METHODOLOGICAL GUIDE FOR INCLUSION IN CENTERS WITH PLURILINGUAL PROGRAMS

ACCIÓ CULTURAL DEL PAÍS VALENCIÀ

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0. PROLOGUE

From an individual point of view, learning a new language is probably one of the most common desires for a large number of Europeans. Professional, academic or personal development reasons are usually cited as the main objectives. But when a person emigrates, this need is greatly amplified. Acquiring adequate communication skills in the local languages is fundamental, providing clear benefits to the newcomer through the expansion of social networks, increased participation, and open-minded attitudes towards plurilingual communities. European education systems have identified multilingualism as a crucial building block for social cohesion within and beyond national borders.

A quick list of European languages would probably include English, German, French and other languages with prestige and greater numbers of speakers, yet most European states count several languages within their territories. Multilingualism contributes to building a diverse and

cohesive Europe of communities of speakers who share mutual recognition and diverse modes of communication.

Language pedagogy has undergone an evolution in recent decades and Europe now produces a growing number of students who are able to speak several languages. A contributing factor to this multilingualism are the European regions where more than one official language co-exists. Scientific evidence points to the cognitive benefits of multilingualism including the increased capacity to acquire additional new languages.

Multilingualism in Europe seems to be a solid desideratum at this historic moment when diversity and social cohesion require greater reconciliation. Thus, we present an innovative language acquisition methodology aimed at practical application — a method that drives linguistic community integration, applicable by equal measure to larger and smaller language communities.

1. ERASMUS PLUS PROGRAMME

The document "METHODOLOGICAL GUIDE FOR INCLU-SION IN CENTERS WITH PLURILINGUAL PROGRAMS" is the most important Intellectual Output of the project "AN INNOVATIVE EDUCATIONAL METHODOLOGY FOR INCLU-SION THROUGH MINORITY LANGUAGES"- 2017-1-ES01-KA201-038567, carried out by a heterogeneous partner-ship composed by associations (ACCIÓ CULTURAL DE PAÍS VALENCIÀ - ACPV), European federations (EUROPEAL LANGUAGE EQUALITY NETWORK-ELEN), public bodies (CONSIGLIO NAZIONALE DELLE RICERCHE and DUBLIN CITY UNIVERSITY) and private sector companies (IAITH: Welsh Center for Language Planning).

This guide will promote inclusion of all students, but is aimed at supporting young migrants and refugees who experience language barriers when accessing education where a minority language is the vehicular language. We propose the creation of a network across borders that positively impacts secondary schools in Europe and their educational communities (aimed initially at the first high school year).

The ERASMUS PLUS Programme sponsored this project through the National Agency (SEPIE) in 2017. This is the EU program in the field of education, training, and sports for the period of 2014-2020. Extracurricular activities including sports can be important instruments to redress socio-economic differences, and to support the implementation of the European political agenda for greater employment, equity and inclusion—challenges twenty first century Europe continues to face.

The Programme is a useful tool at a European level to help correct inequalities in educational access generated by linguistic barriers.

Reforms based on a shared vision between policy makers and stakeholders, strong evidence, and multilayered cooperative efforts are necessary to achieve these goals.

The Erasmus Plus Programme is designed to support the efforts of participating countries to use the potential of European individual and social talent to promote life-long learning—linking formal, non-formal, and informal learning in the fields of education and training for youth. Opportunities for cooperation and mobility with partner countries are also created, especially in the areas of secondary education.

The Programme supports actions, cooperation and tools consistent with the objectives of the Europe 2020 Strategy and its flagship initiatives, such as "Youth on the Move", or the "Agenda for New Qualifications and Jobs". It also contributes to achieving the objectives of the Strategic Framework for Education and Training for European cooperation in education and training and the European Strategy for Youth, based on "open coordination" methods.

This investment in knowledge, skills, and competences will benefit people, institutions, organizations, and society as a whole, since it contributes to growth and guarantees equality, prosperity, and social inclusion in Europe and beyond.

1.1. ERASMUS PLUS GENERAL OBJECTIVE

The Erasmus+ Programme shall contribute to the achievement of:

- the objectives of the Europe 2020 Strategy, including the headline education target;

- the objectives of the strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training (ET 2020), including the corresponding benchmarks;

- the sustainable development of Partner Countries in the field of higher education;

- the overall objectives of the renewed framework for European cooperation in the youth field (2010-2018);

- the objective of developing the European dimension in sport, in particular grassroots sport, in line with the EU work plan for sport;

- the promotion of European values in accordance with Article 2 of the Treaty on the European Union.

1.2. IMPORTANT FEATURES OF THE ERASMUS PLUS PROGRAMME

The following features of the Programme deserve special attention. Some of them are presented in more detail on the Commission website.

1.2.1. RECOGNITION AND VALIDATION OF SKILLS AND QUALIFICATIONS

Erasmus+ supports EU transparency and recognition tools for skills and qualifications –in particular Europass, Youthpass, the European Qualifications Framework (EQF), the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS), the European Credit System for Vocational Education and Training (ECVET), the European Quality Assurance Reference Framework (EQAVET), the European Quality Assurance Register (EQAR), the European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA) –as well as EU-wide networks in the field of education and training supporting these tools, in particular the National Academic Recognition Information Centre (NARIC), Euroguidance networks, the National Europass Centres and the EQF National Coordination Points.

A common purpose of these tools is to ensure that skills and qualifications can be more easily recognized and better understood within and across national borders, in all sub-systems of education and training as well as in the labor market, no matter whether these were acquired through formal education and training or through other learning experiences (e.g. work experience, volunteering, online learning). The tools also aim to ensure that education, training and youth policies further contribute to achieve the Europe 2020 objectives of smart, sustainable and inclusive growth and its education and employment

headline targets through better labor market integration and mobility.

In order to fulfill these objectives, the tools available should be able to cater to new phenomena such as the internationalization of education, the growing use of digital learning, and support the creation of flexible learning pathways in line with learners' needs and objectives. The tools may also need to evolve in the future, leading to enhanced coherence and simplification that allow learners and workers to move freely whether learning or working.

More information available at: https://ec.europa.eu/education/policy/strategic-framework/skills-qualifications_en

1.2.2. DISSEMINATION AND EXPLOITATION OF PROJECT RESULTS

Extrapolation and dissemination of results are crucial areas of the Erasmus+ project lifecycle. They give participating organizations the opportunity to communicate and share outcomes and deliverables, thus extending the impact of their projects, improving their sustainability, and justifying the European added value of Erasmus+.

In order to successfully disseminate project results, organizations involved in Erasmus+ projects are asked to design activities that implementing these values/skills into their project. The level and intensity of such activities should be proportional to the objectives, scope and targets of Erasmus+. Results achieved in a particular project may be highly relevant and interesting to other social science fields not covered by the project.

1.2.2.1. ERASMUS+ OPEN ACCESS REQUIREMENT FOR EDUCATIONAL MATERIALS

Erasmus+ promotes the open access of project outputs to support learning, teaching, training, and youth programmes. In particular, Erasmus+ beneficiaries are committed to make any educational resources and tools which are produced in the context of projects supported by the Programme -documents, media, software or other materials freely available to the public under open license. The materials should be easily accessible and retrievable without cost or limitations, and the open license must allow the public to use, reuse, adapt and share the resource. Such materials are known as 'Open Educational Resources' (OER). To achieve this aim, the resources should be uploaded in an editable digital form, on a suitable and openly accessible platform. While Erasmus+ encourages beneficiaries to apply the most open licenses, four beneficiaries may choose licenses that impose some limitations, e.g. restricting commercial use by others, or commit others to apply the same license for derivative works. If this is appropriate to the nature of the project and to the type of material, and if it still allows the public to use, reuse, adapt and share the resource. The open access requirement is obligatory and is without prejudice to the intellectual property rights of the grant beneficiaries.

1.2.2.2. INTERNATIONAL DIMENSION

Erasmus+ includes a strong international dimension (i.e. cooperation with Partner Countries) notably in the fields of higher education and youth.

1.2.2.3. MULTILINGUALISM

Multilingualism is one of the cornerstones of the European project and a powerful symbol of the EU's aspiration to be united in diversity. Foreign languages have a prominent role among the skills that will help equip people for the labor market and make the most of available opportunities. The EU has set the goal that every citizen should have the opportunity to acquire at least two foreign languages from an early age.

The promotion of language learning and linguistic diversity is one of the specific objectives of the Programme. The lack of language competences is one of the main barriers to participation in European education, training and youth programs. The opportunities put in place to offer linguistic support are aimed to make mobility more efficient and effective, to improve learning performance and therefore contribute to the specific objective of the Programme.

1.2.2.4. EQUITY AND INCLUSION

The Erasmus+ Programme aims at promoting equity and inclusion by facilitating access to participants with disadvantaged backgrounds and fewer opportunities compared to their peers whenever disadvantage limits or prevents participation in transnational activities.

1.2.2.5. PROTECTION AND SAFETY OF PARTICIPANTS

Protection and safety of participants involved in the Erasmus+ projects are important principles of the Programme. All persons participating in the Erasmus+ Programme should have the opportunity to take full advantage of the possibilities for personal and professional development and learning. This should be assured in a safe environment which respects and protects the rights of all persons.

To this end each organization participating in the Erasmus+ Programme must have in place effective procedures and arrangements to promote and guarantee the safety and protection of the participants in their activity. In this regard, all students, trainees, apprentices, pupils, adult learners, young people, staff and volunteers, involved in a mobility activity under all Key Actions of the Erasmus+ Programme, must be insured against the risks linked to their participation in these activities. Apart from the volunteering activities which foresee a specific insurance policy (see Annex I of this Guide), the Erasmus+ Programme does not define a unique format of insurance, nor does it recommend specific insurance companies. The Programme leaves it up to project organizers to seek the most suitable insurance policy according to the type of project carried out and to the insurance formats available at national level. Furthermore, it is not necessary to subscribe to a project-specific insurance, if the participants are already covered by existing insurance policies of the project organizers.

2. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The scope and content of this document is to create an international network to tackle a common problem in many European countries, which is the inclusion of young migrants with little or no minoritized language (ML) skills in regions where these is a vehicular language for education and community integration. In this document, we outline an understanding the sociolinguistic challenges that many minority languages in Europe face, and propose a speech community integration (SCI) method to reduce the difficulties of linguistic integration in multilingual communities and to streamline the transition to language treated as a core competency in all subjects, making active multilingualism a part of the general school curriculum.

A "use accelerator" program connects context-driven communications to language studies, and integrates students to a broader language community of native speakers, bolstering oral production, confidence, and comprehension. These enhanced-use tools can be applied to any language, but because of their emphasis on proactive personal communication, they can be a particularly effective corrective

with diglossic situations many minority languages of Europe.

To integrate a language accelerator program that activates multilingual student users of the local minority language will require adaptation to the school and community culture. Patterns that can be gleaned will be distilled into a guide that can be shared across the school system to assist newly integrating students with the tools, motivation, and habits cultivated to create active language users in the relevant languages of the school and wider community.

For this reason, a first development stage in this proposal would be a 2-school pilot to best discover how to integrate "language use" programming into the Valencian school system for secondary school in an urban and village context.

2.1. OBJECTIVES

The Generalitat Valenciana approved several documents in 2017 that substantially modified the standing of Valencian language in secondary schools:

- First, the 9/2017 decree, dated on the 27th January, from the Council, which establishes the Valencian Educational Linguistic Model and regulates its implementation in the Comunitat Valenciana, establishing a single plurilingual education program with six levels.

- Second, the February 3rd 2017 RESOLUTION of the Dirección General de Política Educativa gives instructions for the implementation of the Dynamic Multilingual Program (DMP) and the development of the linguistic project in early childhood education centers for the 2017-2018 academic year.

These documents allow the implementation of a new model of multilingual education in public and private schools to transition from current dual track system for Valencian and Castilian (Spanish). Instead, a single Dynamic Multilingual Programme (DMP) has been created, in which each teaching centre will choose among one of the three levels in which this program is divided: basic, intermediate and advanced set to balance the presence of Valencian and English languages.

The choice of which level is voluntary for each centre, or if they wish, the centre can advance on the scale adapted to the Language Reference Common European Framework

(LRCEF); thus, the current Spanish tracks correspond to Basic 1, Basic 2, or Intermediate 1.

The DMP (Dynamic Multilingual Project) is tasked with balancing the use of minority languages, in this case Valencian, as important pedagogical tools necessary for the promotion of multilingualism. The fact that secondary schools are committed to teaching in English and Valencian can lead to exclusion and generate problems for migrants and refugees who have not yet mastered these languages, thus necessitating programmes that facilitate rapid acquisition..

This problem is European wide, notably when countries establish a minority language as cultural or educational vehicles. In Wales, a 21st century school project to include Welsh as an educational language is already being promoted. In Ireland, there is a significant commitment to the use of Gaelic as a language commonly used in schools, and in Italy all regional languages have the same legal status as Italian and their use is compulsory in schools.

It is estimated that around 40 million citizens of the European Union regularly use a regional or historically minority language. Active policies for their promotion and enhancement in schools are becoming more common at European level thanks to the work of entities like ELEN.

But to reach the objectives and a full multilingual educational implementation, it's necessary to create new methodologies. This is the main objective of the METHODOLOGICAL GUIDE FOR INCLUSION IN CENTERS WITH PLURILINGUAL PROGRAMS.

This guide will promote inclusive activities for students, especially for young migrants and refugees who encounter language barriers when accessing education with a minority language as an educational vehicular language.

This guide is the intellectual output of the project "AN INNOVATIVE EDUCATIONAL METHODOLOGY FOR INCLUSION THROUGH MINORITY LANGUAGES"- 2017-1-ES01-KA201-038567 funded by the ERASMUS PLUS Program in 2017.

Thanks to this project, a commitment to high quality multilingualism in education will be promoted as an educational tool, working specifically with special educational needs (SEN) groups to achieve the best possible educational results..

2.1.1. SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

This is linked to the objectives of the Erasmus + program, the Europe 2020 Strategy, the objectives of the Strategic Framework for European cooperation in education and training, and the objectives of the KA2 line for the creation of strategic alliances:

- To promote multilingualism, equality and social inclusion through learning and using minority languages.

- To improve the acquisition of linguistic skills through an interactive and socially meaningful method.

- To facilitate language teaching and learning beyond the limits of the classroom and the school context.

- To contribute to societal cohesion in multilingual communities.

- To create an international strategic alliance to actively work on multilingualism in education.

2.1.2. PROGRAM OBJECTIVES:

More specifically, some objectives have been set for the three parts of the project:

Objective for Part I: To evaluate prior competencies and knowledge through a diagnostic program and evaluation.

Objective for Part II: To create a guide in the form of digital manual with a teacher's guide to be incorporated as part of language assimilation strategy

Objective for Part III: To integrate "language use methodology" in the Valencian school system as an accompaniment model.

2.2. CONTENTS   The guide will include an introduction to the specific circumstances and conditions shared by all MLs in Europe, with a particular focus on the gap between 'knowing' and 'using' a language. This gap can prove difficult for learners of MLs living in communities in which classmates are bilingual in the dominant language. After establishing issues of linguistic identity, the Intellectual Output document analyses the European context from the vantage point of the four main MLs represented in this project: Irish, Welsh, Ladin, Friulian and Valencian (Catalan). In all five cases, minority languages form part of school curriculums in their respective countries (with differences of degrees and type of school systems considered). The proposal to pilot an innovative language-use methodology into the Valencian Education system contemplates later adaptations and testing with the educational partners.

A Pilot Study is proposed as a suitable way to discover apertures—opportunities as well as challenges to overcome. The pilot would consist of training trainers to integrate CLIL* compatible "language use" tools into content and language workshops for teachers designed to integrate language use into their curriculums. Evaluation sessions would follow with revisions and improvements. The pilot would be offered in several sessions with sequential follow-ups. The follow-up sessions would entail supervision of workshops given by the trainers, and from this a guide or manual would be created in part II of the process.

CLIL (Marsh1994): "CLIL refers to situations where subjects, or parts of subjects, are taught through a foreign language with dual-focused aims, namely the learning of content and the simultaneous learning of a foreign language."

2.3. USING THIS GUIDE IN THE CLASSROOM

There is a growing tendency in the field of language teaching to focus on the curricular content and to leave aside something more fundamental: sociolinguistic concepts and attitudes that affect the students' ability to become fluent. Although there are reports of the Danish taking measures to ensure newly arrived student mastery of Danish as well as English, the phenomenon of reductive multilingualism is particularly noteworthy in contexts with co-official languages, as is the case of Valencian. We believe that encouraging changes aimed at promoting use is fundamental if we do not want to reduce minority languages to merely an academic requirement.

Institutional innovation momentum, moreover, faces a greater impediment if we consider the added challenge of the linguistic assimilation of newcomers. The attention given to these students, which the Council of Europe calls vulnerable learners, constitutes from a perspective of inclusion and acquisition of the dominant and minority languages, the keystone for assessing the possibilities of success of a plurilingual and intercultural educational models. This is why methodological strategies must be designed and well prepared in order to achieve such ambitious and urgent goals in education.

The attention to students of foreign origin is articulated through an itinerary that begins with an initial reception, continues with a "welcome" level classroom and, as communicative competence is reached, it must continue to successful participation in an ordinary classroom. It is for this reason that specific attention be paid to the part of the student body that needs to acquire and activate the relevant languages to match the level of their classmates and ultimately, to continue seeking opportunities with language as their tool, not as their impediment.

If we observe the student body from the educational and linguistic point of view, it is necessary for vulnerable learners to start with communicative competence, aiding the transition to full ownership of cultural experiences. At the same time there will be high expectations of their possibilities (Pascual et al, 2015). Providing them with an adequate methodological framework (see section 5.1 of this guide dedicated to methodology), that supports a didactic and organisational production of materials to incorporate as soon as possible into the centre's ordinary learning dynamic.

Initially, a personalized diagnostic evaluation of each case should be considered. Having the results of this initial diagnosis, an individualised action plan will be drawn up and implemented, focusing on the transformation of the student or learner into a competent user of the minoritised language so they may have greater choice and participation. In order to achieve this, it is essential to take into account the emotional support newly arrived students need, as well as to encourage the capacity to construct a multilingual identity.

Special mention should be made of educational inclusion in sociolinguistic contexts in which a minority language co-exists with a dominant language. We must not forget that we are governed by linguistic attitudes and prejudices and therefore, the application of a programme of the characteristics we present will have its challenges.

Part of the project is to highlight the necessity of encouraging recently arrived students to perceive the usefulness of acquisition of both the dominant and minority languages, since the general tendency is to default exclusively to the language of greater social dominance.

We must also assimilate into the programme responses for the challenge of language switching — the dynamic of local speakers who tend to switch with learners and replace their own language with the dominant one.

It is inevitable that in a learning situation in a sociolinguistic context of several languages in close contact, the transference of knowledge between one language and another is inevitable. Although the perception of mixing languages is usually negative, it's a point of view that should be challenged, based on theories like Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP, Cummings, 2000) whose research shows that the initial learning of two co-existing languages, which is unconscious and automatic, is also facilitated by greater cognitive development and meta-linguistic awareness.

When applying the precepts of this user guide, it will be necessary to include the sociolinguistic context, educational models that value diversity and the challenge to pre-established linguistic prejudices, but above all, to en-

courage the programme monitors to aid in finding social context driven inputs for the learner as rich and as meaningful as possible.

3. INTRODUCTION

There are roughly 6,500 spoken languages in the world, of which 2,000 have fewer than 1,000 speakers. This is a great time of reduction of the languages of humanity, and those languages that survive this age will become the only way through which humanity can express and know itself. All languages capable of widening the spectrum of our perception and the speech communities we participate in are worthy by this standard.

Plurilingual students can experience this diversity first-hand, and enrich themselves. But learning to speak new languages is not an easy task, precisely because a speaker must integrate their target language into many personal experiences. Larger languages hold the advantage in offering more populated speech communities that makes access to natives easier. Besides fewer speakers, minoritized languages whose populace is bilingual often automatically switch out of the minority language with non-native speakers, reducing opportunities for speech contact, and frequently leading to anxiety of learner's mistakes for fear of the switch.

Herein lies the necessity for a language learning methodology that can adapt to the communicative needs of the students, integrate them with natives in the speech community, and address their real concerns of learner's performance anxiety. While the method presented here in this document, the Speech Community Integration Method (SCI), can be deployed effectively with any language, it is particularly suitable for addressing the concerns and challenges that learners of Minority languages face. This document reviews several minority languages in four European countries and proposes this method to accelerate use and assist learners in speech community integration.

3.1. THE GAP BETWEEN MINORITY LANGUAGE COMPETENCE AND USAGE

Much of the debate on bilingualism and interculturality in Europe and North America has focused on the educational rights of migrant children. Intercultural bilingual education should address culturally appropriate education for migrant students. While minority language rights have long been recognised at international level (Council of Europe, 1992), there can be a tendency to privilege widely used and high status international languages over minority or regional languages particularly in market driven contexts. This can lead to an assumption, for example, in jurisdictions where a regional or minority language is spoken, that migrant students only need access to the majority language. This can have implications for the cohesion of the emerging society and the status and function of the minority language.

The civil rights movements of the 1960s led to a greater awareness of linguistic rights among minority language communities. Article 27 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, states that recognised minorities "shall not be denied the right, in community with the other members of their group, to enjoy their own culture … to use their own language" (United Nations, 1966). These initiatives resulted in demands for a greater role for minority languages in education which was, in part, a reaction to the predominant monolingual paradigm to be found in the majority of schools in Europe which was a legacy of the nation-building process (Busch, 2011). Many jurisdictions such as Wales, Scotland, Ireland, Italy, the Basque Country and the Valencian Country experienced renewed growth in minority language education during this period and adopted what became known as one-way minority language immersion programmes (Ó Duibhir, 2018). In the Spanish context, a considerable proportion of Spanish-speaking students attend schools where a re-

gional language such as Catalan/Valencian, Galician or Basque is the main language of schooling. These strong forms of bilingual education seek to rebalance the dominance of the majority language in society by ensuring that the next generation would be competent in the minority language and reversing language shift where possible. Despite the often hard won support and official recognition for minority and regional languages, the majority of European countries only have one language as a state language with minority languages having official status (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2017).

The monolingual language of school paradigm was challenged from the 1990's onwards with greater migration due to a variety of factors such as European Union expansion, globalisation, and migration due to conflicts in many regions. PISA data from 2015 reveal that 91.0 % of 15-year-old students spoke the language of schooling at home. Almost all European countries provide additional language support for the remaining, mostly migrant, students to enable them to access the language of schooling (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2017). In some contexts, however, migrants are not given exposure or access to minority or regional languages. This can be based on a monolingual paradigm that assumes migrants only need to acquire the majority language of schooling and may reflect the low status of the minority language. Well-meaning teachers sometimes timetable migrant students to receive extra majority language support while their classmates are learning the minority language (Gallagher & Leahy, 2014). Access to the minority language can, on the contrary, enhance the integration and inclusion of migrants into a regional language community (Diaz de Gereñu, 2016).

3.2. LANGUAGE LEARNING AND LANGUAGE USE

Research on instructed language learning in school contexts has shown that comprehensible input alone is not sufficient for successful L2 acquisition. Learners need opportunities to produce linguistic output for successful acquisition to occur (Swain, 1985, 1995). Some of the main functions of output identified by Swain were first, the 'noticing/triggering' function that helps to raise the consciousness of the learner to aspects of the L2 that they may not have mastered or the gaps in their own learning to date. It may only be when a learner tries to communicate in the target language that they notice the gaps in their linguistic knowledge. This can also help the learner to pay attention to grammar (Swain & Lapkin, 1995). Second, the hypothesis testing function gives the learner an opportunity to test out their current understanding of grammatical features and to receive feedback. This feedback in turn becomes input that the learner is likely to be ready to process. Third, the metalinguistic function allows learners to reflect on the language that they have produced. We return to linguistic output below but now we turn our attention to learner autonomy.

Little (1991) maintained that learner autonomy was key to successful language acquisition. He suggested that three interacting principles govern successful second language pedagogy: "learner involvement, learner reflection and target language use" (2007, p. 23). While target language usage may be limited to the classroom in many minority and second language contexts, opportunities should be created for authentic target language usage wherever possible. This might be through role play within the class, through virtual contact with target language speakers, or through real-life practice outside of the class context. While real-life practice is the most authentic, all strategies offer learners opportunities to notice the gap

in their existing knowledge and to receive feedback and clarification requests. This aligns with (Little, 1991) who claimed that if learners are to master the L2 structures, their existing knowledge must be reorganised in order to accommodate the new knowledge. This involves learners reflecting on and analysing their output. Ellis (2005) suggests that language tasks can provide opportunities for learners to produce the sustained output that fosters language learning. Asking learners to perform oral and written tasks can push them to find their own words and phrases to express their ideas. The implications for practice in relation to second L2 teaching and learning is that we must provide "increased opportunities for the productive use of the target language in meaningful contexts" (Swain, 1996, p. 97). One way to do this is to

include tasks in our language programmes (Ellis, 2005). Language tasks can provide opportunities for learners to produce the sustained output that fosters language learning. Asking learners to perform oral and written tasks can push them to find their own words and phrases to express their ideas. Employing tasks in this way is a form of interaction.

Interaction in the L2 affords the learner with opportunities to combine input and output as discussed above. Through interaction, learners can become active communicators. They learn how to communicate in a way that they will be understood. This helps them to automatise the linguistic features they are in the process of acquiring. When a communication problem arises they are forced to engage in negotiation for meaning which can lead to modification of what they have said and encourage new learning (Long, 1996).

From a sociocultural perspective, interaction can serve as a form of mediation where collaborative talk can mediate cognition and learning (Swain et al., 2011). This also acknowledges the social domain of language interaction which can be viewed as the primary source of learning (Ellis, 2005). In order to create optimal conditions for interaction in classrooms, Ellis (2005, p. 219) suggests that learners: (i) need to be given some control of the choice of topics, (ii) be given opportunities to express their own personal meanings, (iii) be given a reason to attend to language, and (iv) be scaffolded to participate in language-related activities that are beyond their current level of proficiency. Providing scaffolded opportunities for learners to use the target language beyond the classroom can meet these requirements.

3.3. LINGUISTIC IDENTITY

With state and community support, efforts can be made to provide opportunities for minority speakers to use the language they have learned at home or in school but the question arises as to what might be culturally relevant for them? We believe that the third element of Grin's model, desire to speak the minority language is bound in what Van Lier describes as Agency, Self and Identity (Van Lier, 2010).

This is evident in particular among adolescents who may see certain contextual advantages relating to particular languages, a viewpoint which ultimately impacts language use. In the case of minority languages, this is evident in the low incidence of minority language use in social media due to the prevalence of the majority language within the same domain (Landry, Allard & Deveau, 2010: 212; Stern, 2017: 790).

Gender may also impact minority language use among adolescents. In their research on interactions between Welsh adolescents,Thomas and Roberts (2011) found that 91.7% of interactions among girls were in Welsh while 69.4% of the interactions were in Welsh among boys. Social networks have a significant impact on language use among adolescents. This can be a tumultuous time in the life of a young person that can lead to a need for a common strong and stable identity that can withstand the changes taking place around them. Conformity to particular language behaviours may underpin this identity and provide the required stability. This may include the adoption of phonological innovations to "emphasize differences among themselves" (Eckert, 1998: 198)

In cases where the minority language is confined to the educational domain, the language may be viewed narrow-

ly by young people as a symbol of schooling and of formal practice. This is evident in minority language contexts such as Wales, where English may be seen as the language of rebellion among young people (Price & Tamburelli, 2016) leading to a reluctance to use the language outside of the educational domain. In the case of migrant students whose only contact with the minority language is within the educational domain, it is necessary to provide alternative opportunities and domains in which the minority language would be used to optimise and broaden the contexts of language use. In instances of diglossia where the majority language enjoys a high status as a community language, the minority language consequently may be viewed as having a lower status generally and also among the minority language community itself. In these cases the minority language is seen as a private language enjoying solidarity among members but with little evidence of this solidarity outside of the minority language community itself (Landry et al., 2010). Migrant learners of minority languages for whom the language is solely an educational endeavour may not experience this solidarity and as a result, the functionality of the language and its impact on their identity may be limited (Landry et al., 2010). Moreover, there is a clear tendency to address migrant students in the dominant language, even when they are perfectly able to communicate through the minoritized language (ML), which works against both their desire to speak the language and eventually, their capacity to do it (Suay i Sanginés, 2010).

However, despite the fact that the young learner may not be a regular user of the minority language does not mean that the learner does not wish to experience membership of both (or more) language communities or that their identity cannot be impacted by these experiences. Landry

et al. (2010) discuss, identity involvement, an element of ethnolinguistic identity where individuals state what they are "ethnically, linguistically and culturally" (Landry et al., 2010, p. 77) but need not necessarily identify as members of a single group. For instance, a speaker may prefer to identify as a bilingual speaker as opposed to a member of a single linguistic group. This is evident in the Canadian context presented by Landry et al. (2010) but also evident in other minority language contexts. Young Breton speakers, for example, relate strongly to a Breton identity due to their participation in Breton schooling, however, they also feel a strong connection to their French identity due their involvement in domains and practices where that language is prevalent (Dolowy-Rybinska, 2016). According to Landry et al. (2010), "solidarity domains" such as family and social network are particularly important to young speakers.

This "spirit of solidarity" is evident also among Diwan pupils in Brittany. In this instance, however, linguistic identity is not dependant solely on language use: knowledge of the Breton language is also seen as a factor underpinning the solidarity felt among young speakers (Dolowy-Rybinska, 2016, p. 286). Migrant learners may initially experience delays in the development of communicative competence in the minority language. During this time, efforts should be made to encourage learners to engage with the language in other ways which will underpin their own identity involvement with the language and with the minority language community.

4. MINORITY LANGUAGE USE IN A EUROPEAN UNION CONTEXT

One of the greatest challenges in minority language contexts, where the numbers and concentration of speakers are so small, is to provide opportunities for language use. In many regions (e.g. Ireland, Italy, Wales, Scotland, Basque Country and Valencian Country), minority language speakers are in contact with a majority language which they also speak. There may be no monoglot speakers of the minority language resulting in reduced communicative need to use the minority language. It is widely accepted that the education system is a critical context in the revival and strengthening of minority languages (Fishman, 1991; Manterola, Almgren, & Idiazabal, 2013; May & Hill, 2005). It is equally recognised, however, that schools cannot be the sole agents of language revitalisation without support from outside agencies and society to encourage minority language use through extracurricular and other activities (Baker, 2003; Manterola, 2013; McCarty, 2008; Skutnabb-Kangas, 2008) that should preferably include all aspects of social life (Suay, 2018).

Grin's (2003) model of capacity, opportunity and desire is very useful in examining minority language use in different contexts. Education contexts tend to address language capacity or competency, but have a more limited influence on opportunity and desire. Without language planning policies for what happens outside the school, there is a danger that the minority language learned by students in school will not transfer to wider society due to a lack of opportunity and perhaps a lack of desire to use the minority language. The discourse, however, in some minority language contexts such as Ireland focuses almost exclusively on competence. When competent bilinguals emerge from the education system, the question arises as to whether there is a speech community that they can participate in. In other words, do they get opportunities to use the minority language? Bilingual education can help to provide learners with linguistic capacity but has less control over opportunity.

To illustrate the challenge of minority language use we present census and other data from selected minority language regions. Most of the data are drawn from census of population figures which are based on self-report data of language proficiency. One needs to be careful in interpreting this data as other factors can influence respondents self-assessment of their linguistic ability (Ó Riagáin, 2018). Self-assessment of language proficiency is obviously subjective. Some people will rate themselves as being able to speak a language when they only possess the ability to say a few words. Others, who speak the language regularly, may not consider themselves able to speak it well as it may not be their mother tongue.

4.1. IRISH

The latest census data for the Republic of Ireland revealed that 1.76 million (39.8%) people, aged three and older, responded 'yes' to being able to speak Irish (Central Statistics Office, 2017). Irish is a compulsory subject in the school curriculum for all primary and post-primary students. In order to get a true measure of actual use of Irish in society, respondents were asked if they use Irish on a daily or weekly basis outside the education system. In response to this question 73,803 (1.7%) responded that they spoke Irish daily, and a further 111,473 (2.5%) reported that they spoke it weekly, outside the education system (Central Statistics Office, 2017). So while there was a relatively large percentage of the population reporting competence in Irish, only a small number are active daily or weekly users of Irish.

The Northern Ireland Census 2011 recorded the percentage of the population aged 3 years or over with some ability in Irish as 10.65% (Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency, 2012). The optimistic view of the future of Irish has been that as the language declines in the Gaeltacht, the number of new speakers in urban areas will increase to take their place, in part due to the growth in Irish-medium schools. The Census figures also confirm that the native speakers in the Gaeltacht (Irish-speaking heartland areas) are declining as is the overall number of daily speakers of Irish. If the number of daily speakers of Irish continues to decline, it does not bode well for the future of the language.

Notwithstanding the lack of use of Irish, there are some outward signs of vitality in the Irish language in wider society. Examples include, the establishment of TG4 the Irish-language television station in 1996 and the popularity of its innovative programming; the growth of all-Irish

schools since the 1970's; the volume of works of prose published in Irish in recent years; the enactment of the Official Language Act 2003; the appointment of An Coimisinéir Teanga (Language Commissioner) in 2004; the Irish Government statement on the Irish language in 2006; the achievement of 'official working language' status for Irish in the European Community in 2007; the 20-Year Strategy for Irish in 2010; a policy for education in the Gaeltacht (Department of Education and Skills, 2016); the demand for Irish-language courses for adults and Gaeltacht courses for teenagers. These initiatives and innovations combined with new language planning approaches in the Gaeltacht indicate that there is a considerable vitality in relation to the promotion of Irish.

Behind these outward signs, however, there are underlying trends that are less favourable. The political commitment to the language has declined in recent years in the face of an economic downturn. The Irish language has been in competition with English as a community lan-

guage for centuries. It is now categorised as a minority or lesser used language and the threat from English has not diminished.

The '20-year Strategy for the Irish Language 2010-2030' (Government of Ireland, 2010) seeks to tap that potential and has set an ambitious target of 250,000 daily speakers of Irish by the year 2030. However, progress in achieving this goal and indeed instigating the necessary steps toward this progress has been slow and the strategy has been criticised by many who fear the government in the RoI lacks the will and resources to bring the strategy to fruition (Ó Cuirreáin, 2014).

Pupils in all-Irish schools, located outside the Gaeltacht, depend on dispersed networks of Irish speakers to come in contact with Irish. In circumstances where the language is not visible to pupils outside the context of the school their motivation to learn the language may weaken as the language structures becomes more complex. Pupils may not sustain the effort required to acquire the more difficult structures of Irish if they do not see a practical application for their efforts in their lives outside of school.

Most active Irish speakers live in social contexts that are heavily influenced by the increasing language contact between Irish and English. The global dominance of English is also increasing the extent of code-mixing of the two languages which is a common feature of the speech of Irish speakers (Nic Eoin, 2005). O'Malley Madec (2007) noted in her research that native speakers of Irish in all age-groups use a significant amount of English words and phrases in their speech. A comprehensive linguistic survey of young people of post-primary age in Gaeltacht areas highlighted

the process of language shift and a decrease in their levels of proficiency (Ó Giollagáin et al., 2007; Ó Giollagáin & Charlton, 2015). While 67% of young people in the Gaeltacht describe their level of proficiency in the Irish language as 'fluent' or 'very good', only 10% claim their proficiency in Irish is greater than in English. This contrasts with Wales where 89.4% of pupils from Welsh-speaking homes felt more comfortable speaking Welsh than English while only 5.6% of pupils from English speaking homes and attending Welsh-medium education felt the same (Thomas & Roberts, 2011). A significant number of young people in the Gaeltacht also have difficulty with written language. Among the language areas proving most difficult were spelling, grammar and a deficient vocabulary, particularly in school-related topics (Ó Giollagáin et al., 2007). Further research analysed bilingual competence and language acquisition among young children in the Gaeltacht, whose home language was Irish and who would be classed generally as native speakers (Péterváry et al., 2014). This research reported that pupils exhibited a lower level of ability in Irish than in English with an average difference of 15% between ability in English and Irish. Areas where the English language held an advantage included: vocabulary; functional code switching; grammatical accuracy in morphology and syntax; phonetic accuracy. Concern has been expressed that the decline in the traditional variety of spoken Irish in the Gaeltacht, will give way to a variety spoken by new speakers of Irish that may gain a higher status (Nic Fhlannchadha & Hickey, 2016). Native speaker pupils in Gaeltacht schools are certainly exposed to a greater amount of Irish and enjoy acquisition opportunities not afforded to those pupils in all-Irish schools outside the Gaeltacht. It appears, however, that the level of exposure to the English language has impacted their acquisition of Irish significantly.

IRISH-MEDIUM EDUCATION

The Irish-medium sector has seen a significant growth in the number of schools since the beginning of the 1970s as can be seen in Figure 1. There are now 232 Irish-medium schools in Ireland, 184 primary and 48 post-primary (Source: www.gaeloideachas.ie). Much of this growth has been led by parents who want to ensure that their children acquire a good command of Irish and become bilingual (Ní Thuairisg & Ó Duibhir, 2016).

Figure 1. Growth in Irish-medium schools in Ireland 1972-2017
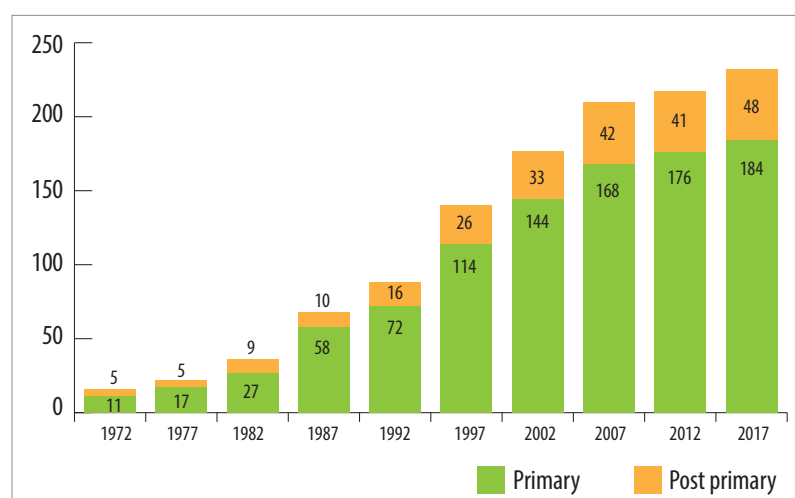
In the 2016-17 school year, 48,069 (6.70%) pupils attended all-Irish primary schools on the island of Ireland as can be seen in Table 1. This means that approximately 7.88% of pupils in the RoI (http://www.education.ie/en/Publications/Statistics/Statistical-Reports/Annual-Statistical-Reports.html) and 3.41% of pupils in NI (https://www.education-ni.gov.uk/topics/statistics-and-research/school-enrolments) receive their primary school

education through the medium of Irish. Irish is a compulsory subject in the school curriculum in the RoI throughout schooling but is optional in NI.

Survey data in the RoI consistently indicate that there is scope to increase this percentage threefold. Almost one-quarter (23%) of respondents in surveys stated that they would send their children to an all-Irish primary school if one was located near their homes (Darmody & Daly, 2015).

Table 1. Pupil enrolment in Irish-medium primary schools in the Republic of Ireland and Northern Ireland in 2016-17.

	Republic of Ireland	Northern Ireland	Total for island of Ireland
Number of pupils in Irish-medium schools	42,956 (7.88%)	5,113 (3.41%)	48,069 (6.70%)
Total number of primary pupils	545,364	171,612	716,976

In Irish-medium schools, Irish is the first language of the school and this is recognised in the curriculum for Irish language (National Council for Curriculum and Assessment, 2019). Schools employ a total early immersion approach and once English language instruction commences, it amounts to approximately 14% of the school day and this remains constant thereafter until the end of primary school. All other subjects (history, geography, science, mathematics, music, drama, visual arts, physical education, and social personal and health education) are taught through the medium of Irish. A third or fourth language is added in post-primary schools and the proportion of instructional time in Irish decreases as a result of this.

Irish is the communicative language of the school and pupils are expected to converse in Irish at all times within the school environment including the school playground at break-time. The vast majority of pupils attending all-Irish schools speak little or no Irish at home or outside the school. All teachers are bilingual and pupil exposure to Irish is effectively confined to the school environment. Their development in English language is supported by its dominant status in the community.

The immersion model employed in NI is closer to the practice found internationally where there is a longer

total immersion period and the exposure to English increases over time. By the end of primary school, children in all-Irish schools in both RoI and NI will have received approximately 6,000 hours of instruction through the medium of Irish. Students are expected to achieve near-native-like ability as they progress through school. This sets a high standard for them to achieve in the absence of significant out-of-school exposure to Irish. This target is in line with current State policy which sees the goal of Irish language education as one of language revitalisation and more recently as producing competent Irish speakers who might extend the use of Irish more widely in society. The NI curriculum for Irish-medium schools sets similar standards (CCEA, 2009). In a review of different primary L2 programmes; Genesee, Holobow, Lambert, & Chartrand (1989, p. 262) concluded that: "If the goal is native-like second language proficiency, then serious consideration needs to be given to how to extend the language environment of programs that lack peer models." This view supports Fishman's (2013) advice of guarding against an over-reliance on the school as the site for language revitalisation.

Given the amount and intensity of exposure to Irish that all-Irish pupils have, is it realistic to expect that they would be able to speak Irish fluently, with a good degree of accuracy in their final year of primary school? The research carried out in this area to date indicates that all-Irish schools have been reasonably successful in this respect. Pupils in the final year in all-Irish primary schools, their eighth year of immersion education, appear very successful in their acquisition of basic literacy and conversational skills (Ó Duibhir, 2018). It is argued that their competence at this juncture enables them to function effectively in an Irish-speaking setting and to learn through the medium of Irish.

4.2. WELSH

In the 2011 Census (Welsh Government, 2012) and the National Survey for Wales, 2017-18 (Welsh Government, 2018), 562,000 (19%) people, aged three or over responded that they could speak Welsh. The most recent Annual Population Survey (APS) (June 2017 to June 2018) reported that 29% of people aged three or over could speak Welsh. This disparity in figures highlights the vagaries of self-report data. Nonetheless, when we examine daily use of Welsh we find that 13% of people aged three and over reported speaking Welsh daily. This represents around 360,900 people. Compared to the same figures for Ireland, there is a smaller gap between competence and daily usage.

WELSH LANGUAGE PROMOTION, DIVERSITY AND SOCIAL INTEGRATION - THE POLICY CONTEXT

Addressing the need to protect and promote the use of Welsh is part of Welsh Government policy. Since devolution in 1999, the Welsh Government exercises legislative powers over 20 devolved areas of Welsh life, including the Welsh language, education and community cohesion. Over the past sixteen years, a growing number of policy statements, strategic documents and legislative measures have been developed to shape a distinctively post-devolutionary vision for Wales.

Language policy in Wales is primarily focused on maintaining the language in the family and community as well as developing Welsh language provision in education and the workplace. Soon after its formation, the devolved Welsh Government published its policy statement on the Welsh language, *Dyfodol Dwyieithog: A Bilingual Future* (July, 2002) and has, since then, published a series of Welsh language strategies intended to encourage the revitalization of the Welsh language. Its first language strategy *Iaith Pawb* [Everybody's Language] 2003 set out the government's vision:

"We want Wales to be a truly bilingual nation, by which we mean a country where people can choose to live their lives through the medium of either Welsh or English and where the presence of the two languages is a visible and audible source of pride and strength to us all." (Welsh Government, 2003:11)

Its second language strategy *Iaith Fyw, Iaith Byw* [*Living Language, Language for Living*] 2012-17 focuses upon encouraging (i) greater use of the Welsh by those who are

'Welsh speakers' and 'learners' of Welsh and (ii) greater acquisition of the language, principally through statutory and lifelong education provision. More recently, the Welsh Government has acknowledged that it will be challenging for its ambitious new language strategy *Cymraeg 2050 – A Million Speakers* (2017a) to be achieved without more proactive engagement with new speakers of Welsh. In this most recent strategy, the term "new speaker" appears for the first time in a policy document as an explicit category in language planning with reference to research by O'Rourke et al (2015). Also significant is the referencing for the first time of 'bilingual and multilingual' learners and technologies as well as valuing multiculturalism and diversity:

"In-migration is a challenge for the Welsh language, but can also be an opportunity to demonstrate how the language can be used to embrace multiculturalism and diversity" (2017:69).

In its language strategies, education is one of the key ways of recruiting and creating new speakers of Welsh. Bilingual education is therefore legitimised and there is an increasing demand for Welsh language education.

WELSH LANGUAGE EDUCATION

The Welsh Government published its first *Welsh-medium Education Strategy* for the development of Welsh-medium education in 2010. Prior to this, the Welsh-medium and Welsh language teaching and learning that had developed across schools in Wales during the second half of the twentieth century had been largely ad hoc and was uncoordinated at national level. The 2010 *Welsh-medium Education*

Strategy required all local authorities to develop their own 'Welsh in Education Strategic Plans' (WESP) setting out their commitments to improving their planning of education through the medium of Welsh (Welsh Government, 2017). According to 2017 figures, 420 primary schools across Wales were providing Welsh-medium education for almost 67,000 learners and there were almost 35,000 learners in the 49 secondary schools delivering Welsh-medium education (Welsh Government, 2017:8). While there has been a substantial increase in the number of schools delivering education through the medium of Welsh to a growing number of pre-school (age 3-4), primary (age 5 – 11) and secondary school (age 11 – 16 or 18) pupils since the 1950's, a recent review of local authority Welsh in Education Strategic Plans has identified the need for more robust strategic planning and investment in order to achieve the vision of creating a million Welsh speakers set out in the *Cymraeg 2050 Strategy* (Roberts, 2017).

KNOWLEDGE AND USE OF WELSH AMONG CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE

The *Welsh Language Use in Wales* survey (2015) provides insight into the shifting patterns in the knowledge and use of Welsh among children and young people and confirms that there has been a decline in the number of fluent Welsh speakers raised speaking Welsh at home and an increase in the less fluent Welsh speakers learning the language in statutory education since 2004 -06 when the survey was previously conducted. The recent survey findings include the following:

- "21 percent of young people 3-15 years old who are Welsh speakers learned to speak Welsh at home as young children.

- The number of people who learned to speak Welsh at home as young children has decreased from 289,000 in 2004-06 to 282,000 in 2013-15.

- Welsh speakers who learned Welsh at home as young children are more likely to be fluent than those who learned the language at school.

- There was an increase in every age group in the number of those who stated that they could speak Welsh but not fluently, but there was a substantial increase amongst the 3 to 15 and 16 to 29 age groups [since 2004-06].

- Young people are more likely than older people to have received their education only or mainly through the medium of Welsh.

- Young Welsh speakers are more likely to have learnt to speak Welsh at school than anywhere else.

- Young people are more likely to speak Welsh at all times, or nearly at all times, at school than with friends or at home.

- The number of people who speak Welsh in school, college or university at all times has risen from 88,000 in 2004-06 to 100,000 in 2013-15".

(Welsh Government and Welsh Language Commissioner 2015:6-8)

These findings emphasise the important role statutory and non-statutory education plays in creating 'new speakers' of minoritized languages in Wales and other contexts. However, it is evident that the increase in the number of children and young people who have knowledge of Welsh does not necessarily mean that they are active users of the language outside the education system. The knowledge and use of Welsh by children of non-Welsh-speaking families, particularly those living in parts of Wales where Welsh is less visible as a community language, can be confined to more formal registers within the context of Welsh-medium education. Consequently, their range of language registers can be restricted and inadequate for them to be able to participate in Welsh medium informal community contexts Thomas and Roberts (2011). A number of studies have shown that this causes individuals to be unwilling to use Welsh in informal contexts and leads to the 'lack of confidence' in using the language that is often referred to (e.g. Baker, 2003; Ó Riagáin, Williams a Vila i Moreno, 2008*).*

A report by Estyn (the schools inspectorate in Wales) states that:

"Many pupils have the ability to use the Welsh language effectively in formal and informal situations. However, a few pupils do not develop their oracy skills to the best of their ability. They are reluctant to take part in discussion work and are not keen to contribute orally in public. A few primary school pupils and the majority of pupils in the secondary schools that were visited choose not to use the language naturally in social situations." (Estyn 2018:3)

Research by Price and Tamburelli concludes that "we are now observing a situation where Welsh is associated with narrow, teacher-led and educationally orientated contexts" (2016:14). Their study of secondary school pupils in Cardiff displayed "no experience of using informal language practices; the formal register learned by informants is wholly inappropriate for casual application" (Ibid.: 23). An awareness of this phenomenon has led to a shift in policy emphasis in recent years to supporting learners of Welsh to also be users of the language

FROM WELSH LANGUAGE LEARNER TO USER

The *Cymraeg 2050: A million Welsh speakers* strategy to grow the number of Welsh speakers to a million by the middle of the century identifies a key role for the education system in achieving this goal. The strategy also acknowledges that "changes will need to be made to the curriculum to ensure that all learners in Wales are able to develop their Welsh language skills for social and work use" (Welsh Government, 2019:3). As such, one of the key

Cymraeg 2050 aims is to "embed positive language use practices supported by formal and informal opportunities to use Welsh socially" (Welsh Government 2017a:57).

A new curriculum for Welsh schools will be rolled out to all schools in 2022. In the context of the new curriculum there is a commitment to develop "transformational approaches to learning, teaching and assessment of the Welsh language, with a view to ensuring an increase in the number of confident Welsh speakers within the statutory education system. This will ensure that, in future, all learners can use the Welsh language after leaving school. In addition, embedding and extending the informal use of Welsh will be a key part of the areas of learning and experience within the new curriculum" (Welsh Government, 2019:3).

In recent years, Welsh Government has funded various initiatives aimed at supporting primary and secondary school aged children to make the transition from being a Welsh learner to a Welsh user.

SIARTER IAITH [LANGUAGE CHARTER]

The Welsh Language Charter (Siarter Iaith) was initially a scheme developed by Gwynedd Council to involve all the primary schools within the authority to plan strategically to develop learners' use of Welsh in social contexts as well as informally within schools. Now a Government funded project, the Siarter Iaith has been implemented in all Welsh-medium primary schools in Wales as a means of strategically planning to develop learners' use of the language. Cymraeg Campus Language Charter, a version of the Siarter Iaith adapted to the context of English-medium primary schools has been implemented in 25 schools in mid and West Wales (ERW, 2018). For Welsh medium secondary schools, a toolkit was developed to be used to embed young people's language use practices and support the development of school level projects to encourage informal language use among learners. Support has also provided to Welsh-medium secondary schools to develop activities to encourage learners' informal use of Welsh (Welsh Government, 2019:4)

CYMRAEG POB DYDD [WELSH EVERY DAY] is a Welsh Government funded scheme run by the URDD (Welsh language youth organisation) which involves working with Welsh learners in English medium secondary schools across Wales. The project comprises of two parts.

- Gweithgareddau Cymraeg Bob Dydd (Welsh Everyday Activities). In 2019, the Urdd is working with 40 schools to help organise and run events

that provide opportunities for young learners to use Welsh in non-school settings.

• Cyrsiau Cymraeg Bob Dydd (Welsh Everyday Courses). These courses are held in one of the URDD's three Residential Centres and provide young learners with the opportunity to combine having informal Welsh lessons, participating in the various activities on offer in each centre and having the opportunity to practice their spoken Welsh in an informal Welsh language environment. (https://www.urdd.cymru/en/youth-work/cymraeg-bob-dydd/)

Since April 2019, a single, national Siarter Iaith Framework has been launched with the aim to:

"embed positive habits and attitudes towards the language through purposeful planning within schools and to pro-

mote informal use of it among learners inside and outside school, bringing together various partners to implement.

Facilitating the use of Welsh, across the curriculum and in wider activities, with planned linguistic progression throughout all phases of education, will offer all children and young people the opportunity to become fully bilingual. To ensure that we support the development of the Welsh language across all our schools, and to align with the development of the new curriculum, we have created one national framework, which builds on existing projects including the Welsh Language Charter (Siarter Iaith), Cymraeg Campus and the supporting Welsh language practices project. All schools, regardless of their linguistic nature, will work within the same framework to achieve the aim of ensuring that learners:

- are confident in using their Welsh language skills

- foster positive attitudes towards the language

- increase the use of the language inside and outside the school.

The implementation of this framework will be a core part of offering opportunities to children and young people to enrich their learning experiences and will play an important part in supporting the new curriculum" (Welsh Government, 2019).

4.3. FRIULIAN

According to an inquiry carried out in 2014 (ARLeF), currently, in the provinces of Gorizia, Pordenone and Udine, 600,000 people live in the Friulian language. Of these, 420,000 speak it regularly, 180,000 occasionally. This is more than 60% of the population of the three provinces. If the inhabitants of the province of Trieste are included in the account, the speakers in Friuli are almost half of the total population of Friuli Venezia Giulia.

The understanding of the Friulian language, even among those who do not speak it, concerns almost all people: in the province of Pordenone and Gorizia, more than 83% of the population includes Friulian. This percentage rises to over 96% in the case of the province of Udine. This means that, overall, more than 90% of the inhabitants in the three considered provinces at least state that they understand the Friulian language.

In 2001, the regional school authority initiated the systematic application of the law in the institutions, suggesting to teachers the choice of plurilingualism understood

as the ability to «master more languages, manipulate more codes, grasp the deeper meaning of the identity of the social group of which every language is an expression ». On the basis of Law 482/1999 (art. 4.2), in education, Friulian can be taught as a subject or used as a medium of instruction.

In 2007, the Region - also as a result of the implementing decree of the Statute of Autonomy n. 223/2002 - adopted its own regional law regarding the teaching of Friulian and subsequently (in 2011) a regulation that established a minimum number of hours. The rules provide, among other things, for the adoption of a specific "System application plan for the teaching of the Friulian language" and the establishment of a regional list of Friulian teachers.

Friulian language teaching in practice is mostly carried out through projects that usually are concentrated in certain parts of the school year and focus on folklore, anthropology, history, literature, art and science. The development of projects allows schools to fit Friulian teaching in the normal school programmes, tailoring it to different situations: it can be done in an intensive or extensive way, with interdisciplinary features, involving different classes or groups.

This structure and format of teaching for Friulian is replicated at the lower secondary level. No specific legislation on minority language teaching exists for higher secondary education. This means that institutions are free to propose minority language learning but this, in concrete terms, depends exclusively on the teachers' will[1].

1.Source: Petris (2014)

4.4. LADIN

Italy recognizes a number of regional or minority languages spoken on the National territory (law 482/1999): Arbereshe (aae), Alghero Catalan, Molise Croatian (svm), French, Francoprovençal (frp), Greko, Friulian (fur), Slovene (slv), Occitan (oci, in Piedmont Occitan valleys and in the municipality of Guardia Piemontese in Calabria), Ladin (lld), Sardinian (sdn), and a number of Germanic languages (so-called Austro-Bavarian dialects such as South-Tyrolian, bavaro-carinziani from Sauris, Timau, Sappada and Val Canale, Cimbrian (cim) and Mocheno (mhn), and the Walser language (wae) spoken in Aosta Valley and Piedmont). The catalogue of recognized minority languages does not fully represent the actual richness of the country in terms of linguistic diversity, in that many languages are still without any institutional recognition. In this report, we will focus on the cases of Friulian and Ladin, which are best supported at the educational level.

Ladin is a neo-Ladin language spoken in the Central and Eastern Alpine regions, more precisely in five valleys of the Dolomites in Italy: Val Badia, Gherdëina, Fascia, Fodom and Cortina d'Ampezzo. Out of a total population of some 38,000 people in all five Ladin valleys, approximately 30,000 speak Ladin (79%). Census data for those speaking Ladin are available for the province of Bolzano, where about 19,000 Ladin speakers represent 90% of its population. In the Fascia Valley in the province of Trento, the number of Ladin speakers is about 8,000. In the Fodom and Cortina d'Ampezzo Valleys in the province of Belluno, some 5,000 persons still speak the language. The numbers of speakers did not significantly change in the last ten years, as confirmed by the last census in 2011, which saw the same percentage of people declaring themselves as Ladins in the province of Bolzano. While all Ladins understand and speak the Ladin language, about 14% declare to have some difficulties with writing it, according to the "Language Barometer" edited by the Autonomous Province of Bolzano in 2015.

Since the use of the language is spread across areas belonging to administrative regions, the regulation of Ladin use in school is not homogeneous. In the Bolzano province, the regional statute of autonomy allows for greater use of Ladin than in other provinces.

Ladin is the main language of instruction in pre-school education and is used during group activities. Regular multilingual activities are also carried out, following a so-called "integrated multilingual approach". At the primary level, Ladin is used alongside Italian and German in the first grade. From second grade, teaching is done in Italian and German, and Ladin is a school subject (two hours per week). Since 2000, the Ladin school administration

started a project of multilingual integrated learning. After some initial resistance, the project proved very successful, contributing to increasing both language awareness and language prestige. Moreover, it helped teachers meet the needs of a more globalised and varied school population, especially in areas where students have a very diversified linguistic background at home.

In lower secondary education in Gherdëina and Badia, both German and Italian are used as a language of instruction on an equal level. School subjects are taught either in German or in Italian. Not all teachers of the school subjects are mother tongue speakers of Ladin. Ladin is used as a language of instruction for two hours a week and at the same time it is a school subject alongside English, for two hours a week. This means that all pupils at the lower level learn four languages.

In upper secondary education, German and Italian are the main languages of instruction. Two weekly hours of Ladin are compulsory in all classes, but students from outside the Ladin area may choose another subject instead of Ladin. At this level, Ladin classes are also seen as a good basis for passing the compulsory language test which is necessary for access to jobs in the public service in the valley.

For those students who did not attend a lower secondary school with Ladin, this subject is offered on an optional basis.

In Trento province, Ladin is used in pre-schools as a medium of instruction on a parity basis with Italian. At the primary level, since 2010, parents may choose a new teaching model offered by some schools where two thirds of classes are taught in Italian and one third in Ladin. Some

primary schools in Fascia valley have also applied an experiment where Ladin and Italian are used on a basis of near parity. German and English are also taught, from first grade and third grade, respectively.

The main goal of these innovations is to convey a good level of multilingualism and to strengthen the Ladin language in its prestige and fundamental competencies. The same system is also applied in lower secondary education, with one weekly hour in which Ladin is taught and the use of Ladin as a language of instruction in at least two classes. In upper secondary education, Ladin is also taught as a school subject.

In Belluno province, at the pre-school level, Ladin is sometimes used on a voluntary basis and mainly in informal communication between pupils and teachers. At the primary and lower secondary level, one weekly hour is offered for teaching Ladin, but only upon parents' request. Ladin is not offered in upper secondary schools[2].

2. Source: van der Schaaf and Verra (2015).

4.5. VALENCIAN (CATALAN)

In a recent survey of knowledge and social use of the Valencian language, it was found that just over half the respondents (50.9%) could speak Valencian fluently (33%) or competently (17.9%) (Generalitat Valenciana, 2015). In relation to the use of Valencian it was found that: 5% of respondents use Valencian a lot; 21% quite often; and 28%, usually. These figures imply that unlike some other minority languages reviewed so far, there does not appear to be a gap between knowledge of Valencian and its use.

If we examine the current linguistic situation in the Valencian territories, the final diagnosis is of a diglossic society in which the inherent status of Catalan-Valencian as a minority language is in a more vulnerable state in Valencia than in Catalonia. (Nicolàs, 2004). Contributing factors must be understood within a complex and multiform dynamic between existing relationships in the language, locus of political power, and society.

The 1960s meant a point of no return for Valencian sociolinguistics. The decline of agrarian economies and populations and the rapid industrialization (with the surge of non-Valencian populations of workers) impacted demographics in the territories, trending towards greater urban concentrations, and the reinforcement of an ongoing intra- and inter-regional territorial dispute in Spain. This coincided with a crisis period for a network of political institutions that had served as a linguistic bulwark for the Castilian language, leaving an opportunity for the Valencian language revindication movement.

This scenario gave birth to a political program formulated in the writings of Joan Fuster, adopted by a committed minority within the intellectual and university sectors of society, and undoubtedly constituting a multifold challenge to the linguistic and cultural status quo in the Valencian territories that the Franco regime had left in place. This turn of events called to question the political and vehicular language of the Valencian population, notions of former sociolinguistic privilege, as the Valencian language became more widespread in its knowledge and use.

Linguistic reforms were carried forth during the democratic transition inspired by the ideology of Catalanism, which later itself became a target for regional backlash in the form of a movement called "blaverisme" (referring to a blue fringe on the Valencian flag, it has been a political movement defined by the conviction that that the Valencian language is an altogether separate language from Catalan). The two ideological movements were influential forces that shaped the identity conflict known as "batalla de València", characterized by social mobilizations that dominated the public scene, at least until the Statute of Autonomy,1982 and the Law on the Usage and Teaching

of the Valencian Language (LUEV), 1983, reduced the tensions through an act of law.

The recent commemoration of the thirty-fifth anniversary of the LUEV highlights its paucities and its non-compliance (Mesa per l'Ensenyament en Valencià, 2008). According to Pitarch (1984), this law was inadequate from the beginning because of its politically motivated origins — a coalition of the Valencian Socialist Party-Spanish Socialist Party (PSPV-PSOE) drafted the law to be applied by the ruling Popular Party, which has traditionally taken a clear position against normalising the social use of the Valencian language. Beyond this, Pitarch calls into question the impact that this law could have had on a society already affected by a "dramatic" linguistic situation. The author points out in "Reflexió crítica sobre la Llei d'Ús i Ensenyament del Valencià" (1984) that the LUEV is incapable—precisely because it does not even make mention of it—to create an objective framework that would move Valencian society forward from this linguistic conflict. Thus, compliance with this law is seen as nonsensical. His conclusion was that the need, given the circumstances, was for legal linguistic normalization and not simply a legal guidepost in which "alongside proclamations of good intentions, serious deficiencies in the articulation of operational measures, decisive gaps and even serious ambiguities dominate".

THE USE AND KNOWLEDGE OF VALENCIAN TODAY

A focus on the current situation of the usage and knowledge of Valencian in the Valencian territories shows that there is no detailed data on either the evolution or the

state of the language from the democratic transition period (around the 1980's) or from the LUEV (1983) to date. Despite this, the Sociological Research and Studies Service (SIES) does provide some important sociolinguistic data that may help us understand the situation from surveys carried out every five years.

The work of Mas & Montoya (2011) include an analysis of the results of a survey published in 2010, the conclusion of which is that Valencian language usage and knowledge have maintained a correlation: when language usage has suffered a decrease, a working knowledge of the language also drops. As causes of this decrease, the authors point to demographic changes between 2001 and 2010—the population in the Valencian territories grew by almost one million. The second reason they cited were the policies carried out by the different autonomous governments that since 1995 were in the hands of the Popular Party (PP).

By contrast, if we consider the work of Mas (2018) which analyzes the latest results published in 2015, the four areas of self-declared knowledge and competency are comparatively higher than those in the 2010 survey (see graph 1). According to the author, however, these apparently hopeful results are clouded if we bear in mind that greater levels of Valencian language usage currently do not include key demographic groups like younger generations or inhabitants in the densest urban areas. (Source: Mas i Miralles, 2017).

It seems that 1995 marked a turning point in terms of the social use of Valencian, when a period of consistent decline began. The Valencian language recovery process from the advent of democracy and a minority language

legislative protections, along with the establishment of bilingual education programmes surprisingly have had little effect on this usage decline, even in a period of no political disruptions on a regional or municipal level.

To summarise, it is evident that policies regarding the Valencian language carried out during the last years do not lead to encouraging results for either the use or the perception of the language, unless we are unable to change language policies to stem the decline. In the report "Un nou model lingüístic educatiu per a l'educació plurilingüe i intercultural del sistema educatiu valencià", (A New Linguistic Plurilingual and Intercultural Education Model for the Valencian Educational System), addressed to the Department of Education, Research, Culture and Sports of the Generalitat Valenciana Government (Pascual et. al., 2016), the drafting committee sees clearly the challenges for the immediate future: "redressing this situation will require a language policy that adopts as its priority objectives consistent with the territorial restructuring, social cohesion and equitable treatment of Valencian pupils and the languages they speak. An ambitious educational language policy that has a majority support, both political and educational, and that can set in motion long-term processes of change in order to achieve a coherent, inclusive, innovative Valencian educational system that young Valencians deserve".

5. BODY OF THE GUIDE

This section will describe the necessary steps to achieve a suitable degree of inclusion of students with language barriers in minority language learning. Since, at is has been previously explained, ML-learners do cannot benefit from the conditions that usually help to learn dominant languages, some strategies have to be implemented in order to improve the language acquisition and, particularly, to increase the social opportunities and the personal willingness to do so. To that purpose, a method has been first developed and then adapted to classroom contexts.

5.1. METHODOLOGY

The method proposes to use a learning path with individual gains and group support in a bottom-up intervention, aiming to improve the ML's social presence and visibility, by facilitating speakers and learners' behavioral changes. It is designed to transition a student to a student-user in both sociolinguistic attitude and habits.

Preparation happens initially in classrooms through discussions, simulations, activities and practice cycles, to develop language skills that learners will eventually need in situ. Students get closer to a personal style through phrasal approximation from the languages they are more familiar with and develop a communication toolbox of idiomatic and phrasal language for different interactions. Through the process of preparing and "repairing" each interaction after practice, they investigate paraphrasing, grammar, vocabulary, and idioms associated with certain communication functions like requesting, describing or agreeing/disagreeing. Once this level of practice is repeated, students can work on sociolinguistic and performative parts of the interaction to streamline their overall ability: language switching requests, explanations of why they are using the Valencian language; conversation control strategies for when they go blank or don't understand something the native speaker says, and clear objectives and reachable practice standards. Using readily available technology like smartphone recorders, translation apps, and mnemonic devices, students can experience the live practice side of language learning, charged with adrenaline and feeling more impactful and memorable, yet with the harnessing capability of technology and classroom orientation and support.

The course requires regular practice cycles until the end of the term. Once the learners become familiar with the preparation and execution of the practice skills, the emphasis can shift to audio feedback to help each student spot their strengths and weaknesses, patterns, and update their learning objectives. Through repetition, students see dramatic improvements between their first practice and their third, in one month, in a given situation. Their language use integrates with their most everyday, rele-

vant exchanges with others, and a personalised use scale begins to reveal itself to each student — what is easier, harder, more and less intimidating — their learning edge. This combines all the elements of Little's (2007) three interacting principles; learner involvement, reflection and target language use. Reflection on the task and any challenges the students encountered becomes the focus of attention back in the classroom and in turn generates interaction leading to further learning (Lilja & Piirain-en-Marsh, 2018).

Language training with a traditional academic focus often neglects the teaching of the local language as a *life skill* — a training that requires inclusion of real practice, psychology (habits and motivation), performance science, and sociolinguistic elements, so the student can chart an immediate path towards increased usage.

5.2. SCI METHOD: A LANGUAGE-USE ACCELERATOR

THREE SECTIONS TO COVER A BROADER RANGE OF COMPETENCIES

The three main sections in the course can be divided into: (i) linguistic and mental preparedness for a language-use course; (ii) the practice cycles; and, (iii) the learning enrichment section, whereby improvements learned from previous interactions and applied to new ones.

Each section emphasises different skill sets, allowing ne-

MENTAL PREPARATION ACTIVITIES MENU					
BIGGER YES MOTIVATION	ORIENTATION USE vs KNOWLEDGE	COURSE OVERVIEW	INTERACTION -OLOGY	DE-MYTHIFY	SWITCHING ASSERTIVE -NESS

INTERACTION PRACTICE AND PREPARATION					
PARAPHRASE ROLE COMMUNICTION	SCRIPTS TRANSLATE TRANSCRIBE TAG	CONVERSATION CONTROL	BETTER CHEAT SHEETS	RECORDINGS FOR QUICK ACCESS	SEQUENCE APPLICATION CYCLES

CAPTURE/APPLICATION PRACTICE CYCLES				
UPDATE COMMUNICATION MAPS	PARSE LANGUAGE OBJECTIVES	REFINE SOCIOLINGUISTIC BEHAVIOURS	MEASURE INTERACTION PROGRESS	NEXT LEVEL

cessity to determine the priorities within a variable structure of activities. Language levels can be adjusted by varying the complexity or the duration of an interaction, or by allowing for a greater degree of unpredictability in the interaction.

5.2.1. COGNITIVE PROCESSES: NATURAL REPETITION AND THE INTERSECTION WITH PRACTICE ROUTES

A language use method cannot aim but to incorporate interactions with all types of natives out of the classroom. These interactions are the building blocks of "use" fluency—by challenging the student to plan which interactions they are working to transform into the target language. With experience-based feedback, they improve phrasing, communication habits, sociolinguistic awareness, and overcome other personal limitations that too often inhibit further practice.

To scale language-use practise, the **Speech Community Integration** (SCI) method focuses on the repeated communication patterns that can be easily learned and profited from with practise. As the student repeats interactions, older lessons are reinforced, newer ones are more quickly assimilated.

In the following weeks or months, the student has a better understanding of themselves as a habitual communicator, of where to locate and how to evaluate the easiest intervention points for further language practice use.

The interactions are measured against an index that tracks improvements and the progress each student makes.
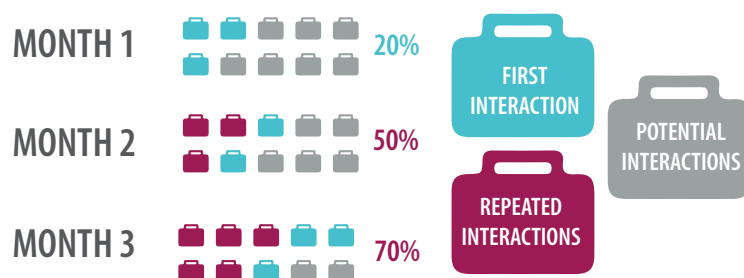
EACH INTERACTION COUNTS FOR ONE UNIT OF FLUENCY. YOU REINFORCE AND BUILD ON WHAT YOU HAVE PREVIOSLY LEARNED

The WHOLE interaction, from beginning to end is considered **ONE UNIT OF FLUENCY**

5.2.2. SOCIO-CULTURAL INCLUSION PROCESSES: SOCIAL ROLES AND SCRIPTS

With many people with whom we communicate, we come from a social role. We speak in often predictable ways, within semi-flexible formulaic scripts that guide us through these situations. Our words and phrases can vary, but our communication objectives remain linked to the context, whether in a purchase interaction, or a service repair. Therefore, a good part of the interaction is predictable. Language learning is really about strategies for better communication, as a vehicle for doing, changing, and resolving life-appertaining concerns.

PURCHASES IN GREEK (an example)

This graphic illustrates how an interaction can branch forward, and how the student can continue to push forward the communication in the moment, by phrase. Scripts are of the students' own co-authorship, and adaptive as competencies evolve. Key reminders can be inserted into a script that prompt more application of learning objectives and phrasal variation.

5.2.3. ACADEMIC PROCESSES: "USE" PERSPECTIVE: NATURAL TRANSFERENCE TO TARGET LANGUAGE

The use of natural language in the context of the target language is the objective to aim for. To master the interaction, language students need opportunities to hear how they sound in the new language and what the impact they have on native speakers in repeated situations. It's important, then, for the student to capture the spirit of what they intend to say, and for this, back and forth translation work can often be a part of the script learning process.

When the student records the natural language of the native speaker, they can re-listen as many times as necessary for greater comprehension and insight into the natural phrasing in a given situation. When the student hears themselves in the situation, they can pinpoint their awareness and focus on the improvements that will make the most difference for them in subsequent interactions.

5.2.4. LINGUISTIC PROCESSES: COMMUNICATIVE FUNCTIONS

In a use-based method, communication acts are labeled and categorised by their communicative function for quicker mastery and for cluster memorisation. Functions are labeled by their grammatical and communicative purpose, i.e., a request, or a conditional question, including the student's own phraseological preferences for that function. This makes it possible for beginners to use communicative functions adapted to their language level, to accomplishing tasks in interactions with a high degree of predictability and communication from social roles. The degree of non-conscription of social role communication, the elaborateness of the phraseology and the communicative function mark the road to increasing degrees of complexity. The graphic below scales the comparative difficulty of a transaction against a conversation in which persuasive or negotiation functions are involved.

TRANSACTION · INSTRUCTIONS · DESCRIPTION · NARRATION · PERSUASION

EASIER → MORE DIFFICULT
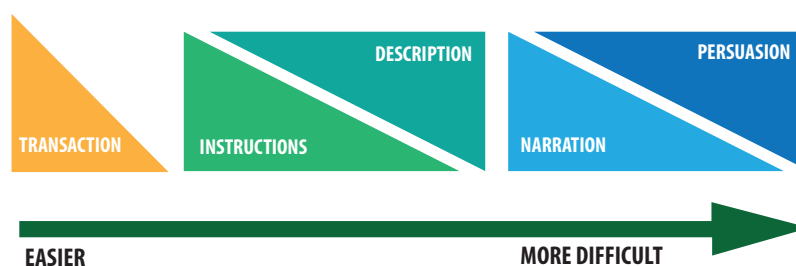
5.3. CALENDAR OF "USE" PRACTICE AND CLASSROOM INTERVALS

In order to effectively apply the method, a specific calendar should be adopted. It should take into account the sessions devoted to preparation as well as the outside practical sessions and the classroom-based review, rehearsal and repetition practices that will lead to mastering and automatising the practical language skills that constitute the main objective to achieve. The outside practices may benefit from the concourse of assistant teachers who might be provided via agreements with the local universities (Master students of the Educational Sciences and/or Teaching Studies Schools) and/or with local associations devoted to language and culture promotion.

INTERACTIONS
1... 2... 3... 4... 5... 6...

SESSION 1 SESSION 2 SESSION 3 SESSION 4 SESSION 5 SESSION 6 SESSION 7

■ IN-CLASS

■ PRACTICE SESSIONS OUTSIDE SUPERVISED PRACTICE SESSIONS

■ INCREMENTAL USAGE EXERCISES
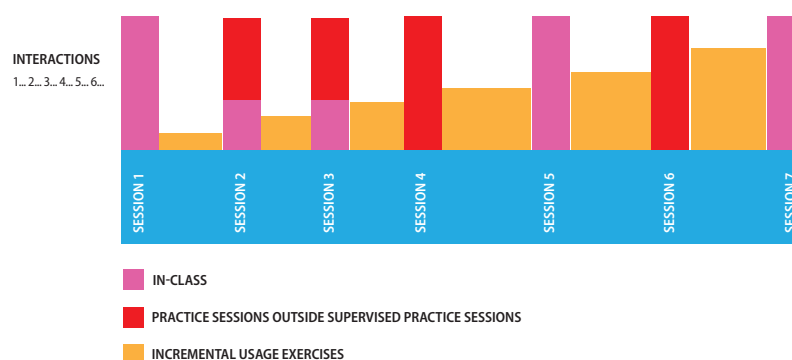
Use based tasks create a bridge between the classroom and the interactions with natives. They are the preparation and feedback necessary to sustain practice routes as an adaptive, incremental language user.

During sessions, the classroom serves as a centre of operations, where students gather input, regroup, listen to recordings, transcribe, and plan new strategies for new interactions.

5.4. USE AREAS IN EVERYDAY LIFE

As the course progresses, each student has the opportunity to reflect and measure their sociolinguistic behaviours outside of the classroom to identify where transformation to target language is occurring, and which opportunities are still untouched. With language maps, they can visually track frequency of interactions repeated by interaction type, applied improvements, and growing levels of complexity.

The main benefit is that they gain an awareness of themselves as communicators, able to better strategise when and where to practice "use".

Legend:
- **HOBBIES** — 38%
- **SERVICES** — 31%
- **PURCHASES** — 12%
- **CALLS** — 11%
- **TRANSPORT** — 9%
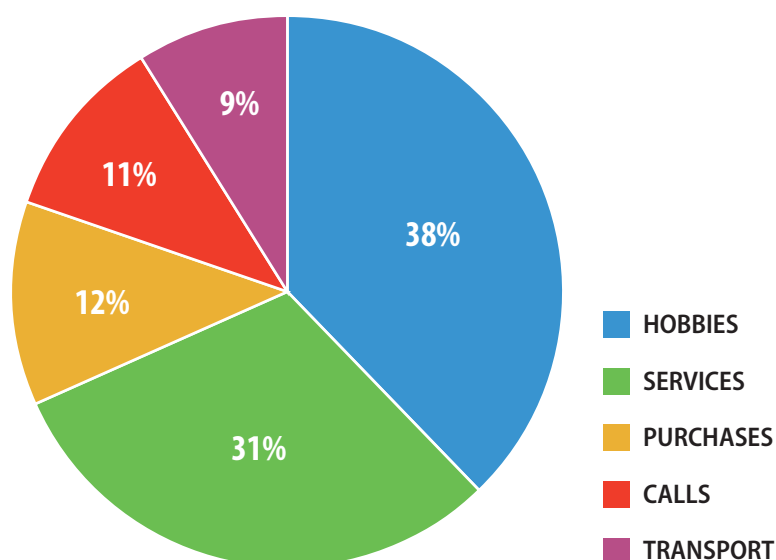
As in the shape of a funnel, the scope of the improvements the student can see in a repeated interaction become narrower and more focused. This "learning edge" is a continuous application of improvements learned from past interactions, adding new ones incrementally. Once students

work on a category like interactions—purchases, they can identify the cross-applications of phrases and functions, increasing their confidence as interactors.

5.5. CAPTURE, STORAGE AND RECORD TOOLS

The tools the students use are based on everyday technology — the smart phone. With apps that assist with everything from recording to supplemental translation assistance to accountability reminders and practise calendars, script making and personal map making and sharing — virtual reality makes it possible to upload and share practises.

PROCESSING THE INFORMATION: Interactions should go through a process able to find the most useful sentences for each student, depending on the situation. Sentences are elastic and it is alway possible to change words, verbs, and so on, the structure, though, has to be kept in order to facilitate and optimize performance.

FIRST SCRIPT	PRACTICES	REVIEW	FOLLOWUP PRACTICE
CAPTURE		SCRIPT IMPORVEMENTS	
TRANSCRIPTION		GRAMMAR AND VOCAB	
TRANSLATION		NEW VARIABLES	
SCRIPTS AND INDEX CHIPS		NEW DIGRESSIONS	

5.5.1. VIDEOS

ONE MINUTE VIDEO OF STUDENT GROUPS • CATALAN USAGE TRAINING

https://youtu.be/zFLaYnOD9OE

TWO MINUTE VIDEO AS A SAMPLE USAGE TOOL

https://youtu.be/iLGEdS3q3X8

5.5.2. OPEN EDUCATIVE RESOURCES AND PROGRAMS

The integration of a reality-based language practise program brings up the question of effective trainings, student motivation and the management of emotions like fear, awkwardness and uncertainty in the practise process. Students' varied abilities related to communication in 'real world' reveal themselves, as the type of support needed when the teacher doubles as language user guide. These issues are largely solved through classroom activities and conversations that encourage the trial of new things, exploring solutions with role plays and practice routes that have the highest pragmatic application and relevance to learners.

RESOURCES LEARNING CATALÀ

DICTIONARIES

Diccionari de llengua catalana de l'IEC
Second edition of the Dictionary of Catalan language of the
Institut d'Estudis Catalans.
https://dlc.iec.cat

Diccionari de l'Enciclopèdia Catalana
http://www.diccionari.cat/

Diccionari Català-Valencià-Balear

Dictionary Catalan-Valencian-Balearic (DCVB) of A. M. Alcover and F. de B. Moll is the result of the computerization project of the DCVB that was carried out at the IEC during the biennium 2001-2002.

https://dcvb.iec.cat/

Optimot. Consultes lingüístiques

https://aplicacions.llengua.gencat.cat/llc/AppJava/index.html

TRANSLATORS

Salt

Interactive translator of the Language and Advice Consulting Service of the Generalitat Valenciana

http://www.salt.gva.es/va/traductor

Internostrum
Machine translation system Spanish-Catalan.
http://www.internostrum.com/

Opentrad
Platform for automatic translation services in open source.
http://www.opentrad.com

Traductor Softcatalà
Automatic translator online, open source. You have the option to choose the Valencian variety for translation.
https://www.softcatala.org/traductor/

Traductor Google
Automatic translator online that allows translating between Catalan and more than 40 languages
https://translate.google.es/?hl=ca

Apertium
Automatic open source online translator
https://www.apertium.org/index.cat.html?dir=cat-por#translation

MATERIALS

Recursos Digitals
Digital resources for teaching, learning and working
https://sites.google.com/a/xtec.cat/rdzereral/

Recursos de català
Catalan resources for students and teachers in classrooms and adult training centers
http://xtec.gencat.cat/ca/recursos/catala/

Edu365.cat
Educational Telematics Network of Catalonia
http://edu365.cat/

Un entre tants
Cooperative network for sharing ICT experiences and researching digital resources and utilities for teaching and learning in Valencian
https://www.1entretants.cat/

La Calaixera
In accordance with the objectives of the Participative Council for the Language, to promote the participation of the entities and organizations in the policies of linguistic normalization and to watch over the increase and the quality of the social use of the language in all the scopes , the City Council of Girona makes available to all the citizens of La Cajixera language and country.
http://www.lacalaixera.cat/

ENCYCLOPEDIAS

Enciclopèdia Catalana
L'Enciclopèdia.cat is the digital project of the Grup Enciclopèdia Catalana where it offers quality encyclopaedic information and updated in Catalan and, especially, in the Catalan sphere.
https://www.enciclopedia.cat

Viquipèdia
Viquipèdia, the free encyclopedia that is written collaboratively by its readers.
https://ca.wikipedia.org/wiki/Portada

GRAMMARS

Gramàtica de la llengua catalana
Texts of Grammar of the Catalan language of Institut d'Estudis Catalans.
https://geiec.iec.cat

Resum de gramàtica bàsica
Catalan grammar summary. A complementary material to the practice that seeks to solve the most fundamental doubts.
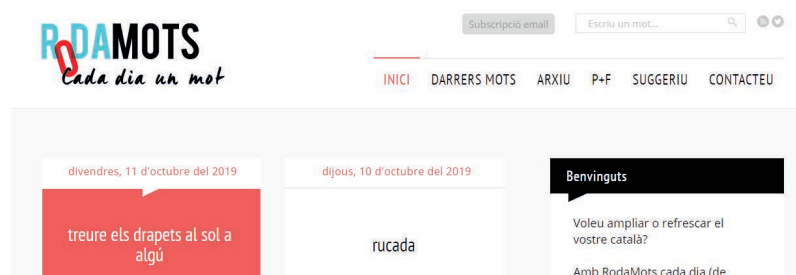http://www.ub.edu/slc/autoaprenentatge/gramatik/

Gramàtica Zero
Gramàtica zero is a project conceived as a practical support to solve, in a fast and understandable way, the most common problems and doubts in the linguistic use, especially in the syntax.
https://www.uv.es/splweb/documents/Gramatica_zero.pdf

Rodamots
http://rodamots.cat/

Minimàlia
http://www.minimalia.net/inici.asp

RESOURCES LEARNING LADIN

Mediateca Ladina
http://mediateca.ladintal.it/home.page

Istitut Ladin Micurá de Rü
https://www.micura.it/la/

Dialektometrie projekt - Salzburg
http://dialectometry.com/ald/

Ald-i
http://ald.sbg.ac.at/ald/ald-i/

Guida linguistica: Italiano-Ladino
http://www.ladinia.it/it/informazioni/489/ladinia/
guida-linguistica

RESORUCES LEARNING WELSH

Information for Employers (Ioan, G and Tomos, S. and Jones, K)
Information pack for workplace regarding language planning and the Work Welsh provision, Y Ganolfan Dysgu Cymraeg Genedlaethol (2017)
https://dysgucymraeg.cymru/media/1658/pecyngwybodaeth_s_arlein_fesul-tudalen.pdf

Opening Both Doors – an introduction to bilingual youth work, Wales Youth Agency, (2000, 2010). (Ioan, G)
https://www.iaith.cymru/uploads/general-uploads/agor_dau_ddrws_ionawr_2010.pdf

Google Translate
https://translate.google.es/?hl=ca

BBC Wales Learning - Learn Welsh
https://www.bbc.co.uk/wales/learning/learnwelsh/

RESORUCES LEARNING IRISH

Duolingo
https://www.duolingo.com/

Oideas Gael
http://www.oideas-gael.com/ga/

Glossika Irish
https://ai.glossika.com/language/learn-irish

Bitesize Irish Gaelic
https://www.bitesize.irish/

Fuaimeanna na Gaeilge - Compare three dialects of Irish
http://www.fuaimeanna.ie/ga/

Nualéargais
http://www.nualeargais.ie/

Teastas Eorpach na Gaeilge
http://www.teg.ie/

Is Féidir Liom
http://www.isfeidirliom.ie/

Irish For Parents
https://irishforparents.ie/

Easy Irish
https://www.easyirish.com/

Gaeilge.ie
https://www.gaeilge.ie/

Ranganna
https://www.ranganna.com/

Gaelchultur
https://www.gaelchultur.com/

An Chomhairle um Oideachas Gaeltachta & Gaelscolaíochta
https://www.cogg.ie/

Abair.ie (Phonetics and Speech Laboratory)
http://www.abair.tcd.ie/

Focloir.ie (New English-Irish Dictionary)
https://www.focloir.ie/

Pota Focal
http://www.potafocal.com/

Acmhainn.ie
http://www.acmhainn.ie/

Aistear.ie
https://www.aistear.ie/

Tearma.ie - The National Terminology Database for Irish
https://www.tearma.ie/

Daltaí na Gaeilge
http://www.daltai.com/

Wikivoyage - Irish travel phrases
https://en.wikivoyage.org/wiki/Irish_phrasebook

TG4
https://tg4.ie/ga/

BBC Gaeilge
https://www.bbc.co.uk/programmes/
articles/2zY5c5g4LRgSP0s7cltV2Vl/bbc-gaeilge

Radio na Gaeltachta (RnG)
https://www.rte.ie/rnag/

5.6. ANALYSIS: COSTS OF INVESTMENT VS COSTS OF INACTION

5.6.1. CHANGE COSTS

The integration of a reality-based language practise program brings up the question of effective trainings, student motivation and the management of emotions like fear, awkwardness and uncertainty in the practise process. Students' varied abilities related to communication in 'real world' reveal themselves, as the type of support needed when the teacher doubles as language user guide. These issues are largely solved through classroom activities and conversations that encourage the trial of new things, exploring solutions with role plays and practice routes that have the highest pragmatic application and relevance to learners.

Investment for language use pedagogy is needed if a result is to be sought in this area. In minoritized language communities with a reticent bilingual speaking population, strategies for engaging the local speakers will be needed in addition to creating more agile communicators from the students. To facilitate small group work, bilingual language assistants are necessary for closer individual attention to prepare and debrief interactions. Recording technology (easily available now through mobile devices) is essential to measure progress and shape more refined individual improvements. Live practice cycles might spark some controversy among more conservative pedagogues, but it's indubitable that younger generations are more at home in "selfie" learning formats and adventure learning models that develop other interpersonal skills. Younger students may not have as many speaking outlets in the wider community, and face shyness or awkwardness, but it's been proven that adjusting the rampway will direct them to the launch pad, and they will experience flight.

5.6.2. BENEFITS OF ACTION

The benefits of "use training" to the student are multifold; in addition to weaning themselves from a primarily institutional relationship with the ML, "use training" offers them a sense of responsibility, independence, and a model for sustaining practice after the classwork is over. The method addresses fears and awkwardness,

so that students are more resilient, and begins with a habituation cycle that normalises ML use, encouraging ongoing relationships with native speakers in the local-most language. By following the program, students and teachers alike are creating opportunities to experience improvements on a linguistic level as well as increased confidence, resilience, and even greater sociolinguistic awareness, when using the ML. The main goal, though (and it would be good to keep that in mind) is not affecting awareness but increasing the ability and the willingness to actually use the target language in a variety of social situations. This is an important difference between our innovative methodology and the traditional approaches to teaching MLs.

To date, programs that can effectively address the gap between language knowledge and language use are innovative, tasked with discovering the formulas which combine awareness of interactive context, identification of opportunities, self awareness as a communicator, and language learning in the function of communication for real purposes. This improves the capacity to integrate newcomers into the ML community, and where the ML coexists with a dominant language, the demonstrable facility with the ML generally brings some integration advantages.

The methodology of use can create a positive feedback loop with the classroom, turning once apathetic, grade driven students into engaged and curious communicators, and giving the teacher or trainer extra roles which complement and complete traditional language pedagogy. Lastly, the methodology is applicable to any situation where the studied language is the one spoken locally, giving students a great advantage for increased multilingualism experiences.

5.6.3. COSTS OF INACTION

The likelihood of use is diminished when there is no sustained period of practise of it. With ML speakers, this can go against conventional expectations, unless the student has cultivated a way to ride those rougher moments of non-cooperation, steady their nerves and maintain, once they know their interlocutor is, in fact, a minority language (ML) speaker. In a sense, students of a ML have to learn how to use it 'against the natives', who may be reluctant (at least initially) to answer back even when addressed through their own language. A few strategies from classical assertiveness training may come in handy to help students in overcoming these initial barriers (Suay & Sanginés, 2010). In our opinion, this approach is more likely to produce desirable results (increasing speaking fluency) than the traditional ones, which tend to focus on concepts such as "preservation of the cultural heritage", or "fidelity to our language", that can be quite meaningless

for young speakers coming from other countries and cultures, and have shown important weaknesses to be significant even for local students (Flors-Mas, 2017).

The experience of integration into a local language for first generation immigrants, whether adults or children, is too significant to be left to chance. A newly arrived person who can successfully transition to local language usage, often generates a positive spiral that reinforces their language competence while leading to new contacts, life opportunities and greater integration.

One that doesn't make the transition to usage, risks experiencing greater marginalisation, limiting contact to local speakers and shared events, social, cultural, or political, that cannot or will not linguistically accommodate to them.

This is known to language councils across Europe, many of whom are redoubling their efforts to train a new generation of speakers. But when a student invests 20, 30, or more hours studying a language that they feel too shy or stymied to use with the local native population, it can generate an often self-defeating discourse of the difficulty, useless, or undesirability of the local language, while also reinforcing negative stereotypes and language polarisation in the speaker community.

6. CONCLUSION AND CONSIDERATIONS

We have presented a global understanding of the critical role languages play in creating cultures of diversity and tolerance, and we have portrayed several minoritized languages in Europe, with their particular challenges for maintaining robust speaking populations. We have looked at pluralistic language identities. We have explored how knowledge and usage are inextricably linked—a critical skill for integration into any speech community. We have presented a methodology by which 1-1, pairs, small groups, and classroom sized groups can participate more actively in language usage of all relevant languages in their speech communities, bringing their communication levels to a par with their classmates so they have a real choice as to which languages they use. We have seen how technology can be employed to capture and integrate interactions into students' daily lives that add a dimension of new language to an already familiar interaction. And we have seen a methodology whose focus is on the act of communication with a wide range of natives from the speech community.

For any education system which seeks to promote plurilingualism in today's world, the use of technology to capture and master relevant interactions not just for increased use of language, but as guidelines which help orient the student to the entire performance in an act of communication with native speakers, is an important next innovative step to take.

One of the main strengths of the proposed method is that it can be applied to any language, from local languages with just a few thousand speakers to the majority languages which are commonly taught as foreign languages in the education systems of European countries.

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