welsh is fun and speaking Welsh makes me feel proud), while the other two statements (I feel nervous when speaking Welsh and I feel that the Welsh language is enforced on me) are negative statements. Significance was found in all four statements. Interestingly, the bilingual pupils are the ones that feel the most nervous when speaking Welsh, while also have the highest percentages of pupils who disagree that communicating in Welsh is fun, and strongly disagree that speaking Welsh makes them feel proud. The bilingual pupils also have the highest percentages in strongly agreeing and strongly disagreeing that the Welsh language is enforced on them, which shows a large variety in responses from the bilingual pupils. The Welshmedium pupils had the highest percentages of pupils that strongly agreed and agreed with communicating in Welsh is fun, and strongly agree with speaking Welsh makes me feel proud, which indicated that they are the cohort that feel the most positive when speaking Welsh. The Welsh-medium pupils also had the highest percentage of strongly disagreeing with the 'I feel nervous when speaking Welsh'. Similarly to the affective implications, the English-medium pupils had the highest percentages of 'no opinion' in all four statements, again, implying that they have no strong feelings either way in relation to how using the language makes them feel.

### 7.7.3 Cultural Applications



Five statements were categorised under the 'cultural applications' section. This section refers to the language as a part of life outside school, whether that is for an economic or lifestyle benefits to the individual. Significances were had in each of the statements apart from 'I don't see the relevance of Welsh to everyday life'. High percentages were had from all three cohorts (above 50\%) when strongly agreeing to 'the Welsh language is an important part of Welsh culture'. Despite this, many fewer students strongly agreed to ‘I enjoy experiencing Welsh culture at places like the Eisteddfod' and were more likely to 'agree' or have 'no opinion'. This demonstrates that although pupils realise the importance of the language to the culture, they themselves don't apply this to their own lives and are less likely to participate in those cultural events themselves. When looking to the future, the Welsh-medium students felt the strongest that being able to speak Welsh would be beneficial, followed by the bilingual pupils. Despite this, the English-medium students had the highest percentage when agreeing, as many of those pupils also found a benefit for the Welsh language. When asked about 'it's easier to get a job if you can speak Welsh', the bilingual pupils were the cohort that strongly agreed the most, followed by the Welsh-medium pupils. Like with all of the statements in this category apart from 'I enjoy experiencing Welsh culture at places like the Eisteddfod', the Englishmedium pupils demonstrated the highest percentage of 'no opinion'. There is not much difference between how many pupils strongly agree and agree with the '। don't see the relevance of Welsh to everyday life', implying possibly why there was no significance in this statement.

### 7.7.4 Educational aspirations

Figure 19: I'd like to help
younger children to learn Welsh $x 2(2, n=561)=62.036, p<.001$



Figure 21: Enough is being done in school to support the use of Welsh $x 2(2, n=578)=59.589, p<.001$

Figure 22: I want to be fluent in Welsh $\mathrm{x} 2(5, \mathrm{n}=288)=18.471, \mathrm{p}<.05$


[^18]The four educational aspirations statements relate to their aspirations in terms of the language, be that in their own personal aspirations in achieving fluency, the school's role in supporting that or their willingness to transfer the language on to younger generations, with each statement presenting a significance. Pupils in Welshmedium schools were not given the statement 'I want to be fluent in Welsh' as they are already fluent, and therefore it was $\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{a}$. Welsh-medium schools had the highest percentage in the first three statements, followed by the bilingual pupils. Again, the English-medium pupils demonstrated the highest percentage in 'no opinion' for all four statements, with a mixture between the English-medium schools and bilingual schools when disagreeing with the statements. This shows that the Welsh-medium pupils feel the most supported, satisfied with their abilities and the most willing to transfer the language to future generations.

### 7.7.5 Difference between males and females

The results for the boys are displayed in blue and the girls' in red. The numbers have been transformed into percentages due to the variance in the gender ratio.

Table 10: Comparison of attitudes by gender

|  | Strongly <br> Agree | Agree Somewhat | No Opinion | Somewhat Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Learning Welsh is important to me $x 2(4, n=579)=7.117, p>0.05$ | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \% \\ & (n=62) \\ & 31 \% \\ & (n=110) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 44 \% \\ & (n=100) \\ & 41 \% \\ & (n=143) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 14 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=31) \\ & 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=62) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{\|l\|} \hline 8 \% \\ (\mathrm{n}=19) \\ 6 \% \\ (\mathrm{n}=22) \\ \hline \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 7 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=17) \\ & 4 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=13) \end{aligned}$ |
| I Want to be fluent in Welsh x2 $(4, n=288)=8.244, p>0.05$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 20 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=20) \\ & 24 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=45) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 22 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=22) \\ & 35 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=66) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 25 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=25) \\ & 19 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=35) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 19 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=19) \\ & 13 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=24) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 14 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=14) \\ & 10 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=18) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| Enough is being done in school to support the use of Welsh $x^{2}(4, n=578)=8.542, p>0.05$ | $\begin{aligned} & 39 \% \\ & (n=89) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (n=117) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 36 \% \\ & (n=81) \\ & 41 \% \\ & (n=145) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=40) \\ & 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=64) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 5 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=11) \\ & 6 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=22) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 3 \% \\ & (n=7) \\ & 1 \% \\ & (n=2) \end{aligned}$ |
| The Welsh language is a part of my identity $x 2(4, n=574)=4.081, p>0.05$ | $\begin{aligned} & 28 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=63) \\ & 28 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=95) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 33 \% \\ & (n=76) \\ & 35 \% \\ & (n=120) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 20 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=45) \\ & 20 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=68) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 7 \% \\ & (n=16) \\ & 10 \% \\ & (n=33) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 13 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=29) \\ & 8 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=28) \end{aligned}$ |
| The Welsh language is an important part of Welsh culture X2 $(4, n=572)=5.836, p>0.05$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 55 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=124) \\ & 62 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=214) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 26\% } \\ & (\mathrm{n}=59) \\ & 23 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=79) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 12 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=27) \\ & 12 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=41) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 3 \% \\ & (n=7) \\ & 2 \% \\ & (n=7) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 4 \% \\ & (n=8) \\ & 1 \% \\ & (n=4) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |


| I Don't see the relevance of Welsh to everyday life $\begin{aligned} & x 2(4, n=570)=12.255, p< \\ & 0.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 12 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=27) \\ & 7 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=24) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 23 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=53) \\ & 19 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=64) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=74) \\ & 31 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=108) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 13 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=30) \\ & 23 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=79) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 19 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=42) \\ & 20 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=69) \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Being able to speak Welsh would be useful for my future x2 $(4, n=578)=19.422, p<$ 0.05 | $\begin{aligned} & 40 \% \\ & (n=92) \\ & 47 \% \\ & (n=164) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 29 \% \\ & (n=65) \\ & 31 \% \\ & (n=108) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 17 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=38) \\ & 15 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=51) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 4 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=10) \\ & 5 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=18) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 10 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=23) \\ & 2 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=7) \end{aligned}$ |
| I feel nervous when speaking Welsh X2 $(4, n=578)=4.559, p>0.0 .5$ | $\begin{aligned} & 11 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=25) \\ & 14 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=48) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 23 \% \\ & (n=52) \\ & 29 \% \\ & (n=100) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=40) \\ & 15 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=52) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 21 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=49) \\ & 17 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=61) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=62) \\ & 25 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=88) \end{aligned}$ |
| It's easier to get a job if you can speak Welsh $\begin{aligned} & x^{2}(4, n=575)=19.208, p< \\ & 0.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 32 \% \\ & (n=72) \\ & 36 \% \\ & (n=127) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 34 \% \\ & (n=77) \\ & 29 \% \\ & (n=100) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 16 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=36) \\ & 22 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=78) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 7 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=16) \\ & 9 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=32) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 11 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=25) \\ & 3 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=11) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| Communicating in Welsh is fun X2 $(4, n=573)=1.085, p>0.05$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 22 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=49) \\ & 22 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=77) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 30 \% \\ & (n=68) \\ & 30 \% \\ & (n=103) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 26 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=58) \\ & 28 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=96) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 12 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=28) \\ & 12 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=40) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 11 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=24) \\ & 8 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=29) \end{aligned}$ |
| I feel that the Welsh language is enforced on me $x 2(4, n=559), 9.442, p>0.05$ | $\begin{aligned} & 15 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=33) \\ & 9 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=32) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & l 8 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=61) \\ & 22 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=74) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 30 \% \\ & (n=65) \\ & 39 \% \\ & (n=131) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 14 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=30) \\ & 17 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=58) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 13 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=29) \\ & 13 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=45) \end{aligned}$ |
| Speaking Welsh makes me feel proud $x 2(4, n=562), 3.018, p>0.05$ | $\begin{aligned} & 34 \% \\ & (n=76) \\ & 36 \% \\ & (n=124) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 34 \% \\ & (n=75) \\ & 32 \% \\ & (n=108) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 19 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=42) \\ & 21 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=70) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 5 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=12) \\ & 7 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=24) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 7 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=16) \\ & 4 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=15) \end{aligned}$ |
| I enjoy experiencing Welsh culture at places like the Eisteddfod $\begin{aligned} & x 2(5, n=556)=15.103, p< \\ & 0.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 15 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=32) \\ & 26 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=89) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 28 \% \\ & (n=60) \\ & 30 \% \\ & (n=101) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 36 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=77) \\ & 29 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=99) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 11 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=24) \\ & 7 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=25) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 11 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=23) \\ & 7 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=25) \end{aligned}$ |
| I feel like I need the Welsh language $x^{2}(5, n=566)=4.077, p>0.05$ | $\begin{aligned} & 19 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=42) \\ & 17 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=60) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=60) \\ & 28 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=97) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 20 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=45) \\ & 26 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=90) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 16 \% \\ & (n=36) \\ & 14 \% \\ & (n=49) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 17 \% \\ & (n=38) \\ & 14 \% \\ & (n=48) \end{aligned}$ |
| Learning languages like French is more important to me $x^{2}(4, n=560)=3.798, p>0.05$ | $\begin{aligned} & 15 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=32) \\ & 11 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=38) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 21 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=46) \\ & 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=62) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 24 \% \\ & (n=53) \\ & 30 \% \\ & (n=103) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 20 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=43) \\ & 21 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=72) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 21 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=45) \\ & 19 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=66) \end{aligned}$ |
| I'm happy that I know enough Welsh for what I need X2 $(4, n=562)=2.060, p>0.05$ | $\begin{aligned} & 34 \% \\ & (n=74) \\ & 35 \% \\ & (n=121) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 37 \% \\ & (n=80) \\ & 38 \% \\ & (n=130) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 16 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=34) \\ & 17 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=59) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 10 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=21) \\ & 7 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=24) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 4 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=9) \\ & 3 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=10) \end{aligned}$ |
| I'd like to help younger children to learn Welsh $x^{2}(4, n=561)=5.243, p>0.05$ | $\begin{aligned} & 24 \% \\ & (n=53) \\ & 31 \% \\ & (n=108) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 25 \% \\ & (n=54) \\ & 24 \% \\ & (n=84) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=59) \\ & 27 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=92) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 11 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=23) \\ & 9 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=31) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 13 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=28) \\ & 8 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=29) \end{aligned}$ |

When comparing male and female pupils, there were fewer differences in their attitudes compared to the comparisons that were made across the three types of
linguistic schools. No significance was found between the two genders in all but four of the statements. Male students were more likely to agree that 'I don't see the relevance of the Welsh language to everyday life' than the female students, with $35 \%$ of the males agreeing ${ }^{22}$ compared to $26 \%$ of the females. Whilst both males and females believed that 'it's easier to get a job if you can speak Welsh' ( $66 \%$ males agreeing compared to $65 \%$ of the females), $18 \%$ of males disagreed vs $12 \%$ of the females. Another significance was 'being able to speak Welsh would be beneficial for my future', with $78 \%$ of the female pupils agreeing to the statement compared to $69 \%$ of the males. Lastly, a significance was found between the genders in the '। enjoy experiencing Welsh culture at places like the Eisteddfod. The female pupils had a higher response when agreeing ( $56 \%$ compared to $43 \%$ ) option while more of the male students felt that they had no opinion ( $36 \%$ as opposed to $29 \%$ ). Despite these four examples of significances, there were no large difference between the genders in general.
7.7.6 Difference between pupils that identify as bilinguals and pupils that do not -English-medium

As noted earlier in this chapter, very few English-medium pupils identified themselves as being bilingual (see section 7.4 above). The following analysis presents the response patterns of those who identified as being bilingual (shown in a green coloured font) and those that did not (shown in pink font) for each attitude statement. A total of 32 pupils from all English-medium schools noted that they did think that they are bilingual, while 148 pupils did not.

Table 11: Comparison of attitudes by bilingual identity

|  | Strongly Agree | Agree <br> Somewhat | No Opinion | Somewhat <br> Disagree | Strongly <br> Disagree |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Learning Welsh is <br> important to me | $26 \%$ <br> $(n=8)$ | $29 \%$ <br> $(n=9)$ | $19 \%$ <br> $(n=6)$ | $13 \%$ <br> $(n=4)$ | $13 \%$ <br> $(n=4)$ |

[^19]| $\begin{aligned} & \text { x2 (4, n =179), 5.611, P } \\ & >.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 11 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=16) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 43 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=64) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 21 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=31) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 12 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=18) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 13 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=19) \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| I Want to be fluent in Welsh $\begin{aligned} & \text { x2 (4, } n=177), 9.301, p \\ & >.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 37 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=11) \\ & 15 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=22) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 30 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=9) \\ & 27 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=40) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 13 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=4) \\ & 21 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=31) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 13 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=4) \\ & 21 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=31) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 7 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & 16 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=23) \end{aligned}$ |
| Enough is being done in school to support the use of Welsh $\begin{aligned} & \text { x2 }(4, n=178), 4.574, p \\ & >.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 26 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=8) \\ & 13 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=19) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 48 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=15) \\ & 47 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=69) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 23 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=7) \\ & 31 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=46) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 3 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & 7 \% \\ & (n=11) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & 1 \% \\ & (n=2) \end{aligned}$ |
| The Welsh language is a part of my identity $\begin{aligned} & x 2(4, n=179), 25.860 \\ & p<.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 42 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=13) \\ & 9 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=13) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 6 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & 31 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=46) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 23 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=7) \\ & 25 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=37) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 10 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=3) \\ & 16 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=23) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 19 \% \\ & (n=6) \\ & 20 \% \\ & (n=29) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| The Welsh language is an important part of Welsh culture $\begin{aligned} & x^{2}(4, n=180), 7.354, p \\ & >.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 63 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=20) \\ & 51 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=76) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 13 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=4) \\ & 25 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=37) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 25 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=8) \\ & 14 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=21) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & 4 \% \\ & (n=6) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & 5 \% \\ & (n=8) \end{aligned}$ |
| I Don't see the relevance of Welsh to everyday life $\begin{aligned} & x 2(4, n=179), 12.249 \\ & p<.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 6 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & 10 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=14) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 28 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=9) \\ & 19 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=28) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 19 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=6) \\ & 42 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=62) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 19 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=6) \\ & 20 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=29) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 28 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=9) \\ & 10 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=14) \end{aligned}$ |
| Being able to speak Welsh would be useful for my future $\begin{aligned} & \text { x2 }(4, n=179), 6.287, p \\ & <.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 34 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=11) \\ & 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=27) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 28 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=9) \\ & 35 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=51) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 25 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=8) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=48) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 9 \% \\ & (n=3) \\ & 5 \% \\ & (n=7) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 3 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & 10 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=14) \end{aligned}$ |
| I feel nervous when speaking Welsh $\begin{aligned} & \text { x2 }(4, n=179), 4.424, p \\ & >.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 16 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=5) \\ & 14 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=20) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 25 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=8) \\ & 36 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=53) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 19 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=6) \\ & 27 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=39) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 22 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=7) \\ & 13 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=19) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 19 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=6) \\ & 11 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=16) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| It's easier to get a job if you can speak Welsh $\begin{aligned} & \text { x2 (4, } n=177), 3.961, p \\ & >.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 27 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=8) \\ & 17 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=25) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 30 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=9) \\ & 27 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=40) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 17 \% \\ & (n=5) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (n=49) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 17 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=5) \\ & 12 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=18) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 10 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=3) \\ & 10 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=15) \end{aligned}$ |
| Communicating in Welsh is fun $\begin{aligned} & x 2(4, n=178), 5.173, p \\ & >.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 22 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=7) \\ & 11 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=16) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 28 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=9) \\ & 21 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=30) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 22 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=7) \\ & 36 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=52) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 13 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=4) \\ & 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=27) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 16 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=5) \\ & 14 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=21) \end{aligned}$ |
| I feel that the Welsh language is enforced on me $\begin{aligned} & \text { x2 }(4, n=176), 2.492, p \\ & >.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 13 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=4) \\ & 12 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=18) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & l 9 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=6) \\ & 26 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=37) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 38 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=12) \\ & 41 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=59) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 13 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=4) \\ & 14 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=20) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 16 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=5) \\ & 8 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=11) \end{aligned}$ |
| Speaking Welsh makes me feel proud $\begin{aligned} & x 2(4, n=178), 3.309, p \\ & >.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 25 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=8) \\ & 14 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=20) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 25 \% \\ & (n=8) \\ & 31 \% \\ & (n=45) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 31 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=10) \\ & 34 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=49) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 13 \% \\ & (n=4) \\ & 10 \% \\ & (n=15) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 6 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & 12 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=17) \end{aligned}$ |
| I enjoy experiencing Welsh culture at places like the Eisteddfod $\begin{aligned} & x^{2}(4, n=2.850), 2.850, \\ & p>.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 26 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=8) \\ & 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=26) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 42 \% \\ & (n=13) \\ & 35 \% \\ & (n=51) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 23 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=7) \\ & 29 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=43) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 3 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & 9 \% \\ & (n=13) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 6 \% \\ & (n=2) \\ & 9 \% \\ & (n=13) \end{aligned}$ |

$\left.\begin{array}{|l|l|l|l|l|l|}\hline \text { I feel like I need the } & 19 \% & 19 \% & 28 \% & 22 \% & 13 \% \\ \text { Welsh language } \\ \text { X2 (4, } n=179), 6.719, p & 5 \% & (n=6) & (n=9) & (n=7) & (n=4) \\ >.05\end{array}\right)$

When comparing pupils that identified as being bilingual with those that did not?, significance was found in regards to the following four statements: 'The Welsh language is a part of my identity', 'Being able to speak Welsh would be beneficial for my future', 'I'm happy that I know enough Welsh for what I need' and 'I don't see the relevance of Welsh to everyday life'. 'Welsh language is a part of my identity' is an example where although a similar percentage of pupils on both sides of the comparison agree with the statement to some extent, pupils that identify as being bilingual agree more strongly ( $42 \%$ compared to $9 \%$ ) while pupils who don't identify as being bilingual just agree ( $31 \%$ compared to $6 \%$ ). The same pattern could be seen with the 'Being able to speak Welsh would be beneficial for my future' with the pupils that feel bilingual strongly agreeing to the statement (35\% compared to 12\%), and the pupils that don't feel bilingual agreeing ( $35 \%$ compared to $28 \%$ ) to the statement. Again, the same pattern could be seen in 'I'm happy that I know enough Welsh for what I need'. The pupils who say that they are bilingual strongly agreed ( $35 \%$ compared to $12 \%$ ), while the not bilingual pupils agree ( $35 \%$ compared to 29\%). The pupils who identify as being bilingual also showed positive attitudes in the last statement that had a significance, 'I don’t see relevance of Welsh to everyday life'. $28 \%$ of the bilingual pupils strongly disagreed to this statement while $10 \%$ of the pupils that don't find themselves to be bilingual also strongly disagreed. The
pupils who don't feel that they are bilingual had a much stronger sense of not having an opinion as $42 \%$ (compared to 19\%) of them chose 'no opinion'.

Despite not showing a significance, differences could be seen with pupils that identify as being bilingual displaying more positive attitudes towards statements such as 'I'd like to help younger children to learn Welsh', 'I feel like I need the Welsh language' and 'speaking Welsh makes me feel proud' amongst others than pupils that don't identify as being bilingual. This shows that those who feel ownership of the language and apply it to themselves are more likely to have a positive attitude towards it than the pupils who don't feel as if they identify with the language.

### 7.7.7 Difference between L1 and L2 pupils - Welsh-medium

The following set of analyses explore whether there was a difference in attitude depending on whether the pupils were L1 Welsh speakers, L1 English speakers or felt equally proficient in both Welsh and English. In the Welsh-medium schools, the L1 Welsh (L1 W) speakers are highlighted in red, L1 English speakers (L1 E) in lilac, and L1 Welsh and English (L1 W\&E) in green. 102 of the pupils were L1 speakers, 182 speakers were L1 English speakers and 6 pupils were Welsh and English equal speakers. All of the L1 W\&E stated that they do consider themselves to be bilingual, while 90\% of the L1 W and 92\% of the L1 E also stated that they did.

Table 12: Comparison of attitudes by first language (Welsh-medium schools)

|  | Strongly <br> Agree | Agree <br> Somewhat | No Opinion | Somewhat <br> Disagree | Strongly <br> Disagree |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Talking Welsh is important | $66 \%$ | $29 \%$ | $2 \%$ | $1 \%$ | $2 \%$ |
| to me | $(n=67)$ | $(n=29)$ | $(n=2)$ | $(n=1)$ | $(n=2)$ |
| $x 2(8, n=289), 54.084, p<$ | $26 \%$ | $50 \%$ | $18 \%$ | $4 \%$ | $1 \%$ |
| .05 | $(n=47)$ | $(n=91)$ | $(n=36)$ | $(n=7)$ | $(n=1)$ |
|  | $66 \%$ | $33 \%$ | $0 \%$ | $0 \%$ | $0 \%$ |
|  | $(n=4)$ | $(n=2)$ | $(n=0)$ | $(n=0)$ | $(n=0)$ |
| Enough is being done in | $48 \%$ | $42 \%$ | $4 \%$ | $5 \%$ | $2 \%$ |
| school to support the use | $(n=48)$ | $(n=42)$ | $(n=4)$ | $(n=5)$ | $(n=2)$ |
| of Welsh | $46 \%$ | $37 \%$ | $13 \%$ | $3 \%$ | $1 \%$ |
| $x 2(8, n=289), 14.078, p>$ | $(n=84)$ | $(n=68)$ | $(n=23)$ | $(n=5)$ | $(n=2)$ |
| .05 | $83 \%$ | $0 \%$ | $0 \%$ | $17 \%$ | $0 \%$ |
|  | $(n=5)$ | $(n=0)$ | $(n=0)$ | $(n=1)$ | $(n=0)$ |


| The Welsh language is a part of my identity $x^{2}(8, n=284), 64.577, p<$ $.05$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 64 \% \\ & (n=63) \\ & 20 \% \\ & (n=36) \\ & 83 \% \\ & (n=5) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=27) \\ & 48 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=86) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 5 \% \\ & (n=5) \\ & 21 \% \\ & (n=37) \\ & 17 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 1 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & 9 \% \\ & (n=17) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 3 \% \\ & (n=3) \\ & 2 \% \\ & (n=3) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| The Welsh language is an important part of Welsh culture $\begin{aligned} & \text { x2 }(8, n=81), 13.302, p> \\ & .05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 74 \% \\ & (n=73) \\ & 56 \% \\ & (n=99) \\ & 100 \% \\ & (n=6) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 20 \% \\ & (n=20) \\ & 28 \% \\ & (n=50) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 4 \% \\ & (n=4) \\ & 11 \% \\ & (n=20) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 1 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & 3 \% \\ & (n=5) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 1 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & 1 \% \\ & (n=2) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| I Don't see the relevance of Welsh to everyday life x2 (8, $n=282$ ), 20.931, $p<$ .05 | $\begin{aligned} & 7 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=7) \\ & 10 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=18) \\ & 11 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 16 \% \\ & (n=16) \\ & 23 \% \\ & (n=41) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 15 \% \\ & (n=15) \\ & 31 \% \\ & (n=56) \\ & 17 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 24 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=23) \\ & 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=32) \\ & 28 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 37 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=36) \\ & 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=32) \\ & 44 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| Being able to speak Welsh would be useful for my future $x^{2}(8, n=288), 16.764, p<$ $.05$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 69 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=70) \\ & 53 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=96) \\ & 72 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=4) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 27 \% \\ & (n=27) \\ & 29 \% \\ & (n=53) \\ & 11 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2 \% \\ & (n=2) \\ & 8 \% \\ & (n=15) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & 6 \% \\ & (n=11) \\ & 17 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 2 \% \\ & (n=2) \\ & 3 \% \\ & (n=6) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| I feel nervous when speaking Welsh X2 (8, $n=288), 36.901, p<$ .05 | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 7 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=7) \\ & 13 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=24) \\ & 11 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 7 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=7) \\ & 24 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=44) \\ & 11 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 7 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=7) \\ & 10 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=19) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 17 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=17) \\ & 25 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=46) \\ & 28 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 62 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=62) \\ & 27 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=49) \\ & 50 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| It's easier to get a job if you can speak Welsh x2 (8, n = 287), 11.492, p > .05 | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 46 \% \\ & (n=46) \\ & 35 \% \\ & (n=9) \\ & 89 \% \\ & (n=5) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 36 \% \\ & (n=36) \\ & 8 \% \\ & (n=15) \\ & 11 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 15 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=15) \\ & 16 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=28) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=59) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 2 \% \\ & (n=2) \\ & 38 \% \\ & (n=69) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| Communicating in Welsh is fun $x^{2}(8, n=284), 33.847, p<$ $.05$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 49 \% \\ & (n=49) \\ & 22 \% \\ & (n=40) \\ & 66 \% \\ & (n=4) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 37 \% \\ & (n=37) \\ & 36 \% \\ & (n=64) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (n=2) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 9 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=9) \\ & 30 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=54) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 3 \% \\ & (n=3) \\ & 7 \% \\ & (n=13) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{\|l} \hline 2 \% \\ (n=2) \\ 4 \% \\ (n=7) \\ 0 \% \\ (n=0) \\ \hline \end{array}$ |
| I feel that the Welsh language is enforced on me $x^{2}(8, n=272), 14.104, p>$ $.05$ | $\begin{aligned} & 15 \% \\ & (n=14) \\ & 10 \% \\ & (n=17) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 22 \% \\ & (n=21) \\ & 28 \% \\ & (n=49) \\ & 28 \% \\ & (n=2) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=25) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=57) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 15 \% \\ & (n=14) \\ & 19 \% \\ & (n=32) \\ & 22 \% \\ & (n=2) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 21 \% \\ & (n=20) \\ & 10 \% \\ & (n=17) \\ & 50 \% \\ & (n=2) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| Speaking Welsh makes me feel proud x2 (8. n = 275), 26.603, p < .05 | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 69 \% \\ & (n=66) \\ & 39 \% \\ & (n=68) \\ & 83 \% \\ & (n=5) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 23 \% \\ & (n=22) \\ & 39 \% \\ & (n=68) \\ & 17 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 7 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=7) \\ & 15 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=26) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & 5 \% \\ & (n=9) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 1 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & 1 \% \\ & (n=2) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |


| I enjoy experiencing Welsh culture at places like the Eisteddfod $\begin{aligned} & \text { x2 (10, } n=268), 33.990, p \\ & <.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 37 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=34) \\ & 17 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=28) \\ & 55 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=3) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 29 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=27) \\ & 16 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=27) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 25 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=23) \\ & 44 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=74) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 5 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=5) \\ & 11 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=18) \\ & 11 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 4 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=4) \\ & 13 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=21) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| I feel like I need the Welsh language $\begin{aligned} & x 2(10, n=276), 66.132, p \\ & <.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 28 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=27) \\ & 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=32) \\ & 28 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 23 \% \\ & (n=22) \\ & 34 \% \\ & (n=59) \\ & 11 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 12 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=12) \\ & 20 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=34) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 8 \% \\ & (n=8) \\ & 16 \% \\ & (n=27) \\ & 17 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 29 \% \\ & (n=28) \\ & 12 \% \\ & (n=21) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| Learning languages like French is more important to me $x 2(8, n=272), 12.947, p>$ . 05 | $\begin{aligned} & 7 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=7) \\ & 13 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=23) \\ & 11 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 23 \% \\ & (n=22) \\ & 20 \% \\ & (n=35) \\ & 28 \% \\ & (n=2) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 15 \% \\ & (n=14) \\ & 28 \% \\ & (n=49) \\ & 28 \% \\ & (n=2) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 31 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=29) \\ & 21 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=36) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 23 \% \\ & (n=22) \\ & 17 \% \\ & (n=29) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| I'm happy that I know enough Welsh for what I need $x^{2}(8, n=275), 15.877, p<$ $.05$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 57 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=55) \\ & 38 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=66) \\ & 83 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=5) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 34 \% \\ & (n=33) \\ & 42 \% \\ & (n=73) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 5 \% \\ & (n=5) \\ & 13 \% \\ & (n=22) \\ & 17 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 2 \% \\ & (n=2) \\ & 5 \% \\ & (n=9) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 1 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & 2 \% \\ & (n=3) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| I'd like to help younger children to learn Welsh X2 ( $8, \mathrm{n}=274$ ), 21.597, $\mathrm{p}<$ .05 | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 55 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=52) \\ & 32 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=56) \\ & 83 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=5) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 23 \% \\ & (n=22) \\ & 29 \% \\ & (n=51) \\ & 17 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 13 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=12) \\ & 24 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=41) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 8 \% \\ & (n=8) \\ & 8 \% \\ & (n=13) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 1 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & 7 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=12) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |

In a comparison of pupils from L1 English homes and L1 Welsh homes, significance was found between them in all statements but 5 . The statements include 'Learning languages like French is more important to me', 'I feel that the Welsh language is enforced on me', 'It's easier to get a job if you can speak Welsh', ‘The Welsh language is an important part of Welsh culture' and 'Enough is being done in school to support the use of Welsh'. Despite not having significances, a difference can be seen in terms of percentages in a couple of these 5 statements, with 45\% (compared to $35 \%$ of the English L1s) of Welsh L1s strongly agreeing that it's easier to get a job. 74\% (compared to 56\%) of the Welsh L1s strongly agreed that the Welsh language is an important part of Welsh culture. The majority of the statements did show significances, meaning that the pupils' home language has an effect on their attitudes towards the Welsh language. These figures show that the pupils that are L1 Welsh have a more positive attitude towards the language. While there are too
many examples to discuss each one, some cases that illustrate this is 55\% (compared to $32 \%$ ) of the L1 Welsh pupils strongly agreeing that they would like to help younger children to learn Welsh, $37 \%$ (compared to 17\%) of the Welsh L1s strongly agree that they enjoy experiencing Welsh culture, $64 \%$ (compared to 20\%) of the Welsh L1s strongly agreeing that Welsh is a part of their identity and 49\% of the Welsh L1s strongly agreeing that communicating in Welsh is fun compared to $22 \%$ of the English L1s.

### 7.7.8 Difference between L1 and L2 pupils - Bilingual schools

Similarly to the above section that compares L1 and L2 pupils in Welsh-medium schools, this section does the same with pupils from bilingual schools. Of the 99 pupils in the bilingual schools, 84 stated that their first language was English, 11 stated that Welsh was their first language, and 3 pupils stated that they felt that Welsh and English were both equal.

Table 13: Comparison of attitudes by first language (bilingual schools)

|  | Strongly Agree | Agree Somewhat | No Opinion | Somewhat Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Learning Welsh is important to me $\begin{aligned} & \text { x2 (8, n = 99), 13.606, p } \\ & >.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 64 \% \\ & (n=7) \\ & 27 \% \\ & (n=23) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 27 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=3) \\ & 47 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=40) \\ & 67 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & 13 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=11) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{\|l} \hline 0 \% \\ (n=0) \\ 12 \% \\ (n=10) \\ 0 \% \\ (n=0) \\ \hline \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 9 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & 1 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| I Want to be fluent in Welsh $\begin{aligned} & \text { x2 }(8, n=99), 11.364, p \\ & >.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 64 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=7) \\ & 28 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=24) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & 38 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=32) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & 19 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=16) \\ & 67 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{\|l} \hline 0 \% \\ (n=0) \\ 9 \% \\ (n=8) \\ 0 \% \\ (n=0) \\ \hline \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & 6 \% \\ & (n=5) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| Enough is being done in school to support the use of Welsh $\begin{aligned} & \text { x2 }(8, n=99) 14.796, p \\ & >.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 55 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=6) \\ & 41 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=35) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \% \\ & (n=3) \\ & 29 \% \\ & (n=25) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=15) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{\|l} \hline 0 \% \\ (n=0) \\ 9 \% \\ (n=8) \\ 33 \% \\ (n=1) \\ \hline \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & 2 \% \\ & (n=2) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| The Welsh language is a part of my identity $\begin{aligned} & \text { x2 (8, n = 98), 10.744, p } \\ & >.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 64 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=7) \\ & 24 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=20) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 27 \% \\ & (n=3) \\ & 37 \% \\ & (n=31) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 9 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & 19 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=16) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{\|l} \hline 0 \% \\ (n=0) \\ 5 \% \\ (n=4) \\ 0 \% \\ (n=0) \\ \hline \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & 15 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=13) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |


| The Welsh language is an important part of Welsh culture $\begin{aligned} & x 2(8, n=97), 2.543, p \\ & >.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 73 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=8) \\ & 65 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=54) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & 19 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=16) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 9 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & 12 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=10) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & 3 \% \\ & (n=2) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & 1 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| I Don't see the relevance of Welsh to everyday life $\begin{aligned} & x 2(8, n=97), 7.240, p \\ & >.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 9 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & 8 \% \\ & (n=7) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & 23 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=19) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 36 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=4) \\ & 35 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=29) \\ & 67 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 37 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=4) \\ & 16 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=13) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=15) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| Being able to speak Welsh would be useful for my future $\begin{aligned} & \text { x2 }(8, n=97), 2.512, p \\ & >.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 40 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=4) \\ & 48 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=40) \\ & 67 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 30 \% \\ & (n=3) \\ & 25 \% \\ & (n=21) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 20 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & 14 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=12) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & 7 \% \\ & (n=6) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 10 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & 6 \% \\ & (n=5) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| I feel nervous when speaking Welsh $\begin{aligned} & x 2(8, n=98), 4.613, p \\ & >.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & 14 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=12) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & 39 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=33) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 27 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=3) \\ & 13 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=11) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & 19 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=16) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & 14 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=12) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| It's easier to get a job if you can speak Welsh x2 (8, n = 98), 7.816, p $>.05$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 82 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=9) \\ & 42 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=35) \\ & 67 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 9 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & 30 \% \\ & (n=25) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 9 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & 13 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=11) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & 8 \% \\ & (n=7) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & 7 \% \\ & (n=6) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| Communicating in Welsh is fun $\begin{aligned} & \text { x2 }(8, n=98), 16.359, p \\ & <.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 27 \% \\ & (n=3) \\ & 7 \% \\ & (n=6) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 27 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=3) \\ & 25 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=21) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 45 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=5) \\ & 27 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=23) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & 21 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=18) \\ & 67 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & 19 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=16) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| I feel that the Welsh language is enforced on me $\begin{aligned} & x 2(8, n=98), 10.605, p \\ & >.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \% \\ & (n=3) \\ & 11 \% \\ & (n=9) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & 21 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=18) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 45 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=5) \\ & 32 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=27) \\ & 67 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & 19 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=16) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=3) \\ & 17 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=14) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| Speaking Welsh makes me feel proud $\begin{aligned} & x 2(8, n=97), 12.158, p \\ & >.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 64 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=7) \\ & 28 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=23) \\ & 67 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=3) \\ & 37 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=31) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 9 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & 19 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=16) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & 8 \% \\ & (n=7) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & 7 \% \\ & (n=6) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| I enjoy experiencing Welsh culture at places like the Eisteddfod $x 2(8, n=99), 6.379, p$ $>.05$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 36 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=4) \\ & 19 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=16) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 36 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=4) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=28) \\ & 67 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 27 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=3) \\ & 27 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=23) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & 13 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=11) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & 8 \% \\ & (n=7) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| I feel like I need the Welsh language | $\begin{aligned} & 55 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=6) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 9 \% \\ & (n=1) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 36 \% \\ & (n=4) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \end{aligned}$ |


| $\begin{aligned} & \text { x2 (8, n = 99), 9.174, p } \\ & >.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 24 \% \\ & (n=20) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=28) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 22 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=19) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 11 \% \\ & (n=9) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 11 \% \\ & (n=9) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Learning languages like French is more important to me $\begin{aligned} & \text { x2 }(8, n=98), 16.808, p \\ & <.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 27 \% \\ & (n=3) \\ & 10 \% \\ & (n=8) \\ & 67 \% \\ & (n=2) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & 10 \% \\ & (n=8) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & 30 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=25) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 36 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=4) \\ & 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=15) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 36 \% \\ & (n=4) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (n=28) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (n=1) \end{aligned}$ |
| I'm happy that I know enough Welsh for what I need $\begin{aligned} & x 2(8, n=98), 9.876, p \\ & >.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 64 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=7) \\ & 37 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=31) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & 44 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=37) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 9 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & 6 \% \\ & (n=5) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 9 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & 10 \% \\ & (n=8) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & 4 \% \\ & (n=3) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| I'd like to help younger children to learn Welsh $\begin{aligned} & \text { x2 }(8, n=99), 4.542, p \\ & >.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 45 \% \\ & (n=5) \\ & 20 \% \\ & (n=17) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & 27 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=23) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 18 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=2) \\ & 29 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=25) \\ & 33 \% \\ & (\mathrm{n}=1) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 9 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & 10 \% \\ & (n=8) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 9 \% \\ & (n=1) \\ & 14 \% \\ & (n=12) \\ & 0 \% \\ & (n=0) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |

Unlike with the Welsh-medium schools, significance between the pupils' first language was only found in two of the statements. In the first of those statements, 'Communicating in Welsh is fun', 27\% (compared to 7\% of the English L1s) of the Welsh L1s strongly agreed. A similar pattern is seen in the second of those statements, 'Learning languages such as French is more important to me' with $27 \%$ (compared to $10 \%$ ) of the Welsh L1s strongly agreeing to the statement. Despite not showing significances, perhaps because of the role of the L1 English and Welsh equally pupils in the statistical tests, large differences can be seen between the L1 Welsh and L1 English pupils in terms of the percentages. One example is the 'I'd like to help younger children to learn Welsh' statement, where 45\% (compared to 20\%) of the Welsh L1 pupils has strongly agreed. A similar situation can also be seen in the 'I'm happy that I know enough Welsh for what I need' statement, where 64\% (compared to 27\%) of the Welsh L1 pupils strongly agreed, 64\% (compared to 28\%) of the Welsh L1s strongly agreed that speaking Welsh makes them feel proud and $55 \%$ (compared to $24 \%$ ) of the Welsh L1 pupils strongly agreed that they need the Welsh language. Despite this, more Welsh L1 pupils thought that learning other languages were more important than learning Welsh (27\%) compared to the English

L1 pupils (10\%), however their abilities in Welsh may make them feel as if they don't need to learn Welsh, as they already speak the language.

### 7.7.9 Correlations

In order to explore potential links between various types of attitudes, a Pearson's two-tailed correlational analysis was applied to the data. This was done in order to explore whether there were any negative or positive correlations between the various aspects of attitudes. The results are displayed in Table 14.

Table 14: Correlations of attitudes

|  |  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Learning Welsh is important to me | Pearson <br> Correlation |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| (1) | Sig. (2-tailed) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | $N$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| I want to be fluent in Welsh (2) | Pearson <br> Correlation | .681** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | . 000 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | $N$ | 288 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Enough is done to <br> support the use of | Pearson <br> Correlation | .275** | . 007 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Welsh in school (3) | Sig. (2-tailed) | . 000 | . 899 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | 578 | 287 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Welsh is a part of my identity (4) | Pearson <br> Correlation | .725** | .573** | .298** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Sig. (2-tailed) | . 000 | . 000 | . 000 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | $N$ | 573 | 287 | 572 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Pearson <br> Correlation | .517** | .442** | .276** | .482** |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |




| Languages like <br> French are more | Pearson <br> Correlation | .201** | .210** | . 003 | .204** | .147** | .303** | .236** | .133** | .182** | .095* | .257** | .135** | . 012 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { I- } \\ & .011^{* *} \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| important (15) | Sig. (2-tailed) | . 000 | . 000 | . 938 | . 000 | . 001 | . 000 | . 000 | . 002 | . 000 | . 025 | . 000 | . 001 | . 772 | . 793 |  |  |  |
|  | N | 559 | 285 | 558 | 555 | 553 | 552 | 557 | 558 | 555 | 553 | 554 | 556 | 552 | 560 |  |  |  |
| I'm happy that I know enough | Pearson <br> Correlation | .331** | .191** | .291** | .303** | .239** | . 015 | .338** | .125** | .307** | .282** | -. 049 | .364** | .184** | .238** | -.096* |  |  |
| Welsh for what I | Sig. (2-tailed) | . 000 | . 001 | . 000 | . 000 | . 000 | . 725 | . 000 | . 003 | . 000 | . 000 | . 246 | . 000 | . 000 | . 000 | . 024 |  |  |
| need (16) | N | 562 | 285 | 561 | 557 | 554 | 554 | 558 | 560 | 557 | 555 | 554 | 558 | 553 | 562 | 557 |  |  |
| I'd like to help younger children | Pearson <br> Correlation | .524** | .457** | .123** | .485** | .298** | .211** | .434** | .128** | .331** | .537** | . 042 | .573** | .493** | .358** | . 005 | .319** |  |
| speak Welsh (17) | Sig. (2-tailed) | . 000 | . 000 | . 004 | . 000 | . 000 | . 000 | . 000 | . 002 | . 000 | . 000 | . 328 | . 000 | . 000 | . 000 | . 908 | . 000 |  |
|  | N | 561 | 285 | 560 | 556 | 553 | 553 | 557 | 559 | 556 | 554 | 553 | 557 | 552 | 561 | 557 | 560 |  |

Of the 136 correlations analysed, all but 20 showed significance (highlighted in table 15):
Table 15: Significances in the correlations:

|  | I want to be fluent in Welsh (2) | Enough is done to support the use of Welsh in school (3) | Welsh is a part of my identity <br> (4) | Welsh is a <br> part of <br> the Welsh <br> culture (5) | I don't see the relevance of Welsh to everyday life (6) | Speaking <br> Welsh <br> makes it <br> easier to get <br> a job (9) | Communi cating in Welsh is fun (10) | Speaking Welsh makes me feel proud (12) | I enjoy experiencing Welsh culture (13) | I feel like I need Welsh (14) | Languages like French are more important (15) | I'm happy that I know enough Welsh for what I need (16) | I'd like to help younger children speak Welsh (17) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Enough is being done to support the use of Welsh in school (3) | . 899 |  |  |  | . 118 |  |  |  |  |  | . 938 |  |  |
| I feel nervous when speaking Welsh (8) | . 603 |  |  |  |  | . 624 |  |  | . 106 | . 750 |  |  |  |
| I feel that Welsh is enforced on me (11) |  | . 609 | . 085 | . 785 |  | . 159 | . 550 | . 542 | . 878 |  |  | . 246 | . 328 |
| Languages like French are more important (15) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | . 772 | . 793 |  |  | . 908 |
| I'm happy that I know enough Welsh for what I need (16) |  |  |  |  | . 725 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Nearly half ( $\mathrm{n}=9$ ) of the correlations that showed a significance involved the 'I feel that Welsh is enforced on me', with 'languages like French are more important', 'enough being done to support the use of Welsh in school' and 'I feel nervous when speaking Welsh showing three significances each, and 'I'm happy that I know enough Welsh for what I need' also showing one significance. This demonstrates that these statements have a high probability that these corrolations had not happened by coinicidence, and that there is a high proportion of the responses that display similar patterns.

Six of the tests highlighted a negative correlation (highlighted in blue in table 14), meaning that as one variable increases, the other decreases.

1. I don't see the relevance of Welsh to everyday life vs Enough is done to support the use of Welsh in school $r=-.066$
2. I feel that Welsh is enforced on me vs enough is done to support the use of Welsh in school $r=-.022$
3. I feel like I need the Welsh language vs I feel that Welsh is enforced on mer =-.149**
4. Languages like French are more important vs I feel like I need the Welsh language $r=-.011^{* *}$
5. I'm happy that I know enough Welsh for what I need vs I feel that Welsh is enforced on mer $=-.049$
6. I'm happy that I know enough Welsh for what I need vs Languages like French are more important to me $r=-.096$

The remainder of the tests that were undertaken displayed positive correlations. Although many were weaker correlations that others, four displayed strong positive correlations with results over 650 (see Table 14), suggesting that the notion of identity, the importance placed on the langauge, and whether one feels proud to be a speaker are strongly related:

1. Welsh is a part of my identity vs Learning Welsh is important to me $r=.725^{* *}$
2. I want to be fluent in Welsh vs Learning Welsh is important to mer = .681**
3. Speaking Welsh makes me feel proud vs Learning Welsh is important to mer=.692**
4. Speaking Welsh makes me feel proud vs Welsh is a part of my identity $r=.681$

### 7.8 Summary

These results highlighted a number of interesting aspects of the pupils' relationship with the Welsh language. First, only 16\% of pupils in English-medium schools identified as being bilingual. This pattern was specific to English-medium schools since the majority of pupils in Welsh-medium and bilingual schools did think of themselves as bilingual. Second, pupils who did identify as being bilingual tended to hold more positive attitudes towards the language, suggesting that individuals' sense of belonging or having ownership of the language is important.

Third, 72\% of the pupils in English-medium schools claimed to hear Welsh outside the Welsh lesson. However, and in line with the results presented in Chapter 6, only $33 \%$ themselves use it outside the classroom, and in this instance, many of the examples only include basic utterances such as 'yma' when answering the questions.

Fourth, pupils who enjoyed Welsh lessons were more likely to use Welsh outside the Welsh lessons. It is therefore vital that Welsh is made to be attractive for pupils and that they see learning Welsh as a benefit rather than a compulsory activity that they must take part in while in school.

Although generally there was not much differences between males and females across all schools in terms of attitudes, pupils in Welsh-medium schools had a much more positive attitude towards the language than those in English-medium schools. That said, pupils attending Welsh-medium schools who came from Welsh speaking homes tended to show a more positive attitude than pupils who spoke English at home suggesting that the home language environment holds a strong hold over pupils' attitudes.

Finally, in terms of confidence, pupils in English-medium schools were less confident in speaking Welsh than pupils in Welsh-medium schools, and vice versa with English (although the gap was much smaller between both types of schools). Despite this, it
did appear that the pupils in English schools did feel that their Welsh had improved since being in secondary school, which is a positive suggestion that they feel a progression in their abilities and confidence.

Elements of these results reflect what was seen during the observations in the previous study. For example, when the pupils were asked to state examples of the Welsh they hear outside their Welsh lessons, they noted examples that reflected the examples seen during the observations such as words and sentences during the framing of the lesson and when the teacher attempts to manage the behaviour of the classroom. These results also revealed that the confidence shown by the pupils in English-medium schools are much lower than the pupils in Welsh and bilingual schools, which could possibly explain why they feel reluctant to use Welsh themselves in their subject lessons. Their attitudes could also contribute to this, due to the fact that they realise the importance of Welsh, but don't apply that importance to their own wishes of wanting to learn and use Welsh. While this chapter explored the pupils' affective factors towards Welsh, the next chapter aims to considers the subject from the teachers' perspective.

## Chapter 8

## Chapter 8:

## Phase 2

## Study 3: Teacher Questionnaires

### 8.1 Introduction

Following the discovery made in Chapter 6 that the implementation of Cymraeg bob dydd was mostly basic or non-existent, Chapter 7 aimed to discover the pupils' opinions. This chapter explores this further by outlining the views held by the teachers that are expected to deliver the innovative. This is vital, not only in this research as a way of unearthing the reasons behind the basic/none-existent implementation of Cymraeg bob dydd, but it is also important in the Welsh context generally, as the Welsh Government struggle to ensure that there are enough teachers who are able to speak Welsh in the schools to be able to deliver the new curriculum, which has more emphasis on Welsh than ever before (Donaldson, 2015). This chapter will outline the results from the questionnaires that were sent to teachers in English-medium secondary schools in Wales.

### 8.2 Participants and procedure

An on-line questionnaire was created to capture certain trends in secondary teachers' Welsh language abilities, their Welsh language use, and Welsh language training needs. The questionnaire, along with a cover letter and a participant information sheet, was emailed to all English-medium schools in Wales. The questionnaire invited responses to a series of background questions (e.g. how long have they been teaching in Wales), followed by a series of language specific questions that were designed around four themes: (i) teachers' Welsh language abilities (e.g. what is your proficiency in Welsh?); (ii) their use of Welsh within their classrooms (e.g. do you use any Welsh in your lessons?); (iii) their confidence levels (e.g. how confident are you to use Welsh?); and, (iv) their training needs (e.g. What support, if any, do you get to develop your Welsh language skills and confidence?). The questionnaire contained a mixture of closed (yes/no, 6-point Likert Scale) and open questions.

All teachers who took part ( $\mathrm{n}=47$ ) were working in English-medium schools
anywhere in Wales. The majority of teachers originally came from Wales (75\%), with a minority coming from England (21\%) and only a small number (4\%) from outside the UK. Of the 47 questionnaires that were returned, the majority of teachers (67\%) worked in schools in north Wales, $19 \%$ in mid Wales, and $17 \%$ in south east Wales, and covered a wide breadth of subject fields, primarily mathematics and science (26\%) and language (24\%), but also humanities (15\%), arts (13\%), and 'other' (22\%). The sample contained teachers with a range of years of teaching experience, from 05 years' experience (24\%), to 6-10 years (21\%), 11-15 years (19\%), 16-20 years (21\%) to $20+$ years (15\%). Whilst the numbers of respondents were low due to low take-up rates of email surveys among schools, the patterns obtained within the sample are interesting and provide valuable insights alongside the data obtained from Phase 1 (Study 1) and Phase 2 (Study 2).

### 8.3 Questionnaire Results

### 8.3.1 Proficiency in Welsh

As noted above, almost all teachers who returned the questionnaires reported at least some basic level of Welsh. Only 2\% of the sample $(n=1)$ reported that they had no Welsh at all and no significance was noted when comparing teachers from different areas, subject areas etc in this section. Despite this, teachers from the South East of Wales reported the least proficiency, with only $13 \%$ noting that they were nearly fluent and 0\% noting that they were fluent, while teachers from North Wales and Mid Wales were similar in their percentages. In terms of subject areas, the arts teachers displayed the highest proficiency ( $16 \%$ nearly fluent and $50 \%$ fluent), with the languages ( $9 \%$ nearly fluent, and $0 \%$ fluent) and maths and science ( $8 \%$ fluent) teachers noting the least proficiency. As expected, the teachers who originated from Wales noted a higher level of proficiency with $6 \%$ saying that they are nearly fluent and $22 \%$ are fluent, compared to $0 \%$ in both categories by the teachers that are originally from England. When comparing the teachers in terms of how long they have been teaching in Wales, the teachers that have been teaching in Wales for 11-15 noted the highest proficiency (11\% nearly fluent and 33\% fluent), with teachers who had been teaching in Wales for a longer or shorter period noting less proficiency.

Table 16: Proficiency vs Local Authority

|  | None | Basic | Beginner | Inter | Nearly | Fluent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| North | $0 \%$ | $27 \%$ | $43 \%$ | $7 \%$ | $3 \%$ | $20 \%$ |
|  | $(n=0)$ | $(n=8)$ | $(n=13)$ | $(n=2)$ | $(n=1)$ | $(n=6)$ |
| Mid | $0 \%$ | $22 \%$ | $34 \%$ | $22 \%$ | $0 \%$ | $22 \%$ |
|  | $(n=0)$ | $(n=2)$ | $(n=3)$ | $(n=2)$ | $(n=0)$ | $(n=2)$ |
| South <br> East | $13 \%$ | $25 \%$ | $50 \%$ | $0 \%$ | $13 \%$ | $0 \%$ |
| $(n=1)$ | $(n=2)$ | $(n=4)$ | $(n=0)$ | $(n=1)$ | $(n=0)$ |  |

$X_{2}(10, n=47)=11.389, P>.05$.

Table 17: Proficiency vs subject area

|  | None | Basic | Beginner | Inter | Nearly | Fluent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Maths \& | $0 \%$ | $42 \%$ | $50 \%$ | $0 \%$ | $0 \%$ | $8 \%$ |
| Science | $(n=0)$ | $(n=5)$ | $(n=6)$ | $(n=0)$ | $(n=0)$ | $(n=1)$ |
| Humanities | $0 \%$ | $43 \%$ | $29 \%$ | $14 \%$ | $0 \%$ | $14 \%$ |
|  | $(n=0)$ | $(n=3)$ | $(n=2)$ | $(n=1)$ | $(n=0)$ | $(n=1)$ |
| Arts | $0 \%$ | $17 \%$ | $0 \%$ | $17 \%$ | $16 \%$ | $50 \%$ |
|  | $(n=0)$ | $(n=1)$ | $(n=0)$ | $(n=1)$ | $(n=1)$ | $(n=3)$ |
| Languages | $9 \%$ | $18 \%$ | $64 \%$ | $0 \%$ | $9 \%$ | $0 \%$ |
|  | $(n=1)$ | $(n=2)$ | $(n=7)$ | $(n=0)$ | $(n=1)$ | $(n=0)$ |
| Other | $0 \%$ | $10 \%$ | $50 \%$ | $10 \%$ | $0 \%$ | $30 \%$ |
| $(n=0)$ | $(n=2)$ | $(n=5)$ | $n=1)$ <br> $(n=0)$ |  |  |  |
| $(n=3)$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |

$X_{2}(20, n=46)=25.027, P>.05$

Table 18: Proficiency vs country of origin

|  | None | Basic | Beginner | Inter | Nearly | Fluent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Other | $0 \%$ | $50 \%$ | $0 \%$ | $50 \%$ | $0 \%$ | $0 \%$ |
| $(n=0)$ | $(n=1)$ | $(n=0)$ | $(n=1)$ | $(n=0)$ | $(n=0)$ |  |
| England | $0 \%$ | $40 \%$ | $60 \%$ | $0 \%$ | $0 \%$ | $0 \%$ |
|  | $(n=0)$ <br> $(n=4)$ | $(n=6)$ | $(n=0)$ | $(n=0)$ | $(n=0)$ |  |
| Wales | $3 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ | $20 \%$ <br> $(n=7)$ | $40 \%$ <br> $(n=14)$ | $9 \%$ <br> $(n=3)$ | $6 \%$ <br> $(n=2)$ | $22 \%$ <br> $(n=8)$ |

$X_{2}(10, n=47)=11.996, P>.05$.

Table 19: Proficiency vs years teaching

|  | None | Basic | Beginner | Inter | Nearly | Fluent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $0-5$ | $9 \%$ | $45 \%$ | $27 \%$ | $0 \%$ | $0 \%$ | $18 \%$ |
| $(n=1)$ | $(n=5)$ | $(n=3)$ | $(n=0)$ | $(n=0)$ | $(n=2)$ |  |
| $6-10$ | $0 \%$ | $0 \%$ | $70 \%$ | $10 \%$ | $0 \%$ | $20 \%$ |
| $(n=0)$ | $(n=0)$ | $(n=7)$ | $(n=1)$ | $(n=0)$ | $(n=2)$ |  |
| $11-15$ | $0 \%$ | $11 \%$ | $33 \%$ | $11 \%$ | $11 \%$ | $33 \%$ |
| $(n=0)$ | $(n=1)$ | $(n=3)$ | $(n=1)$ | $(n=1)$ | $(n=3)$ |  |
| $16-20$ | $0 \%$ | $50 \%$ | $30 \%$ | $10 \%$ | $10 \%$ | $0 \%$ |
| $(n=0)$ | $(n=5)$ | $(n=3)$ | $(n=1)$ | $(n=1)$ | $(n=0)$ |  |
| $20+$ | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ | $14 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ | $58 \%$ <br> $(n=4)$ | $14 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ | $14 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ |

$X_{2}(20, n=47)=21.731, P>.05$.

### 8.3.2 Confidence in using Welsh

Of the $85 \%(n=40)$ who reported that they did deliver some form of Welsh in their lessons, $32.5 \%(n=13)$ reported very little or no confidence in doing so, $37.5 \%(n=15)$ reported middling confidence, and only $30 \%$ ( $n=12$ ) reported that they were 'quite' or 'very' confident in doing so. Interestingly, the teachers from the South East who noted the least proficiency also display the lowest levels of confidence with only $12 \%$ noting that they are very confident and no-one noting that they are quite confident. $50 \%$ of the teachers from both North Wales and the South East noted that they had either no confidence or very little. Similarly, the languages and science and maths teachers also appeared to feel the least proficient, and they have also noted the lowest levels of confidence compared to the other subject areas, with $75 \%$ of the maths and science teachers stating that they had very little confidence and $27 \%$ of the languages teachers noting that they had no confidence and $36 \%$ noting that they had very little confidence. The arts teachers noted the highest levels of confidence with $66 \%$ stating that they felt very confident in using Welsh, while they were also the ones who noted the higher levels of proficiency in the previous section. A significance was found when comparing the subject areas, which confirms the
difference seen in the percentages. While there was not a large difference between those who originated from Wales and those who originated from England at the bottom of the confidence scale, the teachers from England reported a higher level of 'middling' confidence (50\%) while the teachers from Wales reported a higher level of high confidence (32\%). This should be expected, as the teachers whom originate from Wales are expected to have received some level of Welsh during their own schooling. Again, when comparing the teachers in terms of how long they had been teaching in Wales, the category that demonstrated the highest levels of proficiency in the previous section have also demonstrated the highest confidence levels with $44 \%$ of the teachers who have been teaching in Wales for 11-15 years noting that they were on the highest end of the scale.

Table 20: Confidence vs local authority

|  | No conf. | V. little | Middling | Quite | Very con. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| North | $3 \%$ | $43 \%$ | $27 \%$ | $10 \%$ | $17 \%$ |
|  | $(n=1)$ | $(n=13)$ | $(n=8)$ | $(n=3)$ | $(n=5)$ |
| Mid | $11 \%$ | $11 \%$ | $44 \%$ | $11 \%$ | $23 \%$ |
|  | $(n=1)$ | $(n=1)$ | $(n=4)$ | $(n=1)$ | $(n=2)$ |
| South <br> East | $25 \%$ | $25 \%$ | $38 \%$ | $0 \%$ | $12 \%$ |
| $(n=2)$ | $(n=2)$ | $(n=3)$ | $(n=0)$ | $(n=1)$ |  |

$X 2(8, n=47)=7.767, P>.05$

Table 21: Confidence vs subject
$\left.\begin{array}{|l|l|l|l|l|l|}\hline & \begin{array}{l}\text { No } \\ \text { confidence }\end{array} & \text { V. little } & \text { Middling } & \text { Quite } & \text { Very } \\ \hline \begin{array}{l}\text { Maths \& } \\ \text { Science }\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}0 \% \\ (n=0)\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}75 \% \\ (n=9)\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}17 \% \\ (n=2)\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}0 \% \\ (n=0)\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}8 \% \\ (n=1)\end{array} \\ \hline \text { Humanities } & \begin{array}{l}14 \% \\ (n=1)\end{array} & 29 \% & 29 \% & 14 \% & 14 \% \\ (n=2)\end{array}\right)$
$X_{2}(16, n=46)=35.022, P<0.5$

Table 22: Confidence vs country of origin

|  | No <br> confidence | V. little | Middling | Quite | Very |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Other | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ | $50 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ | $50 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ |
| England | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ | $40 \%$ <br> $(n=4)$ | $50 \%$ <br> $(n=5)$ | $10 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ |
| Wales | $11 \%$ <br> $(n=4)$ | $31 \%$ <br> $(n=11)$ | $26 \%$ <br> $(n=9)$ | $9 \%$ <br> $(n=3)$ | $23 \%$ <br> $(n=8)$ |

$X 2(8, n=47)=6.286, P>.05$
Table 23: Confidence vs years teaching

|  | No <br> confidence | V. little | Middling | Quite | Very |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $0-5$ | $18 \%$ <br> $(n=2)$ | $55 \%$ <br> $(n=6)$ | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ | $9 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ | $18 \%$ <br> $(n=2)$ |
| $6-10$ | $0 \%$ | $30 \%$ | $40 \%$ | $10 \%$ | $20 \%$ |
| $(n=0)$ | $(n=3)$ | $(n=4)$ | $(n=1)$ | $(n=2)$ |  |
| $11-15$ | $11 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ | $45 \%$ <br> $(n=4)$ | $11 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ | $33 \%$ <br> $(n=3)$ |
| $16-20$ | $10 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ | $40 \%$ <br> $(n=4)$ | $40 \%$ <br> $(n=4)$ | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ | $10 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ |
| $20+$ | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ | $43 \%$ <br> $(n=3)$ | $43 \%$ <br> $(n=3)$ | $14 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ |

$X^{2}(16, n=47)=16.289, P>.05$.

Beyond the descriptions of teachers' use of Welsh in the classroom, as noted above, one teacher mentioned their lack of confidence, particularly around making mistakes in front of pupils:
'Not confident and pupils pick up on any mistakes.'

In line with the previous literature outlining the links between selfcompetence and use (e.g. Mystkowska-Wiertelak \& Pawlak, 2017), one teacher mentioned their awareness of their limited knowledge of Welsh as a reason for their patterns of use:
'I don’t know enough to confidently use it'.

Such beliefs about one's abilities can limit the extent of Welsh one is able to or is willing to use, as a different teacher mentions:
'No more than that as I don't know more'.

### 8.3.3 Use of Welsh

$85 \%(n=40)$ of the teachers who responded to the questionnaire noted that they used Welsh in their lessons. Interestingly, all the teachers who noted that they didn't use Welsh in their lessons also noted that their proficiency levels were at the bottom of the scale, with none of the teachers stating that they had intermediate, nearly fluent or fluent levels in Welsh. Despite this, $35 \%$ of the teachers who do use Welsh did state that they have reached these levels of Welsh. The same can be applied to their confidence levels with all teachers who stated that they do not use Welsh in their classrooms also stated that they had either no confidence or very little confidence. $68 \%$ of the teachers who stated that they did use Welsh, also noted that they had midding, quite confident and very confident levels of confidence. However, when comparing teachers in terms of where in Wales they teach, there was no real difference. All of the humanities and 'other' subject teachers noted that they used Welsh in their lessons, while the languages teachers had the highest percentage of 'don't use Welsh' (36\%). Interestingly, the language teachers appeared to be less confident and proficient in Welsh than the other subject areas. When comparing teachers that have originated from different countries, the teachers who originate from Wales have the highest percentage (17\%) of teachers who don't use Welsh in their lessons. Again, following with the trend, all teachers who have been teaching in Wales for 11-15 years noted that they use Welsh in their lessons, while they were also the cohort with the highest levels of confidence and proficiency in Welsh. These results show that confidence and proficiency translates to use, and that the teachers who appear to be the most confident and proficient in using Welsh are more likely to use Welsh in their lessons.

Table 24: Proficiency vs use of Welsh

|  | None | Basic | Beginner | Intermediate | Nearly | Fluent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Doesn't <br> use <br> Welsh | $14 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ | $43 \%$ <br> $(n=3)$ | $43 \%$ <br> $(n=3)$ | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ |
| Does use <br> Welsh | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ | $23 \%$ <br> $(n=9)$ | $42 \%$ <br> $(n=17)$ | $10 \%$ <br> $(n=4)$ | $5 \%$ <br> $(n=2)$ | $20 \%$ <br> $(n=8)$ |

$X_{2}(5, n=47)=9.131, P>0.5$
Table 25: Confidence vs use of Welsh

|  | No <br> confidence | V. little | Middling | Quite | Very |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Doesn't <br> use Welsh | $14 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ | $86 \%$ <br> $(n=6)$ | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ |
| Does use <br> Welsh | $8 \%$ <br> $(n=3)$ | $24 \%$ <br> $(n=10)$ | $38 \%$ <br> $(n=15)$ | $10 \%$ <br> $(n=4)$ | $20 \%$ <br> $(n=8)$ |

$X_{2}(4, n=47)=11.498, P<.05$
Table 26: Local authority vs use of Welsh

|  | Doesn't use Welsh | Does use Welsh |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| North | $17 \%$ | $83 \%$ |
|  | $(n=5)$ | $(n=25)$ |
| Mid Wales | $11 \%$ | $89 \%$ |
|  | $(n=1)$ | $(n=8)$ |
| South East | $13 \%$ | $87 \%$ |
|  | $(n=1)$ | $(n=7)$ |

$X 2(2, n=47)=.212, P>.05$

Table 27: Subject area vs use of Welsh

|  | Doesn't use Welsh | Does use Welsh |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Maths \& science | $17 \%$ | $83 \%$ |
|  | $(n=2)$ | $100 \%$ |
| $(n=10)$ |  |  |
| Humanities | $0 \%$ | $83 \%$ |
|  | $(n=0)$ | $17 \%$ |
| $(n=5)$ |  |  |
| Arts | $n=1)$ | $64 \%$ |
|  | $36 \%$ | $(n=7)$ |
| Languages | $(n=4)$ | $100 \%$ |
|  | $0 \%$ | $(n=10)$ |
| Other | $(n=0)$ |  |

X2 $(4, n=46)=6.893, P>.05$.
Table 28: Country of origin vs use of Welsh

|  | Doesn't use Welsh | Does use Welsh |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Other | $0 \%$ | $100 \%$ |
|  | $(n=0)$ | $(n=2)$ |
| England | $10 \%$ | $90 \%$ |
|  | $(n=1)$ | $(n=9)$ |
| Wales | $17 \%$ | $83 \%$ |
|  | $(n=6)$ | $(n=29)$ |

$X_{2}(2, n=47)=.679, P>.05$.
Table 29: Years of teaching vs use of Welsh

|  | Doesn't use Welsh | Does use Welsh |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $0-5$ | $27 \%$ <br> $(n=3)$ | $73 \%$ <br> $(n=8)$ |
| $6-10$ | $10 \%$ | $90 \%$ |
| $(n=1)$ | $(n=9)$ |  |
| $11-15$ | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ | $100 \%$ <br> $(n=9)$ |
| $16-20$ | $20 \%$ |  |
| $(n=2)$ | $80 \%$ <br> $(n=8)$ |  |
| $20+$ | $14 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ | $86 \%$ <br> $(n=6)$ |

$X_{2}(4, n=47)=3.302, P>.05$.

Most of the informants ( $85 \%$ of the sample) reported using at least some Welsh in their lessons. In describing where, when and how they used Welsh, most of the
teachers (41/50 of the examples given) either referred explicitly to the term IW or provided a list of the types of activities that are typical within the delivery of IW. These were:
(i) the use of Welsh greetings;
(ii) the use of Welsh commands;
(iii) praising children in Welsh;
(iv) eliciting Welsh responses to the class register;
(v) the use of everyday/basic phrases in Welsh;
(vi) introducing colours and numbers in Welsh;
(vii) conducting classroom routines in Welsh;
(viii) using Welsh praises when marking pupils' work; and
(ix) some questioning in Welsh

Three further comments that were made were related to teachers' use of Welsh to enhance subject knowledge and to introduce subject-specific terms and definitions, and to use additional Welsh with pupils who are able to speak Welsh themselves:

Commands and greetings - key words in History when suitable - practice fuller sentences with first language speakers at times too

Siarad yn Gymraeg gyda'r plant iaith gyntaf, 'incidental Welsh' gyda'r gweddill bore da, da iawn, dewch i mewn ayb 'Speak Welsh with first language children, Incidental Welsh with the others' Incidental Welsh eg date, some questions, talk in Welsh to Welsh speakers etc

However, even for one native Welsh speaking teacher, teaching in an Englishmedium school made it easy to forget to use Welsh:
'It's strange, being fluent when I'm teaching an English class as I am now in an English school I forget to use it'.

Such use of Welsh may increase pupils' exposure to Welsh in contexts beyond their Welsh lessons. However, unless teachers have a clearly defined developmental strategy in place, pupils (and the teacher) are unlikely to progress in their learning beyond the static terms and phrases that they use (Dickinson, 1992).

### 8.3.4 Sabbatical support for teachers

Two of the respondents received support in the form of a sabbatical course, where Welsh is taught to them intensively over a long period of time. Although the number of teachers who received a sabbatical course is low compared to the number of teachers who hadn't received such support, it is still interesting to see where the teachers who have received the support place themselves on the scales. The teachers, one of which comes from North Wales and the other from the South East, both originate from Wales. One of the teachers is a language teacher while the other is an arts teacher, with one having been a teacher in Wales for 16-20 years and the other since over 20 years. In terms of proficiency, one of the teachers stated that they are at a beginner level while the other felt that they were nearly fluent. Despite having received a sabbatical course training, one teacher felt that their confidence was very little, while the other was very confident in using Welsh. Again, despite having received a sabbatical course, one of the teachers stated that they didn't use any Welsh in their lessons.

Table 30: Proficiency vs Sabbatical

|  | None | Basic | Beginner | Inter | Nearly | Fluent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| No sabb | $2 \%$ | $27 \%$ | $42 \%$ | $9 \%$ | $2 \%$ | $18 \%$ |
| $(n=1)$ | $(n=12)$ | $(n=19)$ | $(n=4)$ | $(n=1)$ | $(n=8)$ |  |
| Has had <br> sabb | $0 \%$ | $0 \%$ | $50 \%$ | $0 \%$ | $50 \%$ | $0 \%$ |
| $(n=0)$ | $(n=0)$ | $(n=1)$ | $(n=0)$ | $(n=1)$ | $(n=0)$ |  |

$X_{2}(5, n=47)=11.411, P<0.5$.
Table 31: Confidence vs Sabbatical

|  | No <br> confidence | V. little | Middling | Quite | Very |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| No sabb | $9 \%$ <br> $(n=4)$ | $33 \%$ <br> $(n=15)$ | $33 \%$ <br> $(n=15)$ | $9 \%$ <br> $(n=4)$ | $16 \%$ <br> $(n=7)$ |
| Has had <br> sabb | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ | $50 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ | $50 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ |

$X_{2}(4, n=47)=2.513 . P>.05$

Table 32: Local authority vs Sabbatical

|  | No sabb | Has had sabb |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| North | $97 \%$ | $3 \%$ |
| $(n=29)$ | $(n=1)$ |  |
| Mid Wales | $100 \%$ |  |
|  | $(n=9)$ | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ |
| South East | $87 \%$ <br> $(n=7)$ | $13 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ |

$X_{2}(2, n=47)=1.797, P>.05$.
Table 33: Subject area vs Sabbatical

|  | No sabb | Has had sabb |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Maths \& science | $100 \%$ <br> $(n=12)$ | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ |
| Humanities | $100 \%$ |  |
| $(n=7)$ | $0 \%$ |  |
| $(n=0)$ |  |  |$|$| $83 \%$ |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| $(n=5)$ | $(n=1)$ |
| Arts | $91 \%$ <br> $(n=10)$ |
| Languages | $9 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ <br> $(n=10)$ |
| Other | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ |

$X_{2}(4, n=46)=4.103, P>.05$.
Table 34: Country of origin vs Sabbatical

|  | No sabb | Has had sabb |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Other | $100 \%$ | $0 \%$ |
|  | $(n=2)$ | $(n=0)$ |
| England | $100 \%$ | $0 \%$ |
|  | $(n=10)$ | $(n=0)$ |
| Wales | $94 \%$ <br> $(n=33)$ | $\left.\begin{array}{l}6 \% \\ \\ \end{array} \mathrm{n}=2\right)$ |

$X_{2}(2, n=47)=.716, P>.05$.

Table 35: Years of teaching vs Sabbatical

|  | No sabb | Has had sabb |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $0-5$ | $100 \%$ |  |
| $(n=11)$ | $0 \%$ |  |
| $(n=0)$ |  |  |
| $6-10$ | $100 \%$ | $0 \%$ |
| $(n=10)$ | $(n=0)$ |  |
| $11-15$ | $100 \%$ |  |
| $(n=9)$ | $0 \%$ |  |
| $(n=0)$ |  |  |
| $16-20$ | $90 \%$ <br> $(n=9)$ | $10 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ |
| $20+$ | $86 \%$ <br> $(n=6)$ | $14 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ |

$X_{2}(4, n=47)=3.872, P>.05$.

Table 36: Use of Welsh vs Sabbatical

|  | Does use Welsh | Doesn't use Welsh |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| No sabb | $13 \%$ <br> $(n=6)$ | $87 \%$ <br> $(n=39)$ |
| Has had sabb | $50 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ | $50 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ |

$X 2(1, n=47)=2.301, P>.05$

In addition to sabbatical courses, the teachers responded to other means of support that they have received to encourage their use of Welsh, along with responses referring to the lack of support available. In terms of the type of support currently offered to teachers to enable them to deliver Cymraeg bob dydd, in many cases (in 17 of the 43 responses returned ( 4 did not answer)), teachers reported receiving support from members of the Welsh department and colleagues within their school.

Support from Welsh department if/when needed
INSET from the Welsh department

Welsh department put on lessons for staff, help to translate worksheets, posters etc

Welsh department support well when approached

The Welsh teachers are always very encouraging and answer all my questions

Many ( $n=9$ ) also benefitted from a variety of resources that were available at school, such as crib sheets, themes/words for the weeks, comment cards, language placemats, posters, and Power Points.

Powerpoints to use with my classes

Language placemats, resources how to develop students' use of Welsh

Crib sheet from Welsh department

Some teachers ( $n=7$ ) had been in Welsh language courses:

I attended cwrs Wlpan and Pellach through Bangor University

Funding for a course and inhouse CPD

Help from our bilingualism coordinator and enrolment in a Welsh course

Welsh language classes for pronounciation

In one case, this lack of of support lead the teacher to look for support elsewhere, e.g.:

None. I have looked into taking part in Welsh lessons for adult learners at my local university, but, financial constraints meant I can't take part. Within school there has been one or two CPD session on Welsh, but it is not taught or followed up. All the Welsh I have learned, I have picked up from hearing in assemblies or meetings.

The remaining teachers that provided an answer ( $n=11$ ) reported no or insufficient support in their schools, which has led some teachers to discover their own means of
support:

Very little in school. I have 4 Welsh speakers at home, so some support there

None - I've just discovered duolingo. This has slightly improved my confidence and I have started to use more Welsh phrases

### 8.3.5 The desire for additional/future support

$58 \%(\mathrm{n}=26)$ of the participants stated that they would like additional support in the future. The teachers from North Wales were much more eager for this support (71\%) than their counterparts in Mid Wales (33\%) and South East Wales (37\%). In terms of subject, the arts teachers were the most reluctant to want additional support (33\%) however, they were also the most confident, therefore they may feel that they don't require any extra support. On the other side, the languages teachers were the most eager for support ( $80 \%$ ), which corrolates with the fact that they were the least confident and felt that they weren't proficient in using Welsh. $80 \%$ of the teachers who have originated from England felt that they wanted support compared to 55\% from Wales. This could be expected, as teachers that are originally from Wales have been exposed to Welsh during their own schooling, while the teachers originally from England haven't. Teachers who has been teaching in Wales the shortest (up to 10 years) are the ones who have displayed the most desire for additional training, while the teachers who have been teaching in Wales the longest are more inclined to not desire the support. Apart from one participant who stated that they had no proficiency, the teachers with low proficiency are generally more in favour of additional support ( $75 \%$ of the basic words cohort and $74 \%$ of the beginner cohort), while the ones who are fluent are less inclined to receive additional support (12\%). A similar pattern can be seen when comparing the teachers' levels of confidence. Those with no or very little confidence were more likely to want support (58\% collectively) while only $4 \%$ of those who were quite or very confident also said that they wanted support. Although there was not a large difference, more teachers who didn't use Welsh wanted support (19\%).

Table 37: Proficiency vs desire for support

|  | Don't want support | Wants support |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| None | $100 \%$ | $0 \%$ |
| $(n=1)$ | $(n=0)$ |  |
| Basic words | $25 \%$ | $75 \%$ |
| $(n=3)$ | $(n=9)$ |  |
| Beginner | $26 \%$ | $74 \%$ |
| $(n=5)$ | $(n=14)$ |  |
| Intermediate | $67 \%$ <br> $(n=2)$ | $33 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ |
| Nearly fluent | $50 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ | $50 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ |
| Fluent | $88 \%$ <br> $(n=7)$ | $12 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ |

$X_{2}(5, n=45)=12.305, P<.05$.

Table 38: Confidence vs desire for support

|  | No <br> confidence | V. little | Middling | Quite | Very |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Doesn't <br> want <br> support | $11 \%$ <br> $(n=2)$ | $16 \%$ <br> $(n=3)$ | $21 \%$ <br> $(n=4)$ | $16 \%$ <br> $(n=3)$ | $36 \%$ <br> $(n=7)$ |
| Wants <br> support | $8 \%$ <br> $(n=2)$ | $50 \%$ <br> $(n=13)$ | $38 \%$ <br> $(n=10)$ | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ | $4 \%$ <br> $(n=1)$ |

$X_{2}(4, n=45)=15.610, P<.05$
Table 39: Local authority vs desire for support

|  | Doesn't want <br> support | Wants support |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| North | $29 \%$ <br> $(n=8)$ | $71 \%$ <br> $(n=20)$ |
| Mid Wales | $67 \%$ <br> $(n=6)$ | $33 \%$ <br> $(n=3)$ |
| South East | $63 \%$ <br> $(n=5)$ | $37 \%$ <br> $(n=3)$ |

$X_{2}(2, n=45)=5.692, P>.05$.

Table 40: Subject area vs desire for support

|  | Doesn't want <br> support | Wants support |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Maths \& science | $42 \%$ <br> $(n=5)$ | $58 \%$ <br> $(n=7)$ |
| Humanities | $43 \%$ <br> $(n=3)$ | $57 \%$ <br> $(n=4)$ |
| Arts | $67 \%$ <br> $(n=4)$ | $33 \%$ <br> $(n=2)$ |
| Languages | $20 \%$ <br> $(n=2)$ | $80 \%$ <br> $(n=8)$ |
| Other | $50 \%$ <br> $(n=5)$ | $50 \%$ <br> $(n=5)$ |

$X_{2}(4, n=45)=3.745, P>.05$.
Table 41: Country of origin vs desire for support

|  | Doesn't want <br> support | Wants support |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Other | $100 \%$ <br> $(n=2)$ | $0 \%$ <br> $(n=0)$ |
| England | $20 \%$ <br> $(n=2)$ | $80 \%$ <br> $(n=8)$ |
| Wales | $45 \%$ <br> $(n=15)$ | $55 \%$ <br> $(n=18)$ |

$X_{2}(2, n=45)=4.902, P>.05$
Table 42: Years of teaching vs desire for support

|  | Doesn't want <br> support | Wants support |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $0-5$ | $20 \%$ <br> $(n=2)$ | $80 \%$ <br> $(n=8)$ |
| $6-10$ | $40 \%$ <br> $(n=4)$ | $60 \%$ <br> $(n=6)$ |
| $11-15$ | $44 \%$ <br> $(n=4)$ | $56 \%$ <br> $(n=5)$ |
| $16-20$ | $56 \%$ <br> $(n=5)$ | $44 \%$ <br> $(n=4)$ |
| $20+$ | $57 \%$ <br> $(n=4)$ | $43 \%$ <br> $(n=3)$ |

$X_{2}(4, n=45)=3.357, P>.05$.

Table 43: Use of Welsh vs desire for support

|  | Doesn't use Welsh | Does use Welsh |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Doesn't want <br> support | $11 \%$ | $89 \%$ |
| Wants support | $19 \%$ | $(n=17)$ |
|  | $19 \%$ <br> $(n=5)$ | $81 \%$ |
| $(n=21)$ |  |  |

$X_{2}(1, n=45)=.633, P>.05$

However, despite the fact that approximately $2 / 3$ of the sample reported middling, little or no confidence in delivering Welsh, of those who responded to the question regarding whether or not they would like to receive more support ( $n=45$ ), only 57.8\% ( $n=26$ ) reported that they would, with $42 \%(n=19)$ declaring that they would not. Some of the reasons provided were that
'not necessarily; I know where to go and who to approach should I need additional support'

I'm fine but the big thing is for those who aren't fluent they're very shy about trying it

Always enjoy learning and practicing more, but I don't feel in need of support necessarily

However, $73.7 \%$ of the beginners ( $n=14$ ), and $75 \%$ of those with basic words ( $n=9$ ) (and 1 respondent each from the intermediate, nearly fluent and fluent categories) reported that they would like more support for many reasons. These reasons included reasons such as a desire to increase confidence;

Courses available to recap some basic Welsh terminology and grammar. This would help me improve my confidence and therefore encourage me to use Welsh more readily in school.
improve pronunciation and their ability to structure sentences, which could then be transferred to their ability to create resources;

Yes. Some Welsh language classes would be helpful so that I know how to pronounce words. Then i can use posters in my classroom to support lessons

Yes, a refresher course on using simple sentences.

Yes, developing my ability to formulate sentences and resources changed to Welsh
to improve conversational Welsh;

Yes, to improve conversational elements

I wouldn't mind doing a short course in Welsh conversation
for subject specific vocabulary;

Yes I would like more support, for subject specific vocabulary and sentence structure. The course I have attended have been great for conversational Welsh but not really for use in the classroom

And some teachers who welcomed the suggestion of additional support, but who didn't provide reasons why;

Yes, lessons and time given to attend

Yes - maybe an after-school class to attend with other staff members

Yes, it would be most welcome. It would be great to have INSET courses

Yes, I would love to learn Welsh as my grandfather is first language Welsh. However the opportunities are not available. Lessons after school or even the odd weekend class would help for those who would want to

### 8.4 Summary

In summary, most of the teachers were engaged with the use of Welsh in some form or another, but, in most cases, that use was confined to specific terms or phrases that teachers felt most comfortable in delivering. However, unless developed appropriately, such use will do little to increase pupils' or teachers' learning, and do little in terms of increasing self-confidence and use in the long term. It's clear from the questionnaire results that not only the teachers who noted that they had a good
grasp of Welsh also had a higher level of confidence in using Welsh, but those higher levels of proficiency and confidence also translated into the actual use of Welsh, due to the fact that they also stated that they used Welsh in their own lessons. This also applied vice versa with the teachers who had a lower confidence and proficiency in Welsh less likely to use Welsh in their lessons. This confirms that in order to encourage teachers to use Welsh in their classrooms, they must feel confident and proficient in doing so, therefore additional support must be implemented in schools to support the teachers' own journey in learning and using the language. A higher number of participants would be needed to evaluate the sabbatical course efficiently, however, by looking at the two participants who had completed the questionnaire, it became apparent that despite receiving the training, they were not confident or proficient enough to use Welsh in their own lessons. This highlights the need for futher research in this area, by evaluating the sabbatical course and its long-term results. 58\% of the teachers who completed the questionnaire expressed a wish for further support for their Welsh language skills in the future. The majority of the support for this can from the teachers who feel less confident or proficient in speaking Welsh and from teachers who come from England originally. This chapter confirms that the need for additional training is supported by teachers who currently feel that their Welsh language skills are not at the high-end of the scale, and this training would be paramount if we are to encourage teachers to use Welsh in their lessons by raising their confidence and proficiency levels.

## Chapter 9

## Chapter 9

Phase 3: An evaluation of an intervention that provided personalised support for teachers

### 9.1 Intro

This chapter discusses the importance of support in order to gain confidence and lessen the levels of language anxiety that a person may be experiencing if they aren't fluent in the target language through the means of providing additional personalised support for the teachers. This is especially important in the context of Cymraeg bob dydd as teachers who do not speak the language fluently are still expected to deliver some level of Welsh to their pupils within their regular subject lessons. This chapter aims to explore effect of personalised support on the teacher's feelings on being expected to use some Welsh, and whether a difference is seen in the delivery of Cymraeg bob dydd in the classroom following an intervention. This phase consists of three stages. Interviews were conducted with teachers that had received support at three schools, in the form of Welsh language lessons. These interviews aimed to explore the impact, if any, the extra support had had on themselves as speakers and its transmission into their teaching. Following the interview, observations were had at one of those schools, observing the teachers that had been interviewed in order to observe the use of Cymraeg bob dydd in their lessons, and to then, as the third phase, compare them with observations from the first phase of this whole study to see whether extra interventions had made a difference to the delivery of Cymraeg bob dydd.

### 9.2 Interview results

As the results from the questionnaires showed that firstly, many of the teachers didn't identify as being proficient when speaking Welsh or did not feel very confident when using it, and that little or no support came beyond that of the school (with no support from the school in some instances), the interviews aimed to explore whether implementing formal support made a difference to how the teachers used Welsh and felt when using the language. The interviews revealed 4 main themes; 1 . before the interventions 2 . suitability of the sessions 3 . confidence 4. transfer to teaching.

### 9.2.1 Before the interventions

Before the course, it emerged that teachers were at different levels in terms of ability and confidence:

I could understand. Conversational was fine. Reading ok. Just when I used to teach in [another school] I taught through the medium of Welsh there then, because I don't do it everyday I forget and there's a lack of confidence probably (Teacher 2, school Y)

I came on this course with very little Welsh... Living in South Wales I would've never bothered trying to speak Welsh (Teacher 3, school Y).

I'd say minimal as well. I mean I could say hello and that kind of thing
but I didn't really have any idea of the structure of the language and that was the big thing for me (teacher 2, school Z)

I had no confidence in it. I mean, I would say very simple commands so I would always greet my class in Welsh and I've always dismissed them in Welsh the best I can and that was about the limit really (teacher 1, school Z)

### 9.2.2 Suitability of the sessions

Because of the differences between the schools and their needs, each school planned their sessions in various ways. School $Y$ decided to invite a Welsh tutor to the school to deliver weekly lessons, and the teachers were given a session on how to use specific Welsh language programs to aid them when planning lessons.

It's been really helpful to be able to talk to [y tiwtor] about the type of Welsh that I need for my classroom which was missing before. I wasn't able to have somebody to speak to that I could talk about 'I need to know these terms' and 'I need to know about these', so that was really really helpful, especially with some of the technical terms (teacher 2, school Y )

School two opted to employ a tutor that taught the group of teachers as a group once a week in addition to a 1-1 session, which addressed the issue of various abilities and confidence. The teachers at school X were very content that the course had been suitable for their work as teachers:
"Excellent scheme...relevant to my job" (Teacher 3, school X)
"The second part of the scheme allowed me to prepare, practise and deliver my first lesson in Welsh successfully" (Teacher 5, school X)
"A good scheme. It's possible to improve my Welsh whilst still being present in school for my classes" (Teacher 2, school X)
"One-to-one allowed me to practice delivering lessons in Welsh" (Teacher 5, school X)

In addition to the relevance of the course to teaching, some teachers also found the course to be at a suitable level for their abilities and confidence:
"Suitable pace for me" (Teacher 3, school X)
"Own pace, own choice" (Teacher 5, school X)

School Z decided to pair the teachers together into pairs of two and deliver the lessons at a time that suited each teacher, over skype, so that they could decide on a time that was most suitable for them around their teaching commitments. Five components were found to have contributed to the success of this course:

### 1.1 Course content

And I think that one of the biggest helps that I had was even looking at the Welsh alphabet, things started to make sense...My partner was a complete beginner like myself and the content that we covered was the alphabet to start with. At first I didn't understand why we were doing the alphabet until I realised that two letters were actually one letters in the Welsh language. I'd have never had known that if we hadn't started at that level. It was absolutely brilliant from my perspective with the course content, it was just right (teacher 2, school Z)

### 1.2 Technological Methodology

I think that the idea of Skype for busy people is a really fantastic idea. I don't think that it's for everyone but if you've got a busy lifestyle and you can get yourself home and get yourself set up with it, it doesn't feel like you're losing an hour at all, in fact it feels like you're gaining an hour of a really useful activity to do during that time. I would really encourage that, the Skype lessons. I also think that working with a partner was absolutely fantastic (teacher 2, school Z)

### 1.3 Working in a pair

...especially working with a partner. You were going through the same things weren't you and you could have a bit of a laugh about it (teacher 2, school Z)

### 1.4 The tutor

Grouping people together, providing them with a tutor that allowed them to make mistakes but telling them that it's alright. We're not going to get a million speakers
by not letting them make mistakes and so I think that setting those parameters and doing that in a way that may make people feel comfortable allowed them to have that confidence to then do what they did...I think that the tutors were absolutely crucial in setting that culture (Headteacher, school Z)

### 1.5 Opportunities to practice pronunciation

I was having a few difficulties in reading the words and making them sound anywhere near correct...it gave me the confidence to have a go at those in front of the class... allowing me to understand the structure of the words that I'd already been given but didn't know how to necessarily say them out loud (teacher 2, school Z)
...when it came to near the end of the course my tutor said 'suddenly, you are pronouncing words much better' and that gave me the confidence (teacher 1, school Z)

### 9.2.3 Confidence

Confidence was a word that appeared very often during the interviews, and therefore suggested that the Welsh courses had played a large role in developing their confidence:
"More confident in using snippets of Welsh whilst teaching" (teacher 2, school X)
"It has built up my confidence to use more spoken Welsh" (teacher 3, school X)
"I think that I feel more encouraged to produce more things bilingually following the course and it did give me confidence in my most recent interview to do a part of that interview through the medium of Welsh and produce a personal statement through the medium of Welsh as well. Although I knew that it wasn't grammatically perfect, I was confident, whereas before I wouldn't of bothered, I would've just written it in English and then made my apologies whereas at least I tried so that's a good step" (teacher 1, school X)

It's given me more confidence (teacher 3, school Y)

### 9.2.4 Transfer to teaching

Following the lessons, the newfound confidence transferred to their teaching in that they felt more able to produce bilingual resources and use more spoken Welsh in the lessons themselves. Many of the teachers commented that they were able to create bilingual resources as additional material for the pupils in their classes:
"I feel more encouraged to produce more things bilingually following the course" (teacher 1, school X)
"All my KS3 resources are now bilingual" (teacher 3, school X)

We are in the process of translating some of our lessons for our new year 7s to do some of them through the medium of Welsh, so it'll be much easier translating the lessons (teacher 1, school Y )

In addition to the bilingual resources, teacher also found that they were able to use more
Welsh within their classrooms:


#### Abstract

"Yes, yeah I do. I do with the younger ones, the year 7s especially and year 8, I've started talking to them a lot more in Welsh even though the lessons are through the medium of English I do try and have the general conversation through the medium of Welsh and they do respond to me either in English or in Welsh which I know that at least they're listening and they understand at least. [teacher 2, school X]


"Because the kids were aware that there were Welsh lessons going on they were a bit more expecting and if you said 'deg' instead of 'ten' they were little bit more relaxed with it. So yeah, I probably do speak a little bit more" (teacher 2, school X)

Because of the new use of Welsh by the teacher, they have found that this also transferred to the pupils' use of Welsh:
> "I think that the kids, they, especially the year 7 class, I think that they have started embracing their Welsh a bit more. I told them that I was having Welsh lessons so before they were like 'what are you talking in Welsh for?' kind of thing but then I explained to them that I was having Welsh lessons and that I wanted them to help me, so if there's a word that I don't know I'll say to them 'what's this in Welsh?' or whatever so then they're, because they think that they're helping me they want to use it more (teacher 1, school Y )

"I think that the kids that have been to the language unit I think that they feel a bit more confident in trying their Welsh if they know that you as a teacher are a Welsh learner because you're in the same boat as them." (teacher 2, school X)

I think that if I were able to speak more Welsh than I am now, I'm telling the kids and the ones that aren't particularly good, I'm saying 'use your Welsh. Don't be like, for me l've had to learn now and it's really difficult. Use it and try and keep it' so l'm an
advocate of trying to get the kids in school to speak to each other. Most of the Welsh speakers will answer me back in Welsh if I ask them something in Welsh, which is good. So I think it's helped the kids to know if the teachers are going to try then they try a bit more as well, so I think that helps (teacher 3, school Y)

### 9.3 Observation results

Three teachers from School X that were a part of the interviews were observed during their lessons.

### 9.3.1 Lesson 1 (T3 from the interview)

The first lesson that was observed was a maths lesson of high ability pupils from year 8. The lessons started with some Welsh instantly with instructions such as 'gwaith catref os gwelwch yn dda (homework please)' and 'amser cofrestru rwan (registration time now), and the pupils answering 'yma (here)' to their names on the register. The start of the powerpoint was bilingual with the set tasks being written only in Welsh following the introduction. The teacher continued to give instructions in Welsh while also translating key terms: "Ar y bwrdd gwyn, lluniwch ongl lem, acute angle (on the whiteboard, draw an acute angle, acute angle)". The teacher did this with each angle by repeating the "Ar y bwrdd gwyn, lluniwch ......" but by changing the name of the angle that she wanted the children to draw.

The teacher also praised in Welsh with 'da iawn (well done)' and also managed the class with phrases such as "llai o siarad os gwelwch yn dda (less talking please)". The second task was to group different angles into categories. Again, the teacher used Welsh terms, however, this time within English sentences e.g "You put the ongl lem in that group".

As the task drew to an end the teacher continued to use Welsh sentences such as "dau funud i fynd (two minutes to go)" and "now, mark your work with a beiro goch (red biro)". On the walls, nearly everything was labelled bilingually, including mathematical terms e.g "fractions - ffracsiynau" and instructions such as "list rhestrwch". Mathematical textbooks were also available in Welsh and the worksheets had been written in Welsh. The overall lesson resulted in key terms and instructions being delivered in Welsh in a context where English was also spoken
widely. In terms of the pupils, their language was mostly English, however, they did refer to some subject terms and responded to the register in Welsh.

### 9.3.2 Lesson 2 ( $T 2$ from the interview)

This lesson was also a year 8 maths lesson, however the pupils in this class were of Iow ability. Much less Welsh was used and it was restricted to basic Cymraeg bob dydd. Despite this, the teacher did comment that this class was a difficult one, and that it was a challenge to help them to understand the subject concepts in English without the added pressure of doing so in Welsh, and therefore he felt that it was more appropriate to use less Welsh with this particular class than he would with a class of pupils of higher abilities. This class were also revising angles, and the teacher always used 'da iawn (well done)' to praise the pupils. An example of translation was observed; "we're doing angles today [name of child], onglau"; "next one? nesaf?" and the use of number is Welsh was heard such as "tri (three)" and "pump (five)". On the wall, there was an explanation of different types of texts (such as discussion and information) in Welsh, and Mathematical terms were displayed bilingually. The teacher's use of Welsh fell into the 'minimal Welsh' category while the pupils were 'no use of Welsh at all'.

### 9.3.3 Lesson 3 (T1 in the interview)

The last lesson that was observed was a year 7 science lesson. In this lesson, the delivery of was mostly in English, while the other aspects of the lesson such as instruction were in Welsh. The lesson opened with Welsh, "cofrestr yn gyntaf. Oes yna unrhyw un ddim yma neu ydi pawb yma? (Register first. Is there anyone absent or is everyone here?)" and "distaw te plis (quiet then please)". The lesson was introduced bilingually with translation; "tro dwytha be ddaru ni neud? What did we do last time?" before explaning the work in English. While the pupils were working, the teacher was speaking Welsh with them e.g "be ti'n edrych ar? (what are you looking at?)", "Paid a siarad efo fo, mae ganddo fo waith i'w wneud! (Don’t speak with him, he has work to do!)" and "[child name] pam wyt ti ar lawr?! [child name] what are you doing on the floor?!", before she brought the task to an end with
"gobeithio bod chi gyd wedi gorffen labelu nawr (I hope that you've all finished labelling now)".

When introducing the next task, the teacher repeated the question each time but changed the subject term; 'beth yw swydd y bladder? (what does the bladder do?)', 'beth yw swydd yr uterus? (What does the uterus do?)' etc. She gave the instructions for the next task in Welsh; "den ni wedi bod drwy'r rhain a rwan dwi eisiau i chi roi nhw mewn tabl (we've been through these, and now I want you to put them in a table)".

The labels for the organs that were being discussed in this lesson were labelled bilingually on the whiteboard, however there were no other Welsh examples to be seen. The teacher did mention that she was not in her own classroom for this lesson, and therefore was not responsible to the display on the walls here. The teachers' use of Welsh was equal to that of English throughout the lesson, while the pupils' use of Welsh was in the minority with a little bit of Welsh amongst a majority of English.

During these observations, it was clear to see in two out of the three of the observations that extended Welsh was used and that the teachers who had undertaken the training were happy to deliver a certain amount of the lesson through the medium of Welsh. While the interviews revealed that the personalised support had been useful in aiding the teachers to develop their confidence in using Welsh, 6 weeks was not enough, and more support should be implemented in order to have a long term effect. This will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

## Chapter 10

## CHAPTER 10

## Discussion

The pupose of this thesis was to evaluate the use of Cymraeg bob dydd in Englishmedium secondary schools in North Wales. The results of four studies, as presented in Chapters 6, 7, 8 and 9, provide a number of intersting patterns that warrant further discussion below. These discussions are structured around three sections: (i) the initial observations, (ii) the pupil questionnaire, and (iii) the intervention.

### 10.1 The initial observations

Whilst the observations of Cymraeg bob Dydd were relatively few, where examples were provided, they fell into one 5 categories: framing of the lesson, set phrases, classroom management, bilingual discourse strategies and visual aids. Each of these sections will be discussed in terms of their pedagogical benefits and limitations below

### 10.1.1 Framing of the lesson

One consistent use of Cymraeg bob dydd was in the framing of the lesson. This practice was observed in all four schools at some point during the observations, although how it appeared varied from one context to another. This variation can be categorised across two types: elicited/non-elicited greetings/acknowledgements and instructional set phrases (i.e., directives).

## Pedagogical benefits of such practice in an L2 context

Together, the examples in Table 45 provide some opportunity for pupils both to hear Cymraeg bob dydd and to practise saying a few set phrases in Welsh. Whilst this may not provide the ultimate condition for learning language, it can expose children to new vocabulary and grammatical patterns that they can build upon if the exposure they gain is continuous (Teng, 2014).

Opening the lesson with Welsh marks its importance, and heightens its status within education. Using it outside the Welsh lesson also helps normalise its use in other educational domains. However, in order for such practice to be a successful vehicle for transmitting Welsh to pupils, teachers need to move beyond the consistent use of static 'frames' like greetings to more elaborate use of language. Vital to the success of any lesson is the introduction of the task at hand: (i) the explanation of what the pupils need to do (the 'what'), (ii) how they will do it (the 'skill'), and (iii) why they do it (the 'motivation') (Ginnis, 2002). Applying Welsh to the presentation of this type of 'frame' provides an excellent opportunity to go beyond greetings and set phrases whilst, at the same time, allowing non-native-speaking/reluctant Welshspeaking teachers the opportunity to prepare their narrative rather than rely on spontaneous use of Welsh.

## Limitations of such practice in L2 contexts

Using Welsh at the start and end of the lesson only may raise some level of awareness of the language as a communicative tool. However, using Welsh solely in this way may provide the wrong message that Welsh cannot relate to academic
aspects of the lessons, and, whilst normalising the language beyond the Welsh lesson, may lead to an assumption that Welsh is used to express basic functions only. Similarly, despite the advantages of introducing some Welsh in this way, using set phrases such as greetings (bore da 'good morning' and prynhawn da 'good afternoon') over and over may ensure pupils understand these terms and are able to say them out loud, but do little to introduce pupils to a more extensive vocabulary. A critical component to this practice is therefore 'progression'. Stahl and Kapinus (2001) argues that a knowledge of a word is not simply being aware of the word, but the pupils should also be aware of its definition, relation to other words (that then exposes them to more words) and how to use that word in a variety of contexts. Stahl (2005) enhances on this by stating that pupils must be given opportunities to develop their knowledge of words in a variety of contexts in order to progress from the initial awareness of the words that they have been exposed to. Pupils therefore need exposure to a variety of words and phrases and an opportunity to say those words and statements out loud.

There are various ways progression could be introduced. One obvious way is through questioning. For example, teachers could progress from a Welsh greeting to asking questions such as
ydi pawb wedi gwneud eu gwaith cartref?
'has everyone done their homework?'
or
ydi pawb wedi cael penwythnos da?
'has everyone had a good weekend?'
where the response is likely to be ydan Miss 'yes Miss' or do (diolch) Miss 'yes (thanks) Miss'. These could then be developed further to expose the children to a range of syntax
wnaeth pawb orffen y gwaith cartref?
'Did evenyone finish the homework?'

## Wnaethoch chi i gyd eich gwaith cartref? <br> 'Did you all do your homework?'

## Whes di dy waith cartref?

'Did you do your homework?' etc.

As discussed in Chapter 3, programmes such as immersion, dual language programmes and CLIL all demonstrate a high success rate of producing fluent speakers compared to pupils that are only exposed to formal language lessons. This is related in part to the fact that these pupils are exposed to a greater level of vocabulary, as they are immersed not only in basic language, but also academic terminology, which results in a higher knowledge of vocabulary (referred to as the BICS/CALP distinction - Cummins, 2008). Whilst initiatives such as Cymraeg bob dydd will never model the same levels of exposure, varying the content of the language use in a progressive manner would mean pupils receive exposure to a richer sample of the language.

### 10.1.2 Set phrases

In addition to the use of set phrases - mainly greetings bore da and p'nawn da - to frame the lessons, set phrases were also observed elsewhere during the lessons. The most common was the elicited reply yma 'here' in response to the class register. This response pattern was heard during most lessons in Schools B, C and D, and was often the only Welsh that could be heard during those lessons.

## Pedagogical benefits of such practice in an L2 context

These examples can be categorized as being examples of repetition. Repetition underpins most bilingual discourse strategies (Johnstone, 1987), provides the foundation for language learning, and is considered to be the oldest strategy in second language learning (Ghazi-Saidi \& Ansaldo, 2017). How often the pupils hear words in their environment plays an important role in L2 acquisition, with some arguing that the more times a word or a structure is repeated, the more likely pupils are of memorising those words (Huckin \& Coady, 1999). For example, according to Waring and Takaki (2003), pupils need to repeat a word eight times in order to have a $50 \%$ chance of still remembering that word three months later. In a study
conducted by (McGregor et al, 2007) it was found that higher frequencies of exposure to words resulted in promoted word learning. Two controlled groups participated in the study, with one group receiving a more intensive, short-term exposure, while the second group received a longer-term distributed exposure. The results show that while both groups showed an increase in vocabulary acquisition, the distributed method was more successful in the lexical acquisition. This shows that repetition is vital for the pupils to store the new vocabulary in their memory, however, long-term exposure is also important for the pupils to have the words stored in their long-term memory.

## Limitations of such practice in an L2 context

However, no matter how often a word is repeated, it means nothing without a focus on its meaning and form. That is, the quality of the $L 2$ delivered to the pupils is much more important than its quantity (Dickinson, 1992). Word interpretation may also be necessary with a context of repetition (Schmitt \& Schmitt, 1995; Webb, 2008). Within the field of Cognitive Linguistics, for example, an emphasis on both the learner and the language is crucial. In terms of the learner, their individual cognitive abilities and their interactions with the world are important, drawing on their experiences in order to be able to construct the meanings of the words that they are learning. In terms of the language, the form of the language, verbs and prepositions are closely examined to see how they relate to the meaning they express, and how they are used in order to express that meaning (Hummel, 2014). Whilst it is not expected that Cymraeg bob dydd becomes a substitute for language teaching, there are certain practices that could be adopted that help pupils develop a sound knowledge of words. One such practice is outlined below. There are two stages to the process of repetition when learning new vocabulary: the 'repetition stage' and the 'repetition with variation stage' (Heath, 1983). The repetition stage consists of basic repetition of certain words, such as the examples of yma and the Lord's prayer noted above. The 'repetition with variation stage' allows learners to expand on their vocabulary by using the words within various sentence contexts. Observed examples that elicited repetition with variation:
'does anyone want/need a...'

This strategy is particularly useful. Oes unrhyw un eisiau... can be a static phrase that can be repeated in numerous contexts, but the vocabulary items can change, both within the semantic context of the category:

> oes unrhyw un eisiau beiro glas?
> does anyone want a blue biro?' oes unrhyw un eisiau pensal gwyrdd?
> 'does anyone want a red pencil?'
and by extension to other parts of speech (e.g., verbs):
oes unrhyw un eisiau saib?
'does any one want a break?'
Oes unrhyw un eisiau gweld?
'does anyone want to see?' etc.

The use of questions is particularly useful as a strategy as it provides the pupils with an opportunity to answer in Welsh. This is particularly important in order to encourage pupils to converse in the target language (this will be discussed under the next sub-section). In the context of colored pens, this question elicited responses from the pupils such as

> ga'i un melyn plis?
> 'can I have a yellow one please?'

This approach could be developed further by adopting the Audiolingual Method and applying it to the classroom. This approach drills the pupils further by expecting the pupils to repeat what the teacher says in the following manner (Hummel, 2014, p. 111):

Teacher: I put the book on the table

Pupil: I put the book on the table
Teacher: Pen
Pupil: I put the pen on the table
Teacher: Ruler
Pupil: I put the ruler on the table
Teacher: Paper
Pupil: I put the paper on the table

This approach has its roots both instructural linguistics and behaviourism. The emphasis lies on how the phonology of words can be related to grammatical and lexical units and, in turn, be repeated in sentence form, and on eliminating bad habits that derive from the L1 and replace those with new L2 habits (Macaro et al, 2013). Both the 'repetition with variation' and the Audiolingual Method could be applied easily to Cymraeg bob dydd in order to enhance pupil knowledge.

### 10.1.3 Classroom management

The use of Welsh as a way of managing the classroom was observed during one lesson at three schools: School A, B and D. School A and B both used the same phrase in order to quieten the pupils and obtain attention:
tri, dau, un, tawelwch
'three, two, one, silence'
During the music lesson in School D, a few different examples were heard. The first was

Eisteddwch i lawr. Rwan dwi am wneud y gofrestr
'Sit down. Now I'm going to take the register'
This teacher also used Welsh to praise the children using da iawn 'very good/well done' when they correctly answered a question, which is a positive use of Welsh. When the lesson was coming to an end, she used pawb i wrando 'everyone listen,' which, again, commands the children and gains their attention.

Pedagogical benefits of such practice in an L2 context

Praise is well-known to be linked with positive feelings, and that pupils are less disruptive and better-behaved when teachers raise their levels of praise (Dufrene et al, 2014; Sutherland et al, 2008; Reinke et al, 2007). Linking optimistic aspects of the lesson to the target language can place the language within a constructive context which can foster a positive view of the language by the pupils. However, this could also have the opposite effect when applying the language to negative phrases when managing the pupils.

## Limitations of such practice in an L2 context

While the use of Welsh for classroom management purposes that we observed was mainly in positive/neutral contexts, it can become static (the same vocabulary and phrases used), and it does not provide an opportunity for the pupils themselves to use the language, as its delivery comes only from the teacher. Incidental language learning tends to become an implicit process when pupils only receive the target language as an input (Saffran et al, 1997). Implicit learning is defined as being an accessible way of learning without conscious awareness (Ellis, 2005). This method is best suited for young children who do not yet have the skills to learn consciously and are able to absorb information without their knowledge. Older children and adults on the other hand learn best by explicit methods as they are more conscious of the actions that influence them (Spada \& Tomita, 2010). Therefore, by implementing an implicit method within the methodology for learners whose age best suit explicit approaches, this makes it more difficult for the learners to acquire the target language. If the Welsh Government is to create new speakers, the pedagogies must go beyond that of normalising the language in an implicit manner, and encourage pupils to use Welsh also.

Dale's Cone of Experience (1969) demonstrates the effectiveness of different methods of learning on the acquisition, with tasks such as reading having less effect than more interactive tasks such as direct and purposeful experiences. This has been applied to language learning situations and show that pupils are more likely to acquire new vocabulary when they become more engaged, with hearing providing more exposure than reading, seeing providing more exposure than hearing etc and
that combining these elements also provide more exposure. The percentages that people can generally recall about $10 \%$ of what they read, $20 \%$ of what they hear, $30 \%$ of what they see, $50 \%$ of what they both see and hear, $70 \%$ of what they say and $90 \%$ of what they simultaneously say and do have famously been added to the cone more recently, but have however been proved to be bogus, and that Dale never assigned any numbers to his cone. Despite the bogus figures, this cone provides a visual representation of how different means of engaging can have more lasting effects on the acquisition of vocabulary. The cone also supports the arguments that vocabulary and syntax are more likely to be stored in memory when they are outputted by the individual rather than delivered as an input. The comprehensible output hypothesis (Swain, 1985) states that using the language is vital if the learner is to become proficient, due to the need for the learner to have awareness of the meaning intended (cf. Hummel, 2014) and the expression that should be used to convey the meaning to deliver the intended communication. There are many benefits to using the language frequently when learning, including (i) enhanced fluency, (ii) developing a better appreciation of how the grammatical aspects work, (iii) clear indications of where the learner may struggle, (iv) appreciation of which aspects they wish to improve on, and (v) being able to react to the input that they have had.

Despite the emphasis on the use of the output when learning a language, especially with older children due to their additional reliance on explicit learning, this does not mean that the input should be forgotten. The Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1995) proposes that what learners notice in the input is what they are influenced by when acquiring that knowledge. Schmidt goes further than input/output dichotomy by adding a third element: the intake between the two. While input is what learners are exposed to, intake is the aspects of the input that they notice and then reflect upon in their output. Therefore, while developing Cymraeg bob dydd to include emphasis on the output in order to suit the older children's way of learning, it is also important that the input is not forgotten, and that careful consideration is also given to what the pupils see, hear and ultimately pay attention to.

When observing a Welsh lesson within one school (School A), a more developed approach than static phrases were observed. While the teacher, who was a fluent Welsh speaker did use some level of English within the lesson, she used approaches such as translation and code-switching to combine both Welsh and English in a way that the pupils were able to use their knowledge and understanding of English to understand the commands/information.
(i) Translation

Pedagogical benefits of such practice in an L2 context
Translation provides an opportunity for pupils to compare words and syntactic structures between languages while providing them with the mental challenge of understanding the translations when they are heard (Hummel, 2014). Cook (2010) considers translation as "a bridge between the familiar and the unfamiliar, the known and the unknown." Whilst some may not rate translation as particularly useful as a pedagogical tool, due to the concern that if the pupils hear the words/sentences in their first language, they will not take note of what is being said in the target language, he goes on to state:

To burn that bridge or to pretend that it does not exist, hinders rather than helps the difficult transition which is the aim of language teaching and learning. Learners moreover need that bridge to maintain the links between their languages and identities (p. 155)

Studies have shown that pupils that were exposed to translations outperformed other groups that were focused on meaning and forms without translations (Laufer \& Girsai, 2008), suggesting translation is a useful tool in aiding the pupils to understand what is being said whilst also linking that knowledge to the context of the new target language. This result was found by comparing three groups of high school students, with one group (meaning focus groups) completing content orientated tasks which didn't concentrate on the target items, the second group
(form-focus group) completing a text-based task that focuses on the target items, and the third group (contrastive analysis and translation group) undertook text translation tasks from the L1 to the L2 and then from the L2 to the L1. A week later all three groups were given the same tasks to complete, with the contrastive analysis and translation group outperforming the other two groups significantly.

The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (Lado, 1957) is a method where the learner can notice where the similarities lie between both languages while translating which then aids the learner to acquire new L2 structures with more ease, while differences between the languages' structures could provide more difficulty, and therefore more consideration should be given to these differences when teaching those particular aspects (Lado, 1957). This develops the pupils' metalinguistic awareness by developing their 'ability to think about and reflect upon the nature and functions of language (Pratt \& Grieve, 1984, p. 2). This is particularly important in Wales at the present moment, as the new curriculum (Welsh Government, 2019), which is being implemented in schools, places an emphasis on moving away from the traditional method of only teaching the Welsh and foreign language to pupils by providing them with the words and sentences to learn, and instead to educate them on how languages work, links between different languages, origins of words and language patterns. It is hoped that they will have a deeper appreciation of languages rather than to simply learn phrases to repeat them, and a greater depth of understanding of languages such as Welsh and foreign languages from around the world.

## Limitations of such practice in the L2 context

There has been much debate about the use of the L1 within the L2 classroom during recent years (Wach \& Monroy, 2019). Macaro et al (2016) believe that there are three aspects to view this debate: the 'virtual position', which denotes L2 exclusivity, the 'maximal position', which accepts occasional L1 use within L2 exclusivity, and the 'optimal position', which encourages judicial use of the L1 as an important resource for L2 teaching. In the context of these English-medium schools, it's essential that the optimal position is adopted, as the main language of instruction in the schools is

English and Welsh is an additional factor. Macaro (2009) and Littlewood (2014) argue that this approach results in deprivation of the L2 for the pupils, especially as the classroom is the only exposure that the pupils get to the L2, however, by using the optimal position, translation could be used widely in order to explain the information in both languages by introducing the Welsh words while also saying it in English to ensure the understanding of the pupils.

However, translation does come with its limitations. By translating a phrase in both languages, especially when the English version is said first, the pupils may not feel the need to listen to the Welsh translation as they have already understood what was being said when it was uttered in English. In order to avoid this, the Welsh should be used first and last, and that the English doesn't provide a direct translation, but rather, extends on the explanation. A translation provided by the teachers doesn't encourage the pupils to use Welsh. It is therefore a method of input, and as discussed in the literature review, in order for acquisition to be successful, output of the language on the part of the pupils must take place. Pupils should be encouraged to translate their answers when contributing to the classroom discussion in order for the use of translation to be effective. Translation could also be used as a task that the pupils could undertake via written form. This technique is widely used (Hummel, 2010) and has been found to be useful in a number of studies (Hummel, 1995; Prince, 1996; Laufer \& Shmueli, 1997) Consideration must be given to the suitability of such a task, as these lessons are based around subject knowledge, and the addition of Welsh is only considered as an extra, and therefore shouldn't hinder to delivery of the subject information.
(ii) Code-switching

## Pedagogical benefits of such practice in an L2 context

Originally believed to be an entirely random process, manifesting itself as a linguistic error on behalf of the bilingual due to their incompetency (Moodley, 2007), research in the 1970s recognised code-switching as a function that could be used consciously and intentionally in order to strengthen the delivery of a target language in a language learning situation in a strategic manner (Duran, 1994; Goyvearts, 1995).

According to Muysken (2000) code-switching can be presented in 3 ways: inserting a word from one language into a larger context of another language; alternating between phrases from one language to the other within a sentence; and sharing languages structures from different languages. The examples observed within the school environment reflect the second category, with both Welsh and English being used within the same sentence e.g:

Dydd Llun dwi eisiau i chi focus on pronunciation (School A)

Have a look in your book dros y penwythnos (School A)

## Limitations of such practice in an L2 context

Some researchers (Chambers, 1991; Halliwell \& Jones; 1991; MacDonald, 1993) argue that a pupil's L1 should not be used when trying to deliver the target language, and that pupils do not need to understand each word in order to understand what is being said. On the other hand, Skinner (1985) believes that not using the L1 in a target language situation creates an obstacle for the learners as they are unable to connect to knowledge that they already have in the L1. Regardless of one's position on this debate, if languages are to be mixed within the input, pupils must be allowed to mix languages in their output, and teachers need to be aware of how to help encourage pupils to learn how borrowed vocabulary/phrases can also be presented in Welsh whilst not instilling a monolingual ideology. Pupils need the opportunity to draw on their full repertoire of linguistic resources in order to make themselves heard whilst using their L2, and should be praised for their efforts.

Despite the controversy of code-switching in language teaching, in this study, the English was provided as an aid and a context for the pupils to be able to understand the Welsh words that they were hearing. This approach was particularly successful in exposing the pupils to new vocabulary within a context that they could understand with the aid of English, and was a good method of developing the pupils' knowledge beyond that of the set phrases that were observed within the other lessons.

### 10.1.5 Visual aids.

The use of visual aids to remind pupils of Welsh vocabulary and to set a clear status for the language, both within the establishment and in relation to a given subject matter, was a practice observed in all four schools.

## Pedagogical benefits of such practice in an L2 context

Patesan et al. (2018) firmly believes that using visual aids within the classroom can lead to much better success in learning, particularly given the increase of visual images as a form of communication within educational contexts in the $21^{\text {st }}$ century (Bamford, 2013). Thomas and Keinders (2010) consider visual aids as the best way for teachers to be able to convey concepts in the clearest and most effective manner in order to transfer information to the pupils. Moriarty (1994) believes that this is due to the fact that humans develop visual language skills before their verbal language skills, as is demonstrated in the need for picture books for young children, and therefore visual abilities are grounded from a very young age and are favoured over textual information by pupils. The use of visual aids could be used as a particularly beneficial approach for pupils who may lack in confidence and/or are shy, and are often too afraid to ask questions in the classroom. By having suitable visual aids around the classroom they could refer to them if they feel unable to ask verbally.

When learning a language, the learners will journey from very little knowledge of the language to fluency at the end, passing varying milestones on the way. This means that a learner has varying abilities at different levels, and therefore the input that they receive should reflect their abilities at that specific time in their journey. This could mean simplifying grammar or introducing specific sets of vocabulary (Fotos, 2001). Despite this claim, the Comprehensible Input Hypothesis encourages the use of language from a level above what the learners are currently capable of in order to motivate the learners to continue to progress (Krashen, 1985).

The use of visual aids observed within this study makes this an accessible way of providing the information in a way that the teacher sees fit for the levels of the pupils. It is also a good way to provide exposure to the pupils of not only subject
specific terms, which broadens their vocabulary, but also to how the words are written.

## Limitations of such practice in an L2 context

Visual aids can become dated and limited in terms of scope unless they are adapted, updated or replaced on a regular basis. The beauty of this particular strategy is that there is scope to change visual aids on a regular basis, particularly those that are created by the teacher, in order to ensure that there is a constant flow of new information for the pupils. Changing these aids on a regular basis may also heighten pupils' attention to the 'change'; however, changing the displays alone may not increase pupils' engagement with their content unless they are highlighted/drawn attention to by the teacher. As noted above, learners are more likely to process information if they both see and hear the content together than they would if they were only hearing it. Teachers need to vocalise the information on the walls and encourage pupils to produce those words and sentences. Visual aids can also help draw attention to certain aspects of the language by using visual techniques such as underlining certain words or making them italic in order to draw attention to the most important words (Sharwood-Smith, 1991). This would work best with sentences in order to differentiate the most important words (the subject terms for example) from the rest of the sentences, and would also aid the teacher to develop this approach of visual aids from only using words to showcasing sentences. Pupils should also be given an opportunity to have an input into the displays to encourage a sense of ownership on the process and to stimulate the pupils to consider what words they would most like to see (words that they find most difficult, perhaps), while also bringing their attention to the key terms that they could use within their lessons.

### 10.2 Summary

During these observations, some good practices were observed, as discussed above. These good practices derived from an attempt to normalise the use of the Welsh
language outside of the formal Welsh lessons. This is particularly important in the English-medium schools observed. Children raised in non-Welsh-speaking families attending English-medium schools in North East Wales hear very little Welsh out in the community, ${ }^{23}$ and often think of Welsh as being confined to school, the church and the eisteddfod. Providing opportunities to engage with Welsh in some form or another outside the Welsh lesson are therefore vital for their own linguistic development and for their understanding of Welsh as a living, thriving language.

The bilingual discourse strategies of translations and code-switching proved to be successful in aiding the pupils to understand Welsh vocabulary. In the current schools these examples were observed within the Welsh lessons themselves, and not as a part of Cymraeg bob dydd applied in the context of other subjects. However, these strategies are useful in many ways, including increasing understanding of meaning, understanding of form-meaning similarities/differences across languages, and in allowing children to engage with both languages in their learning. Teachers need to understand how and why such strategies work in order to implement them successfully when teaching any subject area. The Complex Adaptive System (Ellis \& Larsen-Freeman, 2009) considers the importance of the combination of social interaction and cognitive processes when learning a language, and the importance of recognising factors such as age, proficiency, motivation and their role within different contexts and situations. The complexity of the language learning context leads to the Post-Method Perspective, where Kumaravadivelu (2012) states that there is no single method that can be implemented in the language learning context, and that teachers must consider these factors in order to make an informed choice on the best approach for their specific lessons. This includes changing the perspectives of the teachers from using their current knowledge and how to teach it to being

[^20]"reflective practitioners who deeply think about the principles, practices and processes of classroom instruction and bring to their task a considerable degree of creativity, artistry and context sensitivity" (p. 9).

Therefore, although suggestions have been made within this chapter on how to develop the use of Cymraeg bob dydd further to attempt a better success at the implementation, the freedom of the teacher and pupils should also be taken into account in order to ensure that these methods are used in the best suited way to their contexts in order for them to work. This is particularly important as Wales' new curriculum is implemented, as the thematic structure will provide the teachers with more freedom to be creative to deliver Cymraeg bob dydd in a more creative manner.

Although there were some examples of Welsh observed in these classrooms, as shown in the tables presented in this chapter, in real terms, the use of Welsh observed was very minimal, with some lessons involving no Welsh at all. In order to understand more about the factors that influence the use of Welsh in the classroom, it was necessary to explore the feelings and attitudes of the pupils towards using Welsh, along with a study of teachers' perceptions of using Welsh as a part of their lessons. These studies and their results are provided in Chapters 8 and 9 respectively.

### 10.2 Discussion 2: Pupil questionnaires

The results of Study 2 revealed that there are three factors which can present themselves as being barriers for pupils to engage in using the Welsh language: their enjoyment of learning Welsh, their attitudes towards the Welsh language, and their confidence in using Welsh.

### 10.2.1 Enjoyment

Despite a a chi square test revealing that pupils in Welsh-medium schools found Welsh lessons to be more enjoyable than the pupils from English-medium schools, pupils in both the English-medium schools and the Welsh-medium schools generally enjoyed their Welsh lessons. Despite the general enjoyment displayed, there was a vast difference between schools C \& D at 50\% and 54\% respectively and schools A \& B which had a much higher percentage at $85 \%$ and $89 \%$ respectively. For schools C \& D it's important that the enjoyment of Welsh lessons is addressed, as enjoyment has been linked to other positive emotions and outcomes within education. The role of emotions in education has been growing in importance during the past 25 years (Schutz \& Pekrun, 2007), and it has been acknowledged that different emotions can have an effect on the learning process for pupils in school (Hascher, 2010). Connections have been found between positive emotions such as enjoyment and being content at school (Hascher, 2007), a higher level of motivation (Deci \& Ryan, 2002), more engagement in their work (Gendolla, 2003), an ability to use more complex cognitive strategies when learning (Isen, 2008) and a higher achievement (Fend,
1997). Many factors are therefore affected by the level of enjoyment that pupils experience in schools, which makes enjoyable learning a vital part of the lessons that are delivered.

A connection between enjoyment and use was found in this study. $93 \%$ of the pupils in English-medium schools who didn't enjoy Welsh lessons chose not to use Welsh outside the Welsh lessons, while this figure was only $53 \%$ amongst pupils who did enjoy Welsh lessons, implying that the pupils who did use Welsh lessons were much more likely to use Welsh themselves outside the formal Welsh lesson. A similar pattern was seen in Welsh-medium schools, where only $27 \%$ of the pupils who didn't enjoy Welsh lessons chose to speak Welsh mostly at school, compared to $61 \%$ of the pupils who did enjoy Welsh lessons also chosing to use Welsh the most at school.It has been found that the level of enjoyment decreases as pupils reach adolescence (Pekrun, 1993; Eder, 1995) despite generally enjoying being in school as primary school pupils (Helmke, 1993), which makes the task of ensuring enjoyment in the language lessons harder for teachers in secondary schools.

When the pupils were asked about which elements of the Welsh lessons they enjoyed, three themes emerged: personal progression; pedagogy of the lessons; and links with the wider culture. The personal progression theme included many examples where the pupils felt that they were improving in their Welsh language skills and that they enjoyed seeing themselves developing and beginning to understand more about the language. Park (2003) states that in order to achieve a life-long sense of personal satisfaction, being satisfied with one's own development should begin before adolescence. The feelings that they experience during this period could provide the basis to how they feel about their progression during the rest of their lifetime, as this is the age that children are able to learn to adapt and how to react to various situations. Life-long negative life satisfaction can impact on a persons overall mental health (Huebner et al, 2005) which can then lead to problems such as alcohol and drug use, anxiety and social issues (Gilman \& Huebner, 2003), which emphasises the importance of early intervention in ensuring a positive sense of self-satisfaction. Linley et al (2006) argues that schools play a large part in the development of personal satisfaction due to the amount of time a child spends at school and its influence on the child's life.

However, the opposite effect can also be caused by pupils who do not feel satisfied with their progress, and can be anxious about not being at their desired level. Some of the other pupils that participated in the questionnaire found the lessons too difficult and that they struggled with the language. Mutations, pronounciation and tenses were amongst the examples of what these pupils found difficult, which these factors causing a barrier to their enjoyment of the lessons. Teachers should be encouraged to consider a holistic view of each pupil, and to implement interventions to provide extra guidance for pupils who are struggling in order to boost their personal satisfaction (Baker et al, 2003). Park and Peterson (2003) argue that such programmes that aim to encourage pupils' development and their own satisfaction are more successful when they are implemented early and are continued over a long period of time. Seligman et al (2005) states that many positive tasks should be used as a part of a successful intervention in encouraging positive satisfaction by a pupil. Tasks can include guiding the pupils to focus on the elements that they can do, and tasks that they do enjoy. They could then create a list of things that they would be able to do (master certain mutations or a pronounciation etc) and prepare on how they are going to achieve this in small steps. When they achieve their goals, they should be praised and made to feel positive about their accomplishments. Studies such as Sheldon and Lyubomirsky (2006), Watkins et al (2003), Emmons and McCullough (2003) and Froh et al (2008) all reported positive results following similar tasks with pupils.

By taking into account that some pupils found the Welsh lessons to be manageable and enjoyed progressing with the language while others found the lessons to be difficult, it's no surprise that some pupils suggested setting the classes in terms of ability would be beneficial. Differentiation is an element which is essential in teaching due to the differences between pupils and the need to adapt to those differences. Differentiation can be based on two theoretical models (Roiha, 2014). Firstly, Gardner (2008) believes that all pupils are different in terms of their intelligence and abilities and teaching should be adapted to suit each indivicual's capabilities. Secondly, Vygotsky's (1978) theory, the Zone of Proximal Development, is related to an individual's development and how they progress from one stage to the next. Teachers should be encouraged to consider the pupils' individual abilities and the speed in which they are able to develop from one aspect to the next and ensure
that the teaching and tasks are suited to those abilities. By setting pupils, pupils who have similar levels of abilities and progress speeds are grouped together, and therefore, differentiation in made easier for the teacher as they have been organised into similar abilitiy groups. Children also have tendancies to make comparisons between their own abilities and others. This often reduces the self-esteem of children, especially ones with dyslexia as they compare their literacy abilities with that of their peers (e.g. Humphrey \& Mullins, 2002; Glazzard, 2010). While setting tells a child directly where their abilities lie, they are at least no longer seeing other people surpass them daily.

Pedagogies can be categorised into three groups: a behaviourism pedagogy, where the teacher adopts the role of a sole authority teacher and has total control over the content of the lesson (Skinner, 1948), a constructivism pedagogy, where the pupils are the centre of the lessons, and are given projects to work on through the medium of an inquiry based method (Piaget, 1964) and a social constructivism pedagogy, where there is a mixture of both teacher-led and pupil-led elements to the lesson where the teacher guides but the pupils are given the freedom to work individually (Vygotsky, 1978). The choice of pedagogies by the teachers were used as both positive and negative examples in relation to enjoyment of the Welsh lessons in this study. Some pupils stated that they enjoyed aspects such as using games, group-work and speaking tasks etc in their Welsh lessons, while other pupils noted that they didn't enjoy aspects such as writing tasks and copying from the board. Ensuring that the lessons are enjoyable in addition to informative should be an important feature on the teachers' planning work. Tasks such as groupwork and conversing are considered by scholars such as Webster (2011) and Wiggins (2015) to give more freedom to the pupils than tasks such as copying what the teacher has written on the board to their own books which implies that tasks which are placed closer towards a constructivism zone on the continuum than a behaviourism approach appeal more to the pupils.

Methods of assessments such as tests and speaking in front of the class were also noted as factors in which the pupils didn't enjoy about Welsh lessons. While assessment is an integral part of schooling, and is an element of school which can make pupils anxious, the Welsh

Government aim to reform the roll of assessment in their new curriculum (Welsh Government, 2020a). The Welsh Government state that they have a desire for assessment to become an integral part of daily life in schools were teachers and pupils work together to recognise strengths and areas to improve. The Government hope that by including the pupils in the process and by making it a part of daily life, they become unaware that they are actually being assessed as it's a more normalised process than tests and exams. This also provides the pupils with an ownership of the process as they are encouraged to reflect and set goals which improves their own self-assessment skills. As pupils have reported anxiety around the use of assessment and testing, this should diminish the anxiety caused and help the pupils to view it as a positive process.

Finally, some pupils felt that forming a connection with their community and wider culture by learning to speak Welsh was a factor that contributed to their enjoyment of Welsh lessons. These pupils felt that they were learning something that they could use outside school and something which is a part of the country that they live in, which makes them feel a stronger connection to the Welsh culture. Some studies (Bougie et al, 2003; Wright \& Taylor, 1995) claim that there is some evidence that learning a heritage language can support self-esteem when speaking the heritage language is valued by the society. Lambert (1990) argues that there is a connection between the strength of the relationship with the cultural background and the tone of attitudes towards the second language. The sense of identity and a connection to Wales is something that the Welsh Government are keen to adopt as a part of their new curriculum (Welsh Government, 2020b). The Welsh Government state that:

Instilling learners with passion and pride in themselves, their communities and their country is central to the four purposes. Learners should be grounded in an understanding of the identities, landscapes and histories that come together to form their cynefin. This will not only allow them to develop a strong sense of their own identity and well-being, but to develop an understanding of others' identities and make connections with people, places and histories elsewhere in Wales and across the world (p. 30).

Armour (2009) believes that when a person learns an additional language, that process can have an affect on their identity, in what is referred to as an 'identity slippage'. The language
a person speaks can determine a person's identity (Joseph, 2004), therefore in this context the pupils may be feeling a stronger sense of belonging to the Welsh culture the more of the language they are able to speak. Work by Cummins et al. (2015) identifies a need for an identity reform if pupils are to succeed in engaging with learning a language, however educational practicioners often don't engage with the element of identity, and concentrate solely on teaching vocabulary and sentence forms. This should change in the next few years in Wales with the introduction of the new curriculum. The new curriculum is designed to encourage the sense of belonging to the Welsh culture, which is an important step in making the pupils feel a sense of belonging to the Welsh community which should, in turn, boost their enthusiasm for learning Welsh.

### 10.2.2 Attitudes

Study 2 involved the analysis of 17 statements that were given to the pupils with an instruction to note how much they agreed with those statements. The 17 statements, that were distributed to pupils in English-medium, Welsh-medium and bilingual schools were analysed into four categories: affective factors, emotive connotations, cultural applications and educational aspirations. It was clear across all four categories that the pupils from English-medium schools had the most negative attitudes of all the different school linguistic types. The English-medium schools had the highest rating of 'no opinion' in all statements apart from one. Attitudes towards a language determins the pupils' engagement in developing their skills in that language and the overall success that they will receive in learning the language (Cummins, 1993), which makes ensuring a positive attitude towards Welsh paramount if the pupils are to be successful in learning Welsh. This attitude towards other languages is not unusual, due to the importance that is placed on English as a lingua franca, and monolinguals believing, because they are able to speak English, they are able to get by sufficiently and don't need other languages (De Swaan, 2001). Pupils in Europe generally are more eager to learn English than to learn other languages (Coleman, 1995, 1996) which is thought to be because of pupils having more interest in languages that have a high status within society (Zhan \& Hopper, 1985). This has had a great affect on the Welsh language due to the prestige that English holds as a global language, and Welsh's status as a minority language (Phillipson, 2003). The high levels of having no opinion in the statements
in this study revelals that this may be the case in English-medium schools in north east Wales, as they simply don't see the importance of needing Welsh as they are already proficient in English

The statements in the 'affective implications' category represent how the pupils relate to the Welsh language, while 'cultural applications' statements focus on Welsh as a part of a wider culture. Interestingly, the pupils noted that the Welsh language was important for Welsh culture, for their future, and for their career progressions in the cultural applications statements, however they didn't apply the same level of positive attitudes in the affective implications category, where they were expected to apply the Welsh language to themselves with statements such as 'the Welsh language is a part of my identity' and 'I need the Welsh language'. This shows, that while they may hold the Welsh language in high regard in the wider world, they don't hold it in high regard when considering it as a part of their own personal lives. This has been discovered in research by Gruffydd (2000) which also revealed that positive attitudes towards the Welsh language weren't transferred into its use within people's daily lives. This shows that the attitudes of people in Wales haven't changed during the past 20 years. Gruffydd also discovered that the need for Welsh as a prerequisite for a respectable job was the biggest motivator for people outside the heartlands showing a desire to be able to speak Welsh, which concurs with this study that also shows that the pupils see the economic benefits of being able to speak Welsh. Similar results have been discovered in other countries with a study conducted in Ireland revealing that while Irish people had positive attitudes towards the Irish language, they rarely chose to use it (Brudner \& White, 1979), with similar results in the United States where immigrants displayed positive attitudes towards their own languages but choose to use English instead (Fishman, 1966). This suggests that in the context of attitudes, instrumental orientation which refers to the benefits of knowing a language for economic benefits is greater than that of integrative orientation in Wales, which is the need to speak a language to integrate with the local community. These two dimensions (instrumental and integrative orientations), as noted by Baker (1992) can be applied individually, and perhaps the instrumental orientation is greater in the context of English-medium schools because of the absence of Welsh-speaking pupils, therefore an integrative orientation is not required (Dörnyei, 2010). This, again, brings us back to the attitude that English is sufficient in the
communities of Wales, and therefore pupils in English-medium schools don't view Welsh as something that is needed in order to communicate with the local community.

Studies that have compared the attitudes of male and female pupils towards language, there have been mixed responses. Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) and Fuentes and Mojica's (1999) studies found that when comparing male and females' attitudes towards English, males had the most positive attitudes, however in studies by Carroll (1975), Pritchard (1987) and Pritchard and Loulidi (1994), the results revealed that it was the females that had a more positive attitude towards languages. When comparing male and female pupils in this study, there were fewer differences in their attitudes compared to the comparisons that were made across the three types of linguistic schools. No significance was found between the two genders in all but four of the statements. Similarly, studies by Rahman (2008) and Hussein et al (2009) also found that there were no significances between male and females when comparing their attitudes towards languages.

### 10.2.3 Confidence

While confidence is discussed in more detail in the next section of the discussion (discussion 3), when discussed in realtion to the teachers, however low levels of confidence were also discovered in realtion to the pupils. An obvious difference could be seen when comparing the confidence levels of pupils in English-medium schools to Welsh-medium schools, with, as expected, the pupils in English-medium schools displaying lower confidence while most pupils in Welsh-medium schools felt quite or very confident in speaking Welsh. The opposite is seen when asked about their confidence in speaking English. Although the gap between both types of schools, a higher percentage of pupils in English-medium schools felt very confident in speaking English compared to pupils in Welsh-medium schools. Ensuring that pupils feel confident when using the target language is vital to avoid any negative feelings such as anxiety. When faced with any weaknesses that they may view as a threat, humans have a natural instinct to attempt to avoid them in order to minimise any failure that they may encounter (Mruk, 1999). This means that if a pupil is worried about making mistakes or failing in their attempts to speak the target language, they may not engage with the language and will not succeed to learn it. Language anxiety is said to also be present when
individuals are exposed to a situation which is unfamiliar to them (Horwitz et al, 1986). A high level of language anxiety and a low level of confidence can trigger many other negative emotions such as shyness, embarrassment and low self-esteem (Aragao, 2011), and can make the pupils feel as though the language classroom is an obstacle course rather than an environement in which they feel comfortable and content (Nicolson \& Adams, 2010). This means that encouraging positive feelings and confidence is essential in ensuring the success of the pupils' language learning (Seidlhofer, 1999; Zhand \& Zhong, 2012).

Research shows that there is a link between proficiency in a language and confidence (Dewaele \& Ip, 2013; Liu, 2006; Dewaele \& MacIntyre, 2014). This means that as a person's abilities to speak a language improves, their anxiety generally reduces and their confidence improves. The pupils in English-medium schools reported how confident they felt in speaking Welsh before their time in secondary school and how confident they currently felt in speaking Welsh. Their confidence levels had improved during the time between primary school and year 8, with the most pupils reporting 'middling' confidence when in primary school, and the majority of the pupils now reporting that they feel 'quite' confident. This trend is to be expected, in line with research on the connection between proficiency and confidence, when development in their Welsh language skills during their time at secondary school should result in a higher level of confidence as they become more proficient. Despite this, there was not much of an improvement in the 'very condfident' category, with a very little number of the pupils reporting that they feel very confident in speaking Welsh. Interestingly, when the pupils were asked to rate their confidence in reading, writing and speaking Welsh. There was not a large difference to see between the three categories.

### 10.3 Discussion 3: Evaluation of teachers' confidence and the additional personalised support

As the Welsh language support sessions were delivered over the course of six weeks, they were not expected to reverse the linguistic situation in any context; however, they did reveal in some interesting - and largely positive - outcomes that are worthy of further discussion, and that have important implications for training and support, as noted below.

First, it was clear, from the findings of Phase 1 and 2 in particular, that reluctance to use Welsh is often linked to low levels of confidence. These low levels of confidence seemed to be fuelled by the teacher's fear of being wrong, as judged by other teachers and by the pupils in their immediate environment. Respondents in Phase 3 noted quite clearly how the one-to-one Welsh language support sessions helped break down that confidence barrier, making it possible to feel free to make mistakes in a supportive environment.

One clear barrier to the successful implementation of Cymraeg bob dydd, as noted above, has to do with teachers' minimal knowledge of Welsh. On a global level, almost all teachers, regardless of their subject expertise, are now expected to be language teachers, and motivated to deliver language in addition to subject knowledge (Fan, 2013). In contexts of linguistic revitalisation, however, this expectation goes beyond addressing L1 language skills and involves the introduction of L2 terms and phrases in a naturalistic way. This poses a challenge, not only for the teacher who needs to acquire the language, but also for the education sector as a whole in terms of how best to support non-Welsh-speaking staff to be able to use some Welsh in their teaching. However, in order for this to happen, we first need to understand the barriers L2 teachers may face. Some known barriers are outlined below:

L2 learners often hold unrealistic views of the ideal L2 self (Yashima, 2009). These views are often fuelled by comparisons they make with their current level to the level that they wish to be at (Ađalsteinsson et al, 2014), but can also arise from the awareness (as experienced by themselves and by others) of the changes that occur when speaking in an L2. For example, teachers who are not at what Medgyes (2001) refers to as a threshold level of proficiency in order to be able to teach effectively are more likely to be dependent on resources (e.g., textbooks, worksheets, and teacher guides) and less likely to be creative and improvise in their teaching (Dewaele, 2015) than they would in their native language. Creativity and improvisation are known to sustain pupils' motivation (Piccardo, 2013), and particularly so in language learning classrooms (Arnold, 1999). Teachers who are non-native are therefore likely to experience changes to their teaching styles that are not necessarily intended. Similarly, bilinguals often report that they feel different when speaking one language or another and may not always feel like themselves (Dewaele \& Nakano, 2012). In contexts of Higher Education, non-native English-speaking lecturers delivering courses
through the medium of English are often perceived as being dry, too technical, and lacking spark (Wilkinson, 2005), less lively, less expressive, and less fluent than native-speakers, with slower speech rates, issues with pronunciation, and often limited in their understanding of new terminology (Klaassen, 2001). Non-native speaking teachers can therefore experience unintended changes to how they are perceived as a consequence of using their non-native language. Since these changes to a teacher's teaching style and persona do not often go unnoticed, they often lead to unintended consequences for the speaker. Within the context of integrating language and content, having a weak grasp of the target language may lead to reduced levels of self-confidence and increased levels of anxiety in delivering that language in the classroom:

Self-perceived communication confidence can be viewed as an important predictor of communicative behaviour, mainly because learners' decision to speak is based on their own evaluation of their L2 proficiency level (Mystkowska-Wiertelelak \& Pawlak, 2017, p.37).

A second barrier therefore has to do with affective factors, most notably language anxiety the feeling of fear and apprehension when having to use a language in which the speaker is not proficient (Du, 2009) - and self-confidence, characterised by a speaker's levels of competence and anxiety (Clement, 1980, 1986). Whilst a wealth of research has identified teachers' role in supporting children's mental health and wellbeing (Mazzer \& Rickwook, 2013; 2015; Brooker, 2009; Graham et al, 2011; Ekornes et al, 2012 Askell-Williams \& Lawson, 2013), surprisingly little is known about issues relating to teachers' own mental health, despite suggestions that teachers' mental health can be of greater importance than their subject knowledge or the teaching method employed (Smith, 1968; Mundia, 2013). $47 \%$ of educational professionals recently reported that they had experienced depression, anxiety and panic attacks due to their work (Education Support Partnership, 2018), which are conditions that are closely linked to an individual's levels of self-esteem (Sowislo \& Orth, 2013). All teachers experience stress at some point or another. However, dealing with any stressor is much easier when using an L1 than when using an L2 (Brown, 2000). Given that teachers who have low levels of confidence and high anxiety levels are more vulnerable to
difficulties relating to the delivery of their teaching (Schwarzer \& Hallum, 2008), understanding what causes these internal states in various external contexts is important. This is particularly the case in the L2 context.

In the L2 context, foreign language anxiety is different from general anxiety in that it arises from the uniqueness of a specific classroom context (Horwitz et al., 1986). That is, language learning is dependent both on the context of the learning (the classroom experience) and on the individual characteristics that the learner brings to the context (Mystkowska-Wiertelak \& Pawlak, 2017). Language anxiety hinders language use, due to the development of negative feelings around linguistic performance, mutual understanding and fear of negative evaluation from others (Horwitz et al., 1986). Such negative states lead learners to interact less, speak sparingly, make greater use of non-verbal/gestural language, and avoid participation (Horwitz et al. 1986; Schlenker \& Leary, 1982), leading to lower levels of linguistic attainment (Dewaele, 2007). Similarly, a negative feeling of self-confidence impacts learners' willingness to communicate (Clément et al., 2003; Yashima, 2002) a feeling that can also contribute to the high levels of anxiety experienced by the L2 teacher (Park \& Lee, 2005). Reducing language anxiety and increasing self-confidence are therefore crucial to the success of any pedagogical models promoting increased language use, particularly when the teacher delivering the provision is a non-native learner.

Ensuring that there is a whole-school approach to supporting teachers who are reluctant speakers of Welsh, or at the beginner stage of learning, is thus critical to the success of any such intervention. This not only relates to colleagues within the school but also to the pupils themselves who can feel empowered in their abilities to support the teacher's journey as an L2 learner, as indicated by Teacher 3 in Phase 3. This could be achieved through collaborative activities that promote the use of Welsh in the school, where pupils gain recognition for the support and guidance they provide. Whilst the one-to-one support was geared towards increasing teachers' ability to deliver Cymraeg bob dydd, the experiences gained through receiving the one-to-one support led to increased engagement with, and use of Welsh, in general (in class, with colleagues in the staff room), increased delivery of subject specific knowledge in Welsh (unless deemed inappropriate to do so - e.g., with lower ability maths groups), and creating Welsh/bilingual classroom learning resources. These findings suggest that such an intervention - even if delivered in short phases - can
impact positively on teachers' willingness and ability to expand their engagement with and use of Welsh, provided that the teacher is a willing participator in the process.

The results of the observations found that the personalised language support that the teachers had during the 6 weeks had positive effects. While they felt more confident to use some Welsh within their lessons, this was apparent when we compare the observations from Chapter 6 to the observations in this chapter. The use of Welsh was very minimal, and in many lessons, none-existent in the English-medium schools that were observed that had no support in Chapter 6 (condition one). However the use of Welsh in the schools that had received support (condition two) was shown to be extended.

As can be seen from Table 44, in Condition 1 (no personalised Welsh language support), very little Welsh was heard, during the four days of observations across the four schools, with many lessons containing no verbal Welsh at all. However, the types of contexts where Welsh was heard were similar across all four schools, and fell under one of five themes, as shown in Table 3. (For more detailed information, see Parry \& Thomas, in preparation.) With the exception of code-switching, which was delivered by Welsh language teachers who were clearly fluent in Welsh, the Welsh that pupils heard from 25 teachers within the four schools was very limited. When it did occur, it took a very structured form and did very little to elicit pupils' use of Welsh. In sum, the delivery of Welsh by each of the teachers (and the responses by pupils) can be categorised as minimal.

In Condition 2 (personalised Welsh language support) three teachers who received personalised one-to-one support from a Welsh tutor on a weekly basis for 6 weeks were observed teaching in their classroom environments. Teacher 1 was already nearly fluent in Welsh but lacked confidence in using it, but Teachers 2 and 3 were beginners. These same teachers were subsequently interviewed about their experiences of the course and how it had impacted on their delivery of Welsh (if at all) (see Phase 3 below). All three teachers were observed to be using Welsh, but to different degrees, depending on the pupils' language skills and the subject being taught. In the case of two of the teachers (one of which included the nearly fluent teacher), the Welsh that was observed went beyond the traditional types of expressions that are usually aligned to Cymraeg bob dydd (as outlined in

Phase 1), whereas the type of Welsh used by the remaining teacher tended to be more confined to those forms. Table 44 outlines these differences:

Table 44: Types of examples observed under both conditions

| Theme | Condition one: Schools with no support | Condition two: Schools that had support |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Framing of the lesson | Opening and closing the lesson using Welsh expressions: <br> Bore/P'nawn da - "good morning/afternoon" <br> Dewch i mewn - come in <br> Caewch eich Ilyfrau - "close your books" <br> Wela i chi wedyn - I'll see you later | Gwaith cartref os gwelwch yn dda - "homework please" <br> Amser cofrestru rwan - "registration time now" <br> Cofrestr gyntaf. Oes yna unrhwy yn ddim yma neu ydi pawb yma? - <br> Registration first. Is there anyone not here or is everyone here?" <br> Gobeithio bo chi gyd wedi gorffen labelu nawr - "I hope you have all <br> finished labelling now" |
| Eliciting set expressions | Elicitation of yma "here" in response to the name-call register <br> Eliciting pupil responses to questions: <br> Oes unrhyw un eisiau... - "Does anyone need (a)...?" | Elicitation of yma "here" in response to the name-call register <br> Be ti'n edrych ar? - "What are you looking at?" |
| Classroom management | Tri, dau, un...tawelwch - "three, two, one...silence" <br> Eisteddwch i lawr. Rwan, 'dw i am wneud y gofrestr - "Sit down. <br> Now I will do the register" <br> Pawb i wrando - "everyone listen" <br> Da iawn - "very good/well done" | Llai o siarad os gwelwch yn dda - "less talking please" <br> Dau funud ifynd - "two minutes to go" |
| Distaw 'te plis "quiet then please" |  |  |


| Code-switching | During Welsh lessons, teachers combined Welsh and English purposefully to enhance pupil understanding: <br> Go into chwech o grwps <br> go-into Eng $^{\text {-six }}{ }_{\text {Welsh }}-\mathrm{Of}_{\text {Welsh- }}$-groups Borr <br> "Go into six groups" <br> Dydd Llun 'dwi'n gweld chi gwers pedwar. Dydd Llun 'dwi eisiau i chi focus on pronunciation. You'll be doing a performance in front of the class, Dydd Gwener. Have a look in your book dros y penwythnos. <br> "Monday I am seeing you fourth lesson. Monday I want you to focus on pronunciation. You'll be doing a performance in front of the class, Friday. Have a look in your book over the weekend." | You put the ongl lem in that group - "you put the acute angle in that group" <br> Now mark your work with a beiro goch "now mark your work with a red biro" <br> 'den ni wedi bod drwy'r rhain, and now dwi ishio i chi roi nhw mewn tabl - "we've been through these, and now I want you to put them in a table" |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Visual aid | Poster displays included a range of Welsh vocabulary and set phrases, including: <br> days of the week <br> months of the year <br> colours |  |


|  | question forms - e.g., plis 'ga i bensil? "please may I have a <br> pencil?" <br> Subject specific vocabulary - e.g., rhyfel cartref "civil war"; tynnu <br> "subtract"; etc. <br> Key titles presented on the Whiteboard: <br> Nod y wers 'lesson objective' <br> Gwaith dosbarth 'classwork' <br> Labels: <br> ymchwil 'research' <br> cynllunio "design" <br> Blwyddyn 8 "Year 8" |   <br>   <br>   <br> Translation  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

What these results show is that all teachers - Condition 1 and 2 - tend to approach Cymraeg bob dydd in a similar way in terms of how, when and where they introduce Welsh into the classroom as shown by the overlapping themes presented in Table 44. However, those who had received individualised Welsh language support training went a little further in their use of Welsh, exploring more advanced concepts around code-switching and using more elaborative language patterns. However, the fact that teachers may have used more Welsh and in wider variety of ways does not necessarily mean that those teachers were more confident in their delivery. Phase 3 explore the extent to which the additional support provided impacted on teachers' confidence in delivering Cymraeg bob dydd.

Second, there were clear differences in the use of Welsh as observed by those who had received one-to-one language support and by those who had not. Across the 25 different teachers who had not received any specific Welsh language support training, the use of Welsh was minimal (albeit part of the Welsh curriculum), and, where used, was presented largely in the form of simple set statements that did little to elicit Welsh responses from pupils or to expand on and/or develop pupils' knowledge of Welsh. Conversely, across the three teachers who had received the one-to-one Welsh language support sessions, the use of Welsh was much more prominent, featuring more elaborated forms and utterances that could serve to provide more varied structures in the input to pupils and elicit more open responses from them. However, in all cases, the use of Welsh tended to veer towards set phrases and structures (framing the lesson; classroom management; etc.), which, by themselves, serve to normalise the use of Welsh outside the Welsh as a subject lesson, but, unless developed, lessens the opportunities for dyadic interactions between the teacher and pupil or opportunities to elicit spoken forms. This suggests that more training is needed both for teachers, and for those supporting their linguistic development, in terms of the purpose of IW and the opportunities it affords to develop both teachers' and pupils' knowledge and use of Welsh. In a
similar vein, the results of Phase 2 observations show the lack of consistency in the delivery of Cymraeg bob dydd, not only across schools and regions, but also within schools within specific regions, across teachers, subjects and age groups. There is a clear need for a more consistent approach to IW at a policy level, with clear guidance for the expected outcomes in order that schools can plan effectively for its implementation.

Together, these findings suggest that even short-term, one-to-one language training can support teachers who are currently unable or unwilling to use Welsh in the classroom to gain confidence to start using at least some of the language in their teaching. Such interventions need strategic support at school level in order that teachers are given the time and opportunity to increase their knowledge of Welsh. However, clearer guidelines are needed on the purpose and aims of Cymraeg bob dydd in order that schools' investment in teacher time help lead to increased pupil confidence in using Welsh, fulfilling the Welsh Government goals of achieving a million speakers of Welsh by 2050.

## Chapter 11

## Chapter 11 <br> Recommendations

This study has revealed many aspects on how Cymraeg bob dydd is currently implemented, along with the challenges which hinders its success. This chapter provides recommendations to both policy makers in the Welsh Government and to schools on how Cymraeg bob dydd can be implemented more successfully in the future and how it can be developed to be integrated into everyday school life and its Welsh ethos. These recommendations are based on the results that have been discovered during the course of this research process.

### 11.1 Cymraeg bob dydd and the new curriculum

In 2022, a new curriculum will be implemented in Wales following the guidance and recommendations made by Professor Donaldson (2015). Languages, literacy and communications form one strand of the 6 Areas of Learning and Experience, which aim not only to teach Welsh, English and an international language to the pupils in Wales, but to also encourage the pupils' interests in languages and their values. Cymraeg bob dydd can be used to strengthen the use of Welsh within the curriculum in the following ways:
i. The new curriculum makes four statements that highlight the importance of language. The first statement relates to how language connects us to the wider world. The curriculum outlines that the first step within this statement is for the pupils to realise that languages exist amongst them and that they are linked together. Currently, pupils in English-medium schools (with the exception of pupils from minority background who may speak other languages outside school, such as at home and with family and friends) are mainly exposed to English, both in school and outside school. This results in a monolingual context, which makes them unaware of the languages that exist around them. Cymraeg bob dydd could be used as a part of developing this by normalising the use of Welsh in school and helping the pupils to realise that more than one language can be used within one setting and that different languages can be used freely with each other in all contexts, not only the language classroom. It is recommended below that teachers who
can speak Welsh, speak Welsh to each other in school in order to normalise the language. This will aid the development of the second progression of the statement in the descriptions of learning in the new curriculum for Wales which states "I can understand that people use different languages". It is also noted in progression 2 of the statement that pupils should realise that links can be made between languages. When delivering a level of Welsh as a part of Cymraeg bob dydd, this could be done by using the bilingual discourse strategies that are discussed in the results and discussion sections of this study. By saying a Welsh word followed by an English word, pupils could see whether there are links between the words in both languages e.g "Dwi eisiau i chi gopio'r dyddiad; I want you to copy the date" (note the similarities between the verb 'to copy' with 'copio').
ii. Another statement in the new curriculum is that language is a way in which we communicate. Importance is placed on the ability to speak and write, and that pupils should be able to use languages as a method of expressing themselves. This places an emphasis on being able to speak Welsh, which is a very important proposal in the field of Welsh second language, as pupils from English-medium schools have been criticized for not being able to speak Welsh, despite the years of Welsh lessons they have received. Pupils are expected to progress from being able to produce speech sounds accurately to then being able to communicate with a varied vocabulary, and by the end of their progression, being able to interact freely with others in the language of their choice. Cymraeg bob dydd could be developed to support this strand in the new curriculum. Cymraeg bob dydd is currently used as an implicit method of delivering the target language to the pupils, where they are expected to listen to the Welsh. Research shows that older children require a more explicit approach, in which they themselves participate in the task in order to acquire the language (reference). Therefore, the pupils should be encouraged to react by speaking some Welsh themselves. Not only would this help them to remember the words and sentences as they are using an explicit approach, but it would also help them to practise elements such as
pronouncing the speech sounds correctly and being able to use Welsh in a variety of settings within school.
iii. The last statement refers to how language can 'spark creativity' and develop and enhance wider skills. Cymraeg bob dydd can be used to support this statement in a number of ways. Using task-based learning and translanguaging could aid the development of the pupils' skills in the fourth statement as they are encouraged to appreciate literature and music. While the main language of the lesson may remain in English due to the linguistic nature of the schools, the pupils could be encouraged to discover a few Welsh words that relate to the task or to do a part of the task through the medium of Welsh.

### 11.2 Policy and guidance

Perhaps the most important recommendation in this chapter is the need for official guidelines by the Welsh Government. Since Davies' (2012) recommendation that Cymraeg bob dydd should be implemented in English-medium schools, the Welsh Government has encouraged the initiative without there being clear guidance for the schools. In this section, I recommend three strands: the creation of guidance, ensuring that the guidance is implanted consistently across all schools and subject areas and that the implementation of the guidance is regulated frequently.
i. The lack of guidance has left many teachers unsure of what is expected of them in terms of the level of delivery, frequency of delivery, content of delivery etc., which has left many Welsh departments to devise their own strategy. Guidance should be created and distributed to the schools and teachers outlining exactly what level of Welsh is expected from them, the frequency with which they should use the Welsh, the content of what they deliver (explain whether there are certain words or strands of subject-areas that they are expected to use) etc. This would be useful for the teachers to know what is expected of them and relieve pressure off the Welsh department from having to devise their own strategies without any guidance.
ii. When guidance by the Welsh Government is released to aid the schools in delivering Cymraeg bob dydd, efforts should be made to ensure that the
implementation of Cymraeg bob dydd is consistent across Wales, and that teachers are reaching the expected levels across all subject types and schools. Of course, teachers must receive training (discussed in detail further on in this chapter) in order to reach the expected level if they are not yet proficient enough, in order for the implementation to be consistent. Consistency is vital if Cymraeg bob dydd is to succeed, as the pupils should be exposed to Welsh across all subject areas and not be led to believe that Welsh only applies in some situations. Specialist Welsh teachers who work as 'Athrawon Bro' (area teachers) could be used to ensure this consistency, as they have access to all schools in their areas, and therefore could ensure that each school and subjects within each individual schools are consistent with each other.
iii. Following the creation of the guidance and the implementation of the initiative, provisions should be made to ensure the quality of delivery. It would be expected that Estyn (Her Majesty's Inspectorate in Wales) were to monitor this as a part of their general inspection procedure. A standard should be set (during the phase of ensuring consistency) in order for Estyn to be able to evaluate whether or not a schools is succeeding in their attempt to deliver Cymraeg bob dydd.

### 11.3 School ethos and pupils' attitudes

Exposing pupils to Welsh should be a whole-school approach. While the Welsh lessons themselves remain paramount in aiding the acquisition of the language for the pupils, a Welsh ethos should be adopted across the schools in order to create a feel of Welsh-ness and to help the pupils to feel Welsh and as a part of a wider Welsh society. In this section, recommendations are made regarding some ideas which could be embraced within all English-medium schools to increase the general Welsh ethos.
i. The results of Chapter 7 revealed that the pupils who enjoyed Welsh lessons were more likely to use some Welsh themselves. Welsh teachers should consider this when designing their lessons to ensure that in addition to learning a language, the pupils also get an enjoyment from the experience
and leave each lesson with a positive motivation towards learning Welsh. Teachers can use a range of pedagogical strategies to ensure that their delivery appeals to the pupils and that they suit a variety of learning styles.
ii. Welsh is currently seen as something for the Welsh classroom only in English -medium schools. This is the only situation in which the pupils are exposed to Welsh as they are not exposed to it outside school or the in community, which doesn't make the Welsh language seem like a living language. Provisions should be made to attempt to challenge this mindset with attempts to display Welsh as a living language. One way that schools could do this is to encourage teachers who can speak Welsh or are learning Welsh to speak Welsh to each other. By doing this, the pupils are then exposed to hearing Welsh being spoken naturally as a conversation, which normalises its use.
iii. Welsh is much more than just a language, it is also a culture. In order to start relating to the language, the pupils must feel that they are Welsh. The results from Chapter 7 revealed that while the pupils realised the importance of Welsh to its culture and society, they didn't identify themselves as being a part of that society and that the Welsh language was not something that applied to them personally. There could be a societal attitude that in order to be Welsh you must or no need to speak Welsh; further research is needed to discover what that societal attitude is. If they are to learn and use Welsh successfully, they should feel that they are Welsh, and relate to that identity. For some pupils who may have moved from elsewhere into Wales or have heritage from outside Wales, this may be complicated, due to the conflict that they may feel in terms of where their roots lie, however, for the majority of pupils, who have lived in Wales, schools should encourage them to be a part of the society in which they live. This can be done across the curriculum, with encouraging following Welsh teams within sports and singing Welsh songs in music being obvious ideas, while they could also be encouraged to listen to Welsh popular music and television, read Welsh books and be taught about Welsh history. This should be approached with caution, as encouraging their Welsh identity shouldn't come at the expense of recognising and
celebrating the pupils' full experience and heritage if they have roots elsewhere.
iv. During the observations, examples of visual aids were frequently observed. While in some school, this was minimal with basic examples such as the date on the board, in other schools they displayed bilingual subject-specific terms. This was to be commended, and all schools should take example and display bilingual terms in classrooms if they are not already. However commendable, this could be developed further by changing the terms on a half-termly or termly basis and by ensuring that the terms that are displayed are related to the subjects the pupils are learning about during that time. It is also vital that these terms are not only displayed, but are drawn attention to when the teacher is teaching about the specific subject to ensure that the pupils take note of the terms which are displayed and absorb their meaning in a subjectcontext. The pupils could also be encouraged to use these terms in Welsh within their own work which relates to the task-based learning mentioned above.

### 11.4 A pedagogical continuum

Chapter 3 discussed a range of pedagogical approaches used within the second language teaching field from across the world. These pedagogical approaches featured a wide span of features, with exposure to language being a prominant feature. It is vital that exposure to the target language is considered as more exposure results in a better rate of learning the language. I recommend that these pedagogical approaches are put on a continuum and that Cymraeg bob dydd is placed on said continuum and aims to develop along the continuum as the pupils' Welsh improves.
i. The pedagogical approaches described in Chapter 3 can be placed on the following continuum in terms of the level of exposure to the target language:

Figure 23: A pedagogical continuum


Incidental language is currently placed at the bottom of the continuum, as it's the pedagogical approach that exposes the pupils to the least amount of the target language. If the pupils are to become successful in acquiring a language, they need to be exposed to a high level of the target language. Currently, Cymraeg bob dydd is implemented very little in the English-medium schools in North Wales, therefore aiming for a more consistent implementation is a sufficient target for now, however, when that target is reached, an attempt should be made to move Cymraeg bob dydd higher up the continuum. By including pedagogies such as translanguaging and taskbased learning within Cymraeg bob dydd, as is recommended in the first section of this chapter, to encourage the pupils themselves to also use some level of Welsh, Cymraeg bob dydd would them automatically move higher up the continuum and create a more bilingual ethos to the lessons. For example, in addition to hearing some Welsh, as is currently expected, translanguaging could be used to encourage
the pupils to use Welsh in a variety of ways to extend on the exposure of Welsh that they receive.

### 11.5 Welsh language training for teachers

Teachers should not be expected to deliver an aspect in which they are not competent themselves. Being asked to do this can damage the teachers' mental health and have a negative affect on their experience as a teacher. Providing support for these teachers should be a priority for the Welsh Government. The results of this study shows that a lack in confidence and/or competence results in a reluctance to use Cymraeg bob dydd, and therefore is a crucial aspect of the work which must be addressed. Many aspects should be considered when designing the training for these teachers, which are outlined below:
i. Each teacher requires personalised support in terms of difficulty. When learning a language, everyone is on different levels during different times, depending on their own personal journey. While some teachers who are already competent but lack confidence would need support in encouraging them to use their Welsh, others may be starting from the beginning and requiring a more intense approach. Other teachers may feel confident in conversational Welsh but would benefit from being taught how to create Welsh language resources or how to use technological support packages such as Cysill. The differences in competence and confidence should be acknowledged and supported.
ii. The set-up of how the support is delivered should also be considered along with the advantages and disadvantages of different settings. For some schools, funding may mean that group lessons are the best way forward to ensure that many teachers get the same support, but at the same time and with one tutor, which lowers the cost. This is not a viable option if the teachers are on different levels in their learning, as the lessons could then be too easy for some while being too difficult for others. Individual or pair support may ensure that the teachers are receiving support which is based on their specific needs, but may be a more costly option for the school.
iii. The timing of the support should also be considered, as some teachers may prefer it to happen during school time, as they see it as a part of their work as a teacher and as their professional development, while others may prefer to receive the lessons during their own time when they can concentrate fully on the Welsh without the distraction of school life.
iv. Each school should be allowed access to fund the support needed. It should be made equal across the whole area, without a situation in which some schools receive support for their teachers while others do not. If all Englishmedium schools are expected to deliver Cymraeg bob dydd, then all schools should be able to access support and funding in order to support the initiative.
v. Links could be made to local Welsh-medium schools, which could provide advice to the English-medium schools.
vi. Confidence has appeared to be a large issue in the acquisition of Welsh in this study, both on the part of the teachers and the pupils. While they do not feel confident enough to use Welsh, this will remain as a barrier to becoming competent speakers. This is an issue which needs to be addressed if the Welsh Government are to create new Welsh speakers to increase the general number of speakers across Welsh. A new ethos should be created to support this; an ethos which allows 'making mistakes' to be accepted. When learning a language, the fear of making mistakes and being judged can cause the lack of confidence, therefore this should be reversed. Learners should be made to feel happy about giving speaking Welsh a go and to accept that there is no need for them to be perfect, and that they won't be judged. A friendly atmosphere should always be encouraged amongst learners with continuous support during their development.

### 11.6 Future research ideas

This research has evaluated the use of Welsh across other subject areas in Englishmedium schools and how it can be used to strengthen the use of Welsh amongst learners. The Welsh Government are aiming to have a million Welsh speakers in

Wales by 2050, therefore further research is needed in order to evaluate successful initiatives and to discover new ways of reaching this aim. These could provide further research:
i. Many pupils who attend Welsh-medium schools choose to speak English with their friends outside the classroom. When these pupils leave school, they often don't continue to speak Welsh, because they only used Welsh within the classroom, with many losing their Welsh completely. Research could be done to discover why these pupils chose to use English socially and to see whether any support could be inputted to encourage them to switch to Welsh which would then benefit them when they leave school so that they don't lose their Welsh completely.
ii. Strengthening the relationships between Welsh-medium and English-medium schools would be beneficial for English-medium schools to receive support, both on a leadership and teaching level but also through the medium of initiatives such as a 'buddy-system' for the pupils to practice their Welsh with pupils who are fluent in other schools. This could then be evaluated as a pilot to discover its success, and be rolled out in other schools if it proves to be beneficial.
iii. Research should be conducted into the issue of where the Welsh language relates to the wider identity of being Welsh. Do these pupils simply not see the need to learn Welsh as they don't see it as a part of being Welsh, because they feel that everyone in the wider community are able to converse in English or is it that learning a language is too difficult. There is scope to delve deeper into this issue.

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Appendix 1: Consent form


PRIFYSGOL

Ysgol Addysg

## Ffurflen Ganiatad Cyfranogwyr Prifathro

## Enw'r ymchwilydd - Nia Mererid Parry

Mae'r ymchwilydd, sydd wedi ei henwi uchod, wedi fy nghyfarwyddo yn foddhaol am yr ymchwil rydw i wedi gwirfoddoli i gymryd rhan ynddo. Dwi'n deall bod hawl gennyf i dynnu ôl o'r ymchwil unrhyw amser, a hynny heb reswm. Dwi hefyd yn deall y byddaf yn cael fy nghadw yn anhysbys drwy gydol yr ymchwil, a bydd fy hawliau cyfrinachedd yn cael eu parchu, fel sydd wedi ei egluro yn y daflen ymchwil.

Llofnod y Cyfranogwr $\qquad$

Dyddiad

Fydd dau ffurflen yn cael ei greu - un copi i'r cyfranogwr, a'r llall i'r ymchwilydd.


PRIFYS G OL

## B A N G OR

UNIVERSITY

Bangor University's 'Code of Practice for the Assurance of Academic Quality and Standards of Research Programmes' (Code 03) https://www.bangor.ac.uk/ar/main/regulations/home.htm

School of Education

## Participant Consent Form - Headteacher

## Researcher's name - Nia Mererid Parry

The researcher named above has briefed me to my satisfaction on the research for which I have volunteered. I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the research at any point. I also understand that my rights to anonymity and confidentiality will be respected, as explained in the information sheet.

Signature of participant $\qquad$

Date $\qquad$

This form will be produced in duplicate. One copy should be retained by the participant and the other by the researcher.

Appendix 2: Information sheet

# A oes tystiolaeth i gefnogi'r defnydd o 'Cymraeg bob dydd' ar draws y cwricwlwm mewn ysgolion cyfrwng Saesneg yng Ngogledd Cymru? Taflen Wybodaeth 

## Cyflwyniad:

Rydych yn cael eich gwahodd i gymryd rhan mewn ymchwil tuag at draethawd gradd PhD sydd yn ymchwilio i weld a oes tystiolaeth i gefnogi'r defnydd o 'Cymraeg bob dydd' ar draws y cwricwlwm mewn ysgolion cyfrwng Saesneg yng Ngogledd Cymru. Cyn i chi benderfynnu os ydych am gymryd rhan ai pheidio, mae'n bwysig eich bod yn deall beth sydd yn ofynnol ohonoch. Os gwelwch yn dda, cymerwch amser i ddarllen y wybodaeth yma, a chysylltu â mi os oes cwestiynau pellach gennych.

## Beth yw pwrpas yr ymchwil hwn?

Bydd y prosiect ymchwil hwn yn:

1. Asesu'r sefyllfa bresennol o 'Cymraeg bob dydd' o fewn ysgolion cyfrwng Saesneg
2. Adnabod arferion da o'r defnydd o 'Cymraeg bob dydd'
3. Dyfeisio ymyrraeth bwrpasol i'w fewnbynnu i'w cwricwlwm mewn rhai dosbarthiadau wedi eu dewis.
4. Cymharu os yw defnyddio ymyraethau ychwanegol o 'Cymraeg bob dydd' neu fod mewn dosbarth heb ymyrraeth yn cael effaith ar safon iaith Gymraeg y disgyblion,
5. Gwerthuso felly, os yw Cymraeg bob dydd yn cael effaith bositif, negatif neu dim effaith ar safonau iaith Gymraeg y disgyblion, ac os oes tystiolaeth i gefnogi ei ddefnydd o fewn ysgolion cyfrwng Saesneg.

## Pam ydyn ni wedi cael ein dewis?

Rydych wedi cael eich dewis gan eich bod yn enghraifft o ysgol mewn awdurdod lleol yng Ngogledd Cymru sydd yn gweithredu'r polisi Cymraeg bob dydd, o dan awgrymiad Llywodraeth Cymru. Mi fyddwch felly yn fy ngalluogi i ymchwilio yn addas i'r maes hwn.

## Oes rhaid i mi gymryd rhan?

Eich dewis chi ydi cymryd rhan ai pheidio. Os ydych yn penderfynu cymryd rhan, gyrrwch y ffurflen ganiatâd yn ôl i mi drwy e-bost (edp504@bangor.ac.uk), os gwelwch yn dda. Does dim rhaid i chi gymryd rhan o gwbl, ac mae'r hawl gennych i dynnu'n ôl o'r ymchwil ar unrhyw adeg, a hynny heb reswm.

## Beth fydd yn digwydd os ydw i'n penderfynnu cymryd rhan?

Rydw i eisioes wedi ymweld a'r ysgol a wedi chael syniad o'r hyn sydd yn digwydd eisioes o ran Cymraeg ar draws y cwricwlwm, a wedi chael syniad o farn a syniadau'r disgyblion ym mlwyddyn 8 . 0 ganlyniad i'r arsylwadau a welais mewn nifer o ysgolion ar draws gogledd Cymru, a thrwy gymharu gyda'r hyn sydd yn digwydd ar draws Ewrop hoffwn fewnbynnu 'Cymraeg bob dydd' i mewn i'r cwricwlwm mewn modd fwy cadarn. Mi fyddai'r ymyrraeth yma'n golygu fod un
dosbarth blwyddyn wyth yn derbyn fwy o Gymraeg drwy ffurf darllen, dosbarth arall yn ei dderbyn ar lafar, a'r drydedd dosbarth yn ei ddefnyddio mewn modd ymarferol drwy eu gweithgareddau yn y dosbarth. Er fod yr ymarraethau yn wahanol, ni fyddai newid o gwbl i'r cwricwlwm, a mi fyddai'r holl ddosbarthiadau yn derbyn yr un wybodaeth a fyddent fel arfer, gyda'r Gymraeg yn ychwanegiad i hynny a ddim yn cael ei ddefnyddio yn lle'r Saesneg. Er mwyn mesur ym mha modd mae plant yn dysgu iaith orau, mi fyddant yn cael prawf i fesur eu gallu ieithyddol Gymraeg ar ddechrau'r ymyrraeth, ac yna un arall ar ddiwedd y cyfnod ymchwil i weld a oes gwahaniaeth rhwng yr ymarraethau.

## Fydd popeth yn cael ei gadw'n gyfrinachol?

Bydd. Bydd eich manylion yn cael eu cadw yn gyfrinachol ar gyfrifiadur a chyfrinair iddo, gyda mynediad gennyf fi yn unig. Ni fydd eich ysgol na'r staff yn cael eu hadnabod yn y traethawd gorffenedig. Mi fydd y traethawd yn cael ei ddarllen gan fy ngorychwiliwyr, arholwyr. Mi fydd posib bydd y canlyniadau hefyd yn cael eu defnyddio ar gyfer erthyglau academaidd ag mewn cyflwyniadau cynhadleddau. Unwaith fydd y traethawd wedi ei orffen, fydd y data yn cael ei ddileu yn syth. Os gwelaf unrhywbeth sydd yn gwneud i mi beri gofid am ddiogelwch plentyn, mi fyddai'n rhaid i mi ddweud wrth bobl brofesiynnol, addas, yn unol a chôd gwarchod plant adran addysg Prifysgol Bangor.

## Beth sy'n digwydd os nad ydw i eisiau parhau efo'r astudiaeth?

Rydych yn rhydd i dynnu'n ôl ar unrhyw amser, a hynny heb reswm.

## Beth fydd yn digwydd i ganlyniadau'r ymchwil?

Fydd canlyniadau'r ymchwil hwn yn cael eu defnyddio mewn traethawd PhD, fydd wedyn yn cael ei arholi. Mae bosib hefyd, bydd y data hwn yn cael ei ddefnyddio i gyflwyno erthyglau wedi eu adolygu gan gyfoedion, ag mewn cynhadleddau. Er hyn, bydd y rheolau am gyfrinachedd a diogelwch y data yn dal i fod yn y cyddestun hwn.

## Beth sy'n digwydd os oes gen i bryderon am yr ymchwil?

Os oes pryderon gennych am unrhyw ran o'r ymchwil, ac eisiau siarad efo unrhyw un, mae croeso i chi gysylltu gyda fi, Nia Parry (edp504@bangor.ac.uk [mailto:edp504@bangor.ac.uk](mailto:edp504@bangor.ac.uk)) neu'r Athro Enlli Thomas (enlli.thomas@bangor.ac.uk)/ [mailto:enlli.thomas@bangor.ac.uk)/](mailto:enlli.thomas@bangor.ac.uk)/) Dr Nia Young (nia.young@bangor.ac.uk); gorychwiliwyr.

## Y camau nesaf:

Os ydych yn penderfynu cymryd rhan, gyrrwch y ffurflen ganiatâd yn ôl ataf os gwelwch yn dda (edp504@bangor.ac.uk.

## Diolch yn fawr iawn i chi am gymryd amser i ddarllen y daflen wybodaeth hon. <br> Is there evidence to support the use of Incidental Welsh across the curriculum in English-medium schools in North Wales? INFORMATION SHEET

## Introduction:

You are being invited to take part in research towards a PhD thesis that is looking whether there is evidence to support the use of Incidental Welsh across the curriculum in English-medium schools across North Wales. Before you decide whether or not to participate, it is important for you to understand why the research is being undertaken and what it will involve. Please take the time to read the following information and don't hesitate to contact me for more information if needed.

## What is the purpose of the study?

This research project seeks to:

1. Assess the current situation of the use of Incidental Welsh within Englishmedium schools.
2. Recognise good practice of the use of Incidental Welsh.
3. Devise purposeful interventions to integrate into the current curriculum within some classes.
4. Compare if the use of additional Incidental Welsh interventions or being within a classroom without the additional interventions, have an effect on the pupils' Welsh language standards.
5. Evaluate if using Incidental Welsh has a positive, negative or impartial effect on the pupils' Welsh language skills, and therefore, if there is evidence to support its use within schools.

## Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen as an example of a local authority school in North Wales that has implemented the use of Incidental Welsh, under the recommendation of the Welsh Government. Your school is then suitable for this research to be undertook there.

## Do I have to take part?

It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you decide to take part you will be asked to complete the consent form and return it to me by email; Nia Parry (edp504@bangor.ac.uk) If you decide to take part you are still free to withdraw at any time. Please remember to keep this information sheet.

## What will happen if I decide to take part?

During the past term, I have visited a number of schools and have observed year 8 lessons from across the curriculum and have looked at the results of questionnaires that the year 8 pupils have filled in, and have seen what their general opinions are and their ideas for Welsh lessons. After observing these results and compering what I saw with what is happening from around Europe I have formed an intervention that will implant 'everyday Welsh' firmly into the curriculum. This intervention would mean that one year 8 class would receive the 'everyday Welsh' intervention through listening, another class through reading, and the third class through a more hands on activities. Although these interventions are different, all classes would still receive the same information,
and would be taught the same aspects as they normally do. The Welsh would be an addition to this, and would certainly not be used instead of English. In order to measure in which way the pupils acquire the language best they will have a little test at the start and at the end to measure their Welsh language abilities, and then it will be possible to see which intervention worked best.

## Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

Yes. Your contact details will be stored on a confidential database. The information you share will be treated in confidence. The school and staff will not be identified in the completed dissertation. The dissertation will be read by my supervisor, and an examiner, as well as be presented in journal articles and conferences. All the participants' details will be kept on a password protected computer that is accessible to no-one but myself. Once the dissertation has been written, all information from the data-collection phase will be destroyed. If I were to witness any event that may be of worry regarding a child's harm, then I would have to pass the information on to a relevant professional, as described in the Bangor University School of Education Child Protection Code of Conduct.

## What will happen if I don't want to carry on with the study?

You are free to withdraw from the research at any time without giving a reason.

## What will happen to the results of the study?

The findings from this study will be used in a PhD dissertation that will then be examined. The results could also be used to present the findings in peer reviewed journal articles and in conferences. The confidentiality and security of the data described above will still apply to these essays and presentations.

## What happens if I have any concerns about this project?

If you are concerned about any aspect of this research and would like to speak to someone please contact Nia Mererid Parry (edp504@bangor.ac.uk) or Professor Enlli Thomas (enlli.thomas@bangor.ac.uk) / Dr Nia Young (nia.young@bangor.ac.uk); supervisors

## Next steps:

If you decide that you would like to take part, please complete and return the enclosed consent form to the email provided.

Thank you for kindly taking the time to read this information sheet.

Appendix 3: Observation schedule

## 1. Data cyffredinol:

Ysgol:
Dyddiad:

Amser:
Pwnc:

Cyfanswm y disgyblion yn y dosbarth:
Cydbwysedd rhyw (bechgyn:genethod): $\qquad$ \%B $\% G$

## 2. Digwyddiadau'r wers

| Amser | Beth oedd yn <br> mynd ymlaen yn y <br> wers (Math o <br> dasg/ar lafar, neu <br> yn y llyfr etc? | Cymraeg? (tick yn <br> y bocs os oedd) | Manylion <br> (athro/disgybl; <br> ymateb; cyddestun) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |


|  | Cymraeg | Saesneg | Arall |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Staff efo plant |  |  |  |
| Plant efo Staff |  |  |  |
| Plant efo'i gilydd |  |  |  |
| Staff efo'i gilydd |  |  |  |

3. Defnydd o'r Gymraeg

Pa Iaith oedd pawb yn siarad efo'i gilydd?
Faint o'r wers oedd yn y Gymraeg?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Cyfan | Rhanfwyaf | Cymysg ond fwy o <br> Gymraeg | Hafal | Cymysg <br> ond fwy | Lleiafrif | Dim <br> o <br> gwbl |


|  |  |  | yn <br> Saesneg |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Faint o iaith yr athro oedd yn y Gymraeg?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Cyfan | Rhanfwyaf | Cymysg <br> ond fwy <br> o <br> Gymraeg | Hafal | Cymysg <br> ond fwy <br> yn <br> Saesneg | Lleiafrif | Dim o <br> gwbl |

Faint o iaith y plant oedd yn Gymraeg?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Cyfan | Rhanfwyaf | Cymysg <br> ond fwy <br> o <br> Gymraeg | Hafal | Cymysg <br> ond fwy <br> yn <br> Saesneg | Lleiafrif | Dim o <br> gwbl |

## 4. Cymraeg bob dydd

Oedd yna enghreifftiau o'r canlynol o'r Gymraeg yn y wers?
Cyfarch - wedi ei gyfieithu o'r Saesneg $\qquad$ Heb ei gyfieithu $\qquad$
Canmol - wedi ei gyfieithu o'r Saesneg $\qquad$ Heb ei gyfieithu $\qquad$
Rhoi ffrae - wedi ei gyfieithu o'r Saesneg $\qquad$ Heb ei gyfieithu $\qquad$
Termau pwnc - wedi ei gyfieithu o'r Saesneg $\qquad$ Heb ei gyfieithu $\qquad$
Cyfarwyddiadau - wedi ei gyfieithu o'r Saesneg $\qquad$ Heb ei gyfieithu $\qquad$
Ateb cwestiynnau - wedi ei gyfieithu o'r Saesneg $\qquad$ Heb ei gyfieithu $\qquad$
Ffarwelio - wedi ei gyfieithu o'r Saesneg $\qquad$ Heb ei gyfieithu $\qquad$
Eraill $\qquad$
5. Oes unrhyw Gymraeg mewn posteri etc ar y wal? Os oes, beth?

Appendix 4: Pupil questionnaire

## Questionnaire for pupils

1. Are you....

Female $\square$ Male

2. Which language would you consider to be your first language
$\qquad$
3. Do you have a second (or more) language?) If so, what is it?
$\qquad$
4. Do you consider yourself to be bilingual?
$\qquad$
5. Which language(s) do you speak with the following people?

|  | Welsh | English | Others |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Parents/Guardian |  |  |  |
| Siblings |  |  |  |
| Grandparents |  |  |  |
| Extended Family (e.g <br> cousins) |  |  |  |
| Friends |  |  |  |

6. Which language do you speak mostly at school?
$\qquad$
7. How good was your English before you came to secondary school?

|  | No ability <br> at all | Little <br> ability | Fair | Good | Fluent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Reading |  |  |  |  |  |
| Writing |  |  |  |  |  |
| Speaking |  |  |  |  |  |

8. How good is your English now?

|  | No ability <br> at all | Little <br> ability | Fair | Good | Fluent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Reading |  |  |  |  |  |
| Writing |  |  |  |  |  |
| Speaking |  |  |  |  |  |

9. How good was your Welsh before you came to secondary school?

|  | No ability <br> at all | Little <br> ability | Fair | Good | Fluent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Reading |  |  |  |  |  |
| Writing |  |  |  |  |  |
| Speaking |  |  |  |  |  |

10. How good is your Welsh now?

|  | No ability <br> at all | Little <br> ability | Fair | Good | Fluent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Reading |  |  |  |  |  |
| Writing |  |  |  |  |  |
| Speaking |  |  |  |  |  |

11. Do you enjoy Welsh lessons in school?

Yes $\square$ No

12. Do you hear any Welsh in any other lessons, apart from your formal Welsh lessons?
Yes
 No $\square$

If you answer yes, list some examples of what the teachers say
13. Do you, yourself use any Welsh outside the Welsh lesson?

Yes


No


If you do, where? $\qquad$
14. What do you enjoy about the Welsh lessons?
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
16. Is there anything that you would like to be different about your school's Welsh language provision?
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
17. Do you think that there are any factors that could prevent a pupil from learning, or want to learn Welsh?
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
18. Tick the box that is most relevant to your feelings

|  | Strongly <br> Agree | Agree <br> Somewhat | No <br> Opinion | Somewhat <br> Disagree | Strongly <br> Disagree |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Learning Welsh <br> is important to <br> me |  |  |  |  |  |
| I Want to be <br> fluent in Welsh |  |  |  |  |  |
| Enough is being <br> done in school <br> to support the <br> use of Welsh |  |  |  |  |  |
| The Welsh <br> language is a <br> part of my <br> identity |  |  |  |  |  |
| The Welsh <br> language is an <br> important part <br> of Welsh culture |  |  |  |  |  |
| I Don't see the <br> relevance of <br> Welsh to <br> everyday life |  |  |  |  |  |
| Being able to <br> speak Welsh |  |  |  |  |  |


| would be useful <br> for my future |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I feel nervous <br> when speaking <br> Welsh |  |  |  |  |  |
| It's easier to get <br> a job if you can <br> speak Welsh |  |  |  |  |  |
| Communicating <br> in Welsh is fun |  |  |  |  |  |
| I feel that the <br> Welsh language <br> is enforced on <br> me |  |  |  |  |  |
| Speaking Welsh <br> makes me feel <br> proud |  |  |  |  |  |
| I enjoy <br> experiencing <br> Welsh culture at <br> places like the <br> Eisteddfod |  |  |  |  |  |
| I feel like I need <br> the Welsh <br> language |  |  |  |  |  |
| Learning <br> languages like <br> French is more <br> important to me |  |  |  |  |  |
| I'm happy that I <br> know enough <br> Welsh for what I <br> need |  |  |  |  |  |
| I'd like to help <br> younger <br> children to learn <br> Welsh |  |  |  |  |  |

Appendix 5: Teacher questionnaire

1. In which local authority do you teach?

Blaenau Gwent

| Caerphilly | Monmouthshire |
| :--- | :--- |
| Cardiff | Neath Port Talbot |
| Carmarthenshire | Newport |
| Ceredigion | Pembrokeshire |
| Conwy | Powys |
| Denbighshire | Rhondda Cynon Taf |
| Flintshire | Swansea |
| Gwynedd | Torfaen |
| Isle of Anglesey | Vale of Glamorgan |
| Merthyr Tydfil | Wrexham |

2. What subject do you teach?

## 3. Do you come from Wales, England or other originally?

Wales
England
Other
4. For how long have you been teaching in Wales?
5. What is your proficiency in Welsh?

None at all
Fluent

Some basic words
Beginner
Intermediate

Nearly fluent
6. How confident are you to use Welsh?

Not Confident at all
Very little confidence
Middling
Quite confident
Very confident
7. Have you been on a sabbatical course?

Yes
No
8. Do you use any Welsh in your lessons?

Yes
No
9. If so, what? If not, why?
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
10. What support, if any, do you get with your Welsh?
11. Do you feel like you need more support? If so, what?

1. What were your Welsh abilities before the mentoring?
2. What were your confidence levels before the mentoring?
3. How many lessons a week did you get and how long did they last?
4. Was the content appropriate to what you needed? What was the content?
5. Did it mostly help you to apply Welsh to the classroom or was it something that helped you more sociably?
6. How has it made you feel? Do you feel differently after doing it? How has it affected your confidence?
7. Do you need more lessons?
8. Has it been effective or is it to early to say?
9. Do you use more Welsh with the children now?
10. Do you use more Welsh with the staff now?

[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ The following information regarding the census data have all been retrieved from https://statswales.gov.wales/Catalogue/Welsh-Language/Census-Welsh-Language/welshspeakers-by-ediv-2011census

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ It should also be noted that the wording regarding language use is different in the Welsh and Irish census'. The Irish census asks 'Can you speak Irish?' followed by an additional question of 'If yes, do you speak Irish?' with options given as 'daily, within the education system', 'daily, outside the education system', 'weekly', 'less often' and 'never'. The Welsh census words the question as 'Can you understand, speak, read or write Welsh?'. Respondents are asked to tick all that apply or select 'None of the above'.

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ Welsh Government (2017), https://gov.wales/sites/default/files/publications/2018-12/cymraeg-2050-welsh-language-strategy.pdf

[^3]:    ${ }^{4}$ Despite the realisation of the importance of education in maintaining the Welsh language, the Sunday schools (ysgolion Sul) also played a vital role in realising the importance of Welsh language transmission in children (Davies, 1993)

[^4]:    ${ }^{5}$ The language continuum is one of the recommendations given to the Welsh Government in the Davies (2012) review. This continuum will be used to measure pupils' abilities and development across a continuum and will form the basis for Welsh language learning.
    ${ }^{6}$ The 'croesi'r bont' scheme is an innovation which aims to make the linguistic transition from Cylch Meithrin to the foundation phase in primary schools consistent in order to make the transition easier for children from non-Welsh backgrounds

[^5]:    ${ }^{7}$ The Urdd, which was formed in 1922 outline their aim as being: "to provide opportunities through the medium of Welsh for children and young people in Wales to become fully rounded individuals, developing personal and social skills that will enable them to make a positive contribution to the community"

[^6]:    ${ }^{8}$ New speakers have been defined as "adults who acquire a socially and communicatively consequential level of competence and practice in a minority language" (Jaffe, 2015, p.25)

[^7]:    ${ }^{9}$ A GCSE is a qualification taken usually when a pupil is 15 or 16 years old to mark their graduation from the key stage 4 stage of their education in Wales, England and Northen Ireland.

[^8]:    ${ }^{10}$ Equivalent to the same age as children in the foundation phase in Wales
    ${ }^{11}$ Equivalent to year 5 in Wales

[^9]:    ${ }^{12}$ This is also similar to translanguaging, which highlights that similarities exist between the different bilingual pedagogies, and overlaps can be seen when comparing them.

[^10]:    ${ }^{13}$ Despite these interventions having taken place in bilingual schools, the level of Welsh that the teachers that were a part of the intervention had was similar to that of teachers in Englishmedium schools, and their usual delivery of lessons was through the medium of English, therefore they can be compared to their counterparts in English-medium schools.

[^11]:    14 The Welsh average figures for these two schools in Flintshire are taken from 2016.

[^12]:    ${ }^{15}$ Whilst the registration period is not a lesson in the same sense as an academic taught subject, it does provide an opportunity for reciprocal teacher-child interactions that could include some Welsh. It is referred to here alongside the subject session as a 'lesson' for ease of presentation.

[^13]:    ${ }^{16}$ The term 'grwps' here represents the use of the English borrowing 'group', which has been integreated into the Welsh language as grŵp, but with the English plural affix -s - grwps. Welsh speakers use both grwps and grwpiau (-iau being one of the more regular plural affixes - see Thomas et al.,2014, and Binks and Thomas, 2019).

[^14]:    ${ }^{17}$ Owain Gyndwr is a key historical figure in Wales, which is known for his attempt in gaining independence for Wales during the $14^{\text {th }}$ and $15^{\text {th }}$ century during his reign as the Prince of Wales.

[^15]:    ${ }^{18}$ The linguistic medium of the schools were determined by the county councils' categorisations. Schools in Wales are defined into 4 categories (Welsh-medium, bilingual, Predominantly Englishmedium with significant use of Welsh and English-medium), and each school's category are displayed by the county councils.

[^16]:    ${ }^{19}$ The questions were worded a little differently for pupils in Welsh-medium schools compared to pupils in English-medium schools due to the difference in the linguistic nature within the two types of schools.

[^17]:    ${ }^{20}$ This comparison was not made with English-medium schools due to the high majority of the pupils being English L1s, and therefore there were not enough Welsh L1 pupils to make a comparison with.

[^18]:    ${ }^{21}$ The Welsh-medium school pupils were not asked whether they would want to be fluent in Welsh questions as they are already fluent in Welsh, therefore, this question was irrelevant for that group of pupils.

[^19]:    ${ }^{22}$ When referring to 'agreeing' in this section, this refers to both the 'strongly agree' and 'agree' categories

[^20]:    ${ }^{23}$ It is not the case that Welsh is not to be heard at all in such areas. On the contrary, Welsh is spoken as an L1 by around $30 \%$ of the inhabitants of north east Wales, but children from non-Welsh-speaking backgrounds may not engage with events or activities that are delivered mainly in Welsh and since all inhabitants of north east Wales speak English, they can be addressed in English in all aspects of society without any need to use their Welsh.

