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DOCTORAL THESIS

Translanguaging in the Additional Language Classroom:
Pedagogically-Based Codeswitching in a Primary Education Context

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“Connect. Only connect.” (E.M. Forster, 1910)

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Abbreviations

AL	Additional Language
ALA	Additional Language Acquisition
ALL	Additional Language Learning
ALT	Additional Language Teaching
BICS	Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills
CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CLIL	Content and Integrated Language Learning
CEFRL	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CS	Codeswitching
CW	Whole class work
DLC	Dominant Language Constellation
DG	Discussion group
ESL	English as a Second Language
FL	Foreign Language
FLA	Foreign Language Acquisition
GI	Group Interview
GW	Group Work
IW	Individual Work
MLA	Multilingual Language Acquisition
MT / L1	Mother tongue
PBCS	Pedagogically-based codeswitching
PLL	Previously Learnt Language
PW	Pair work
SL	Second Language
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SLP	School Linguistic Project
Ss	Students
T	Teacher
TILT	Translation In Language Teaching
TL	Target language
TOLC	Translation for Other Learning Contexts

TLA	Third Language Acquisition
VYL	Very Young Learner
YL	Young Learner

Introduction

“If I had to reduce all of educational psychology to just one principle, I would say this: the most important single factor influencing learning is what the learner already knows: ascertain this and teach him accordingly.”

(Ausubel, 1968: VI)

Two simultaneous perspectives have been at play during the development of this thesis: that of a teacher and that of a researcher. They have complemented each other throughout the process.

The teacher’s perspective has been essential in various ways. I have carried out the research with the belief that, on the one hand, it can help bring new light onto informed and effective uses of translanguaging in early additional language teaching; and, on the other, bearing in mind that what has been done in a Catalan Primary School can be generalizable and beneficial in different contexts, and can be carried out by different teachers with students of different ages and levels of proficiency, albeit perhaps with somewhat different outcomes.

It is important to clarify that the additional language in the context of this research is English, which is the first foreign language taught in the schools in Catalonia (Muñoz, 2001, 2006; Pérez & Juan, 2011). Therefore, although some of the conclusions reached concerning the process of teaching and learning an additional language may be extendable to other languages, the context of this research must remain clear: Catalan-Spanish balanced bilingual children learning English at school.

The innovative, ecological, and generalizable essence of the research has been most fundamental. Furthermore, the authentic nature of the activities designed, and the assessment and analysis carried out have also been crucial. In this sense, this thesis has been carried out *by* a language teacher *for* language teachers.

As a teacher researcher, a further relevant aspect concerns the age of the participants in the study. They are young learners, seven and eight years old, and there is an obvious lack of classroom-based research carried out with children in their age-group, in comparison with

research carried out in naturalistic contexts (Muñoz, 2006). I believe that advancing in the knowledge of how these children might learn English as an additional language more efficiently is especially important nowadays, as English is more and more present at school and children often start learning it at a very young age.

As regards the researcher's perspective, a guiding principle has been Stern's observation that, up to the 1980s, "many language teachers were sceptical about research on language teaching and on language teaching theory as the teaching of a language was often regarded more as a matter of practical intuition, inventiveness, and sensitivity than as a suitable subject for research" (Stern, 1984: 53). However, Stern (1984, 1992) sustains, and I agree, that research can help language pedagogy develop and language teachers grow professionally when they develop a more objective outlook upon practice and a greater self-reflective ability. In a way, then, classroom-based research is needed to make teaching move forward in an effective and sound way, and to do so in order to respond to the needs teachers face in their classrooms.

A second guiding principle has been Hargreaves' belief that "teaching is not at present a research-based profession. I have no doubt that if it were, teaching would be more effective and more satisfying" (Hargreaves, 2000: 200).

Stern and Hargreaves are obviously not the only ones to defend the need for research in the teaching profession. Among many others, G. Cook (2010), V. Cook (2001), Crawford (2004), Cummins (2005, 2008), Jessner (1999), Hall & Cook (2012), Liu et al. (2004), Macaro (2001, 2003, 2005), Meiring & Norman (2002), Turnbull (2001), Turnbull & Arnett (2002) and Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain (2009) also claim that there is a need for classroom-based research. In these cases, moreover, they specifically claim for research related to the use of the L1 in the additional language classroom, which is the main concern of my study.

The viewpoint taken here agrees with the need for teachers' practical intuition, inventiveness and sensitivity mentioned by Stern in the quotation above, but it is also argued that these conditions can be most effectively met and developed when they are supported by objective and systematic reflection upon the teaching task, i.e. cognitive as well as metacognitive and socioaffective attributes in language teaching. That is, when teachers become self-reflective

professionals who engage in action research while teaching their students (Bradbury & Reason, 2001; Richards & Lockhart, 1996).

The rationale behind the research presented here is based on several complementary ideas (for further discussion on each of the points, see section 1.3). The starting point is the undeniable role of English as today's global 'lingua franca' (Seidlhofer, 2011) for international communication, which is inevitably linked to the essential role English plays in today's education systems (especially situated here in Primary Education in the Catalan school system), where the social demand and challenges for quality additional language teaching are increasing (González Davies, 2007b).

Today's legislation regarding the introduction of the first foreign language in school establishes a difference between Pre-Primary Education and Primary Education (see Table 1 below). When and how the foreign language is introduced and the teaching methodology that is followed to teach languages should be described in the *Projecte Lingüístic de Centre* (School's Linguistic Project) that all schools must have.

In Pre-Primary Education, "positive attitudes towards students' own language/s and that of others will have to be developed, thus awakening sensitivity and curiosity to learn other languages"¹ (Department d'Educació, 2008) and, when the sociolinguistic situation allows it, it is recommended that the spoken use of the first foreign language be introduced during the last year of Pre-Primary Education (that is, age 5).

In Primary Education, the first foreign language should be introduced during the first key-stage (that is, age 6-8) with the aim that children understand and produce simple oral and written messages (Departament d'Educació, 2009). By the end of Primary Education, children should have received between 315 and 420 hours of the first foreign language (Departament d'Educació, 2007). A second foreign language can be introduced during the third key-stage (that is, age 10-12). Moreover, some other subject can be taught in English (that is, following Content and Language Integrated Learning or CLIL). The table below, based on the guidelines established in the Curriculum for Infant Education (Departament

¹ My translation.

d'Educació, 2008) and the Curriculum for Primary Education (Departament d'Educació, 2009), shows the overall picture.

Stage & age	Objectives	Measures	Total number hours FL1	Total number hours FL2
Pre-Primary (age 5/3)	Optional initiation	Oral practice		
Primary	Plurilingualism in Catalan, Spanish and FL1 (age 6-7)			
	Immersion [in Catalan] for the newly arrived			
	Optionality of a CLIL component (a minimum of 1 hour a week)	No admission requirements Teacher's required level of proficiency: B2 CEFR Stated in the School's Linguistic Project	420	
	Optionality of a FL2 (age 10-12)	Stated in the School's Linguistic Project		140

Table 1. Legislation concerning foreign languages in trilingual education

(Pérez & Juan, 2011)

The aforementioned essential role English plays in today's education system has brought many changes with it: first, to the long-term established goals of language teaching (namely, accuracy and fluency) further goals related to intercultural communication, plurilingual competence and mediation have been added (Council of Europe, 2001); second, the native speaker and native-like proficiency as a goal of language teaching have been questioned (Davies, 2003; Llorca, 2005), and also redefined, restated, and replaced in the literature by terms such as *L2 user* or *intercultural speaker* (V. Cook, 1999, 2002, 2003, 2005, 2007; Firth & Wagner, 1997; Hall & Cook, 2012; Herdina & Jessner, 2002).

Within a psycholinguistic approach, V. Cook (1999, 2002) has reconceptualised the notion of bi/multilingual speaker and affirms that *L2 users* should be considered speakers in their own right, far from the notion of approximations to monolingual native speakers. This is so because L2 users "differ from monolingual native speakers in their knowledge of their L2s and L1s and in some of their cognitive processes" (V. Cook, 1999: 185).

Within a sociocultural approach, House (2002: 19), in turn, defines *intercultural speaker* as "a person who has managed to settle for the in-between, who knows and can perform in his

or her native culture and in another one acquired at some later date". This capability is addressed as *intercultural competence*.

From a sociolinguistic understanding of the language classroom, this has become a *bilingual space* (Liebscher & Dailey O’Cain, 2005) where learners are developing into plurilingual speakers by, first, making use of their prior knowledge (i.e. prior languages and experiences) and, second, by learning plurilingual strategies of communication. The classroom becomes, in fact, a space shared by a multilingual community of practice (Wenger, 1998) where *multilingual* is understood as a quality that is dynamic and constantly evolving, thus moving away from extreme definitions of multilingualism. That is, moving away from the understanding of a multilingual speaker as the speaker with native-control of the languages, but also away from the understanding of a multilingual speaker with a limited knowledge of the AL which may only include few words (Aronin & Singleton, 2012: 2).

Regarding prior knowledge, cognitive and psycholinguistic approaches have brought a new understanding of language acquisition, where the constructivist understanding of the importance of using students’ mother tongues or L1s as prior knowledge that may support or scaffold the learning process is highlighted (Bransford, Brown & Cocking, 2000; Brooks-Lewis, 2009; G. Cook, 2010; V. Cook, 2001; Cummins, 2007, 2008; Hall & Cook, 2012; Ringbom, 1987); where the notion of transfer is redefined (Celaya, 1992; Cummins, 2001, 2008); and where studies on new connections between the L1 and Additional Languages result in different theories and models (e.g. Connectionism, Holism) which re-establish the role of the L1 in the learning process and the relevance of noticing similarities or differences in the cognitive process of acquisition of the L1 and subsequent languages (Herdina & Jessner, 2002).

These theories also tend to equate plurilingual speakers with speakers with higher language awareness and an increased ability to reflect upon languages, who are more capable of swimming in multicultural waters effectively, and whose abilities for learning to learn improve (Baetens Beardsmore, 1986; Bialystok, 1994, 2002; Bialystok et al, 2005; Cummins, 2007; García, 2009; Genesee, 2002). V. Cook (2001) named these abilities *multicompetence*.

A terminological note must be made here concerning the use of terms such as L1, L2, or mother tongue. The L1/L2 distinction was introduced in the 1950s to refer to primary and secondary language: the L1 was defined as being usually, but not always, the language first acquired in childhood. It was the language of the speaker's intimate everyday life, also to a large extent the language of counting and other forms of self-stimulation, of "thinking in words" (Stern, 1984: 22). Throughout time, L1 has been used as equivalent to first language, native language, mother tongue, primary language or stronger language (Stern, 1984). More recently, however, many voices have advocated the use of terms other than L1 or mother tongue, as they are controversial for not always describing accurately and realistically diverse linguistic situations. For instance, G. Cook (2010) and Hall & Cook (2012) advocate the term *own language*, in contrast to *new language*.

In this thesis, my choice is to use *additional language* (henceforth AL) when referring to the new language the children are acquiring (in this case, English) and *mother tongue* (henceforth MT) and *L1* when referring to Catalan and/or Spanish. My choice regarding *additional language* is motivated by the long-term goal as teacher and researcher to create opportunities for language students to translanguage and thus emphasise the idea of *adding* new knowledge by *adding* new languages, thus turning the language classroom into a plurilingual² space of communication. Regarding the choice of *MT* and *L1*, and even though I agree with the preventions against the terms authors such as Hall & Cook (2012) have, it is also true that, in the context of my study, participants' MTs happen to be their actual mothers' (and fathers') tongues and their L1s so it is easier for me as a writer to use the traditional terms while keeping to the truth.

Globalisation has also brought a new understanding of language teaching where the aim has moved from the unattainable goal of training native-like English speakers (V. Cook, 1999, 2002, 2003, 2005, 2007; Firth & Wagner, 1997; Hall & Cook, 2012; Herdina & Jessner, 2002) to the more realistic, even if still challenging, goal of training future plurilingual speakers with plurilingual speakers skills (Alcón & Safont, 2007; Baetens Beardsmore, 1986; Belz, 2002; V. Cook, 2003, 2005, 2007; Grosjean, 2001; Widdowson, 2003) or, in other words, emergent bilinguals (García, 2009) or speakers able to act interculturally

² It is important to note here that throughout this study the term *plurilingual* will be used to refer to any situation where there is more than one language involved (whether it is 2, 3 or more), unless specific mention against this is made.

(Byram, 2008). Aiming at training plurilingual speakers entails accepting the fact that plurilingual speech is characterized by the use of several languages, which may require the use of *bilingual instructional strategies*³ in the classroom (Cummins, 2005) or *crosslingual teaching* (Stern, 1992). These strategies would involve translanguaging (see section 1.1.2.1) and could take different forms. When they are not learnt in a naturalistic plurilingual context, as is the case in this research, these strategies need to be modelled and taught by teachers.

This is precisely where the focus of this research is: when promoting the use of several languages in the English classroom, a specific use of the language (or a specific example of translanguaging, in García's terms) has been developed. This feature has been named *Pedagogically-Based Codeswitching* (henceforth PBCS). PBCS is defined and presented in chapter 2 (section 2.2). Classroom activities where PBCS has been used are described in chapter 4.

Moreover, I locate PBCS in an Additional Language Teaching Continuum (see section 2.3), the aim of which is to think of additional language learning (henceforth ALL) in terms of a process that begins with very young learners and goes on until adulthood, which is in line with current ALL practices and guidelines for formal settings. I believe different moments can be distinguished in the ALT process in terms of the amount and type of L1 use students would require while acquiring the AL in a formal context.

The key idea behind the Additional Language Teaching Continuum is that MT use, and specifically PBCS use, will need to vary and adapt to the needs of different age-groups. Ultimately, I argue that using the MT will not be necessary for *teaching* –and note the emphasis here is on *teaching*, that is, on academic uses– very young learners, that is, children between 3 and 5 or children who are at Pre-Primary School. At this stage, however, the MT may be necessary for dealing with issues other than teaching, such as socio-affective aspects. So, I am suggesting the need to distinguish diverse types of classroom needs in order to assess how/if the MT needs to be used. This will be conceptualised in terms of goals, skills and strategies (see from section 1.1.2.5 to 1.1.2.15, and 2.1.) (Cohen, 1998, forthcoming; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 2011).

³ Cummins uses the term *bilingual* but the strategies he refers to could also be used in a plurilingual context.

The MT, then, will gradually need to be introduced in the language classrooms in order to adapt language needs to the students' cognitive development (Skinner, 1985) and to allow for a greater, and probably more realistic variety of activities (in terms of plurilingual competence development) to take place (Macaro, 2005). This gradual introduction of the MT should always be informed and subject to pedagogical reasons and aims.

As mentioned above, MT introduction would help keep a balance between students' cognitive development and linguistic ability (Skinner, 1985). In other words, as children grow up, they need to deal with more and more complex contents in the classroom in order to keep motivated while satisfying their interests. If the AL has not improved at the same speed as their cognitive abilities (and given the number of hours children receive of AL lessons in our schools –420 hours in Primary Education (Departament d'Educació, 2009)– this would probably be the case) and teachers do not use students' MTs in their classrooms, a point is reached where contents need to be oversimplified so that students understand the language, which would entail a consequential cognitive and socioaffective regression that may be one of the reasons that lead to demotivation (Skinner, 1985). I believe this situation could be reversed if optimal MT introduction were promoted.

Finally, it is important to clarify that the aim of this Continuum is to describe ALL in, first, formal settings and, second, in settings where students and teacher/s mostly share their MTs and where the AL (English here) is the new language being learnt. Although this does not describe the situation in all schools, it is quite a generalizable picture in the Catalan context (Celaya, 2012; Muñoz, 2001, 2006; Pérez & Juan, 2009). I believe that, when applied to more complex linguistic situations, for instance, in classrooms where there are many different MTs, this Continuum would need to be adapted to the particular situation and made more complex. Even though more challenging, it would probably also become more interesting and yield promising results. Further research is needed to confirm whether an initial *immersion* stage and the gradual introduction of the L1/s would still hold in these more linguistically and culturally complex classrooms.

Structure of the thesis

This thesis has been structured in five chapters: chapters 1 and 2 include the theoretical framework on which the research has been based. Chapter 1 begins by presenting a set of operative definitions and justifying the terminological choices made in this thesis. Next, a section is devoted to describing the role of the L1 in Additional Language Teaching (henceforth ALT). This is done both from a historical viewpoint and with a detailed analysis of the situation today that takes into account the different variables that shape ALT in a formal context. Chapter 2 is devoted to describing relevant classroom-based research on the uses of codeswitching and to giving the theoretical background behind PBCS, thus defining it and placing it in an Additional Language Teaching Continuum.

Chapter 3 is devoted to presenting the study undertaken, in which the same language contents were covered with the treatment and the control groups. However, whereas the former carried out plurilingual activities involving the use of PBCS, the latter carried out activities in English only. Both the treatment and the control groups were assessed in terms of language acquisition and language awareness, as cognitive and metacognitive aspects; as well as in terms of motivation and classroom atmosphere, through the exploration of socioaffective aspects. Finally, the results and their discussion are described in detail.

The action research study was carried out in a school in Barcelona with a very low immigration rate and where the vast majority of children have Catalan and/or Spanish as their home language. The number of participants in the study was 100: 25 children in the treatment group and 75 in the three control groups (these groups correspond to the four different classes of the same school-year) and they were aged 7-8. More details regarding the participants and the context can be found in section 3.2.

Two hypotheses and two research questions were at the basis of the research, namely:

- (1) The use of PBCS will favour listening comprehension in English.
- (2) The use of PBCS will favour English vocabulary acquisition and production.
- (3) Will the use of PBCS favour students' motivation for learning?
- (4) Will the use of PBCS favour classroom atmosphere?

Information and data were collected using instruments of both quantitative and qualitative nature: language tests, activity and motivation surveys, recorded group interviews, teacher's diary, recorded lessons and, finally, worksheets and observation of classroom activities. All the instruments are presented in section 3.3.2.

In chapter 4, the didactic proposals that were carried out during the research in order to observe and gather data regarding PBCS use in the classroom are thoroughly described: sequence, aims, learning activities and materials.

Finally, chapter 5 offers concluding remarks, aspects to be improved in studies to come and ideas for further research.

1. The Role of the L1 in Additional Language Teaching

1.1. Operative Definitions

The aim of this section is to define all the key terms that will be used in this thesis and to clarify the terminological options that have been made in accordance with the theoretical framework that is at the basis of the study. These terms are classified into two major groups: those related to the context of acquisition, and those related to translanguaging in the AL classroom. The latter group is dealt with again in more detail in section 2.1, when presenting the theoretical framework.

1.1.1. Context of acquisition

1.1.1.1. Second Language Acquisition (SLA): “SLA will normally stand as a cover term to refer to any language other than the first language learned by a given learner or group of learners, (a) irrespective of the type of learning environment and (b) irrespective of the number of other non-native languages known by the learner” (Sharwood-Smith, 1994: 7). In SLA, “the language being learnt is used in the community (for example, learning Italian in Florence)” (Lightbown & Spada, 2006: 199). On the one hand, then, SLA is used by some authors as a cover term to refer to the acquisition of any new language, which means that the use of *second* might become quite confusing. On the other hand, it is used (as in this thesis) to refer to the language used in the community where the learning process is taking place. Therefore, learning English in Catalonia is not an example of an SLA context.

1.1.1.2. Foreign Language Acquisition (FLA): FLA refers to the “learning of a language, usually in a classroom setting, in a context where the target language is not widely used in the community (for example, learning French in China)” (Lightbown & Spada, 2006: 199). This is the term that has traditionally been used to refer to learning situations such as the teaching of English in Catalan schools, which is the context of this study. As will be argued below (see section 1.1.3), I will suggest the need to change this term in order to adapt it to our new linguistic reality, which is becoming more and more complex and where

generalisations concerning whether a language is second or foreign for most of the population can no longer be made.

1.1.1.3. Third Language Acquisition (TLA) and Multilingual Language Acquisition (MLA): (tri-) multilingualism has long been considered as a mere extension of bilingualism (Aronin & Singleton, 2012: 4). However, many are now stating that TLA and MLA are not variants of SLA, but that they are, in fact, complex phenomena (Cenoz & Genesee, 1998) and require different skills from SLA. They are more complex because prior language learning experience changes the quality of language learning and, often, the language strategies that the experienced language learner develops, which may lead to the speeding up of the learning process (Jessner, 1999). Furthermore, as there are more languages involved, there is greater diversity regarding acquisition order, simultaneous or consecutive acquisition, context of acquisition, language typology, and relationships among the languages acquired, among many other aspects (Cenoz, 2000). The aforementioned diversity is dynamic and responds to individual circumstances that can be said to shape speakers' multilinguality (see section 1.1.1.9). TLA and especially MLA would respond more clearly than FLA (see section 1.1.1.2) to the learning context described in this thesis. This is so as, first, English is the third language taught in schools (with Catalan and Spanish) and, second, more and more languages are entering our schools due to immigration. However, the choice here is to refer to English as an additional language (see following section), rather than as a third language to move beyond the idea of placing languages in a specific order or rank.

1.1.1.4. Additional Language Acquisition (ALA): Additional Language is mostly used in the context of bilingual (or multilingual) education, where the language is not only taught as a subject (as in second or foreign language programmes). Teaching “applies to all, except, of course, the first language learned (...) the term ‘additional’ underscores our belief that additional languages are not necessarily inferior nor superior nor a replacement for a student’s first language” (Judd, Tan & Walberg, 2001: 6).

Teaching an AL in a bi/multilingual program aims at more than teaching the language. According to García (2009: 6), it also aims at providing a general education, developing multiple understandings about languages and cultures, and fostering appreciation for human diversity. The choice Additional Language is made in this thesis to place the focus on, first, the teaching process making use of the children’s mother tongues in *addition* to English and,

second, the teaching process as a process that, as well as teaching the language, also promotes plurilingual and pluricultural competences (see following section).

1.1.1.5. Plurilingual and pluricultural competences: the idea of developing multiple understandings about languages and cultures mentioned in the section above can be related to the development of *plurilingual and pluricultural competences*, as described in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (henceforth CEFRL) (Council of Europe, 2001). The CEFRL refers to plurilingual competence as the ability to use languages, albeit at varying degrees of proficiency, to communicate and to take part in intercultural interaction. This is not defined as the superposition of different and distinct competences, but as a complex competence the user may profit from.

This aspect is crucial in this thesis as it is based on the belief that “bilingual education is *the only way* to educate children in the 21st century” (García, 2009: 5). It is necessary to indicate that García (2009) clarifies the fact that, although she chooses to use the adjective *bilingual*, she may be in fact referring to tri- or multilingual contexts, as well. Plurilingual education, then, is the only way to educate children in the 21st century if we want to prepare them *linguistically* for a more and more plurilingual world, where speakers of different languages will be sharing spaces of communication (classrooms, work offices, leisure activities, homes, etc.); but also, and this cannot be separated from the former, if we want to prepare them *culturally* so that they are ready to understand and be respectful with other cultures around them. A further consequence of this is the need for building bridges, that is, for mediation between languages and cultures. In other words, the need for developing intercultural competence.

As stated in the CEFRL, intercultural skills and know-how will include the ability to bring the culture of origin and the foreign culture into relation with each other; cultural sensitivity and the ability to identify and use a variety of strategies for contact with those from other cultures; the capacity to fulfil the role of cultural intermediary and to deal effectively with intercultural misunderstanding and conflict situations; and the ability to overcome stereotyped relationships (Council of Europe, 2001).

1.1.1.6. Multilingualism: it refers to “the knowledge of a number of languages, or the co-existence of different languages in a given society” (Council of Europe, 2001: 4). This

knowledge above may be attained by simply diversifying the languages on offer in a particular school or educational system, by encouraging pupils to learn more than one foreign language, or by reducing the dominant position of English in international communication. That is, in *multilingualism*, languages are viewed as placed in different compartments. As the position taken in this thesis links with translanguaging and opening doors (that is, promoting connections) between the different languages available in a classroom, it is clearly not in accordance with such a compartmentalised view of languages.

1.1.1.7. Plurilingualism: in contrast with the compartmentalised view of languages mentioned above, plurilingualism relates to the fact that as an individual person's experience of language expands, these languages are not kept in strictly separated mental compartments, but rather build up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact (Council of Europe, 2001: 4-5). Then, a speaker will draw on different parts of this competence to achieve effective communication in each particular context. The idea of plurilingualism is closer to what is argued in this thesis. However, an aspect that is still missing is the possibility to swing from language to language thus profiting from the new communication and learning paths this strategy may open up, which is present in the definition of translanguaging (see section 1.1.2.1).

1.1.1.8. Dominant Language Constellation: DLC is the set of languages on which the life of an individual or a society is dependent (Aronin & Singleton, 2012: 59), that is, the languages (the number of which usually revolves around three) that allow individuals to act in a multilingual environment. In this sense, DLC characterizes multilingual speakers and societies and their daily use of languages and it is different to *language repertoire* or *multilinguality* because it is peculiar to multilingualism and it only includes languages at high levels of proficiency. In the context of the study, the DLC of the children participating may be said to include Catalan and Spanish.

1.1.1.9. Multilinguality: this is a relevant notion to this study because it characterizes multilinguals regardless of their level of proficiency in their languages. It can be said, then, to characterize the participants in the study, who are mostly natural bilinguals (Catalan-Spanish) and who are learning an AL (English). A further aspect that makes multilinguality interesting here is the fact that it is defined as a *store of languages* including incomplete

fluency as well as other aspects that have been analysed here such as metalinguistic awareness, learning strategies, opinions and preferences, passive and active knowledge of languages, language use and language learning (Aronin & Singleton, 2004: 80). In sum, multilinguality refers to the whole language repertoire individuals may have and, importantly, children can be brought to such a state through formal education, such as is the case in this study. The success of this sequential development of multilinguality at school will depend on various factors, such as societal attitudes, the amount of exposure to AL(s) or the appropriateness of the pedagogy and materials deployed (Singleton & Ryan, 2004: 101). In contrast with the definition of *Multilingualism* (see section 1.1.1.6), language compartmentalisation is not an essential part of the definition of *Multilinguality*. PBCS (see sections 2.2 and 2.3) and the Didactic Proposals presented in this thesis (see chapter 4) wish to be an example of such appropriate pedagogy and materials.

1.1.1.10. Context of acquisition: languages may be acquired in formal and informal settings of acquisition. On the one hand, to acquire a language in a formal setting means acquiring it in a classroom with the help and guidance of a teacher. Whereas reflection upon the process of teaching is guaranteed, it is also true that exposure to the AL may be limited. On the other hand, to acquire a language in an informal setting means acquiring it outside the classroom, often by living in a country where the language is spoken and acquiring it through immersion. In these cases, then, exposure is greater but focus on form and a well-structured sequence of contents is usually missing. The context of acquisition in this thesis is the formal setting, that is, the classroom.

1.1.2. Use of language/s in the AL classroom

1.1.2.1. Translanguaging: it is defined as the “multiple discourse practices in which bilinguals engage in order to make sense of their bilingual worlds (...) therefore goes beyond (...) codeswitching (...) although it includes it” (García, 2009: 45). It is a “hybrid language use (...) systematic, strategic, affiliative, and sense-making process (...) the communicative norm of bilingual communities and cannot be compared to a prescribed monolingual use” (García, 2009: 51). Translanguaging then, transcends barriers between languages, as it moves beyond the idea of language compartmentalisation, and allows for a view of language and communication where all the knowledge and experience previously

acquired by learners may be used to promote learning and to better communication in plurilingual societies.

In this research, translinguaging is used as an umbrella term to cover the different pedagogical uses the L1 may have in an AL classroom. These uses have been classified into two major groups, as shown below:

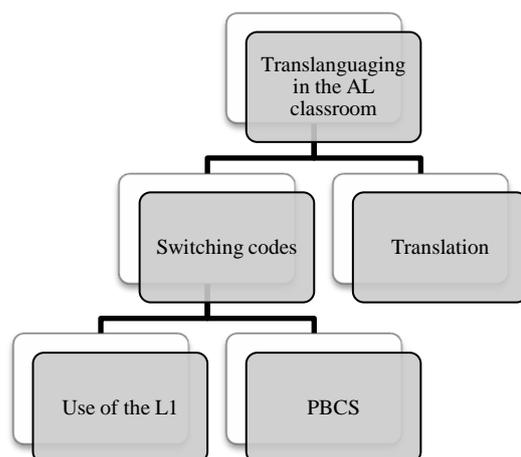


Figure 1. Translinguaging in the AL classroom

This classification is based on the understanding that when switching codes, two languages are involved, yet they cannot be qualified as source and target language. This is not so in the case of translation, where there is clearly one source and one target language.

Each category under *translinguaging* is described in terms of the following aspects:

- *Goals* it is aimed at, namely, core, framework and social goals (Kim & Elder, 2008); and,
- *Strategies* it helps develop, namely, learning or (meta)cognitive, communicative and social or socioaffective strategies (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 2011; Cohen, 1998, forthcoming).

How these aspects –goals and strategies– are related to switching codes and translation is described in section 2.2. Furthermore, the following sections offer operative definitions of the terms used here.

1.1.2.2. Use of L1: use of L1 (also referred to as MT, native language, own language, primary language and, more recently, own language) is used vaguely in the literature and

sometimes next to terms such as CS or translation. Clear definitions for each term are needed and an attempt at providing them will be made here.

In this thesis, *use of LI* is kept to refer to one of the ways of *switching codes* in the classroom. Specifically, it would refer to those occasions where students' MT—as well as the teachers' when the language is shared—is used in the AL classroom to deal with two types of issues: first, managerial issues, such as when the teacher organises the group, assigns homework, etc. or when the students organise themselves in a collaborative task; and, second, socioaffective issues such as when the teacher jokes or identifies him/herself with the group of students, or when the students share worries, jokes or difficulties. As it is defined here, *use of LI* would be inevitable and crucial in the AL classroom, and yet, it could be distinguished from more academic uses.

1.1.2.3. Codeswitching (henceforth CS): CS is defined as the “alternation of two languages within a single discourse, sentence or constituent” (Poplack, 1980). However, apart from a formal description such as this, it is important to acknowledge CS as a *highly skilled activity* (V. Cook, 2002), as a *useful communicative resource* (Grosjean, 1982) and as an *asset and a valuable addition* to the variety of communicative strategies language learners may acquire (Macaro, 2005).

In this thesis, CS is used to refer to a further way of *switching codes* in the classroom. On the one hand, when it is informed, and designed to respond to core or (metacognitive) goals, it takes the form of PBCS. PBCS wishes to be a learning strategy. On the other hand, when it is spontaneous, and designed to respond to social or socioaffective goals, it takes the form of CS. In the latter case, it is presented as a learning, communicative and social strategy which, in due time, would help develop the plurilingual and pluricultural identities and skills that are actively needed by AL learners today.

1.1.2.4. Translation: understood as a “dynamic form of communication” (Hatim and Mason, 1990: 223), translation takes place when two languages are involved consciously, one being the source language and the other being the target language. The translation process entails the following steps: first, understand the message and effect of the Source Text (i.e. text, word or expression, verbal or visual); second, relay the message and effect appropriately for the Target Community; and, finally, apply appropriate translation

strategies according to familiarity with problem-solving and spotting skills to relay the text keeping to the assignment (González Davies & Scott-Tennent, 2009).

In the ALT context, Malmjkaer (1998) qualifies translation as an important fifth skill to be acquired by AL learners in the contemporary world. Moreover, González Davies (2012a, 2012b) identifies three main types of skills and knowledge that translation may bring to language learning, namely, linguistic skills, encyclopedic knowledge and transferential knowledge and develops the idea of Translation for Other Learning Contexts (henceforth TOLC) as translation to acquire linguistic mediation skills and intercultural competence in fields other than Translation Studies.

1.1.2.5. (Translanguaging) Strategies, skills and goals: a strategy is promoted and deployed by the teacher in order to help a particular skill develop and thus reach a pedagogical goal. How these translanguaging strategies, skills and goals are interconnected in this study can be seen in the following table. After, each one of the terms is defined.

Strategies	Skills	Goals
Learning / cognitive	Cognitive / metacognitive	Core
Communicative Classroom management	Communicative	Framework
Socioaffective	Socioaffective	Social

Table 2. Strategies, skills and goals

1.1.2.6. Learning strategy: strategy promoted by the teacher to help learner strategy development. Not including the L1 in ALT may narrow the range of classroom activities (Macaro, 2005) and learning stages, and prevent the development of multilingual and multicultural identities and skills needed by today's learners (Hall & Cook, 2012). Learning or cognitive strategies are related to the special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information; as well as to how they manipulate directly incoming information, so that learning is enhanced. Cognitive strategies include rehearsal, organization, inferencing, summarizing, deducing or imagery and, of special interest in this thesis, transfer (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

1.1.2.7. Communicative strategy: strategy promoted by the teacher to help communication take place and overcome decoding or coding difficulties. Communication strategies will often include L1s, as in CS or translation, but they may also include strategies such as rephrasing, recasting, simplification or use of non-verbal communication.

1.1.2.8. Socioaffective strategy: strategy promoted by the teacher to establish a closer bond with students, and students among themselves, and thus release student potential anxiety towards the AL and improve classroom atmosphere, as in Krashen's (1981, 1982) lowering of affective filter. Use of students' MT plays an outstanding role among these strategies, although non-verbal communication, (eye) contact or individual attention are also important.

1.1.2.9. Classroom management strategy: strategy used by the teacher in order to organise the group and the teaching process so that the learning aims can be achieved in an orderly and positive atmosphere.

1.1.2.10. Cognitive/metacognitive skills: these are related to learning aims and the development of learning abilities. By using the appropriate strategies and creating the adequate learning activities (in terms of students' interests and degree of difficulty, that is, adequate to the Zone of Proximal Development⁴), these skills can be developed and learner autonomy increased.

1.1.2.11. Communicative skills: these are related to communication needs and abilities and they are key elements in the development of plurilingual and intercultural competence. They may include substitution, simplification or overgeneralization, but they may also include an informed use of the MT or other known languages, such as in CS or translation.

1.1.2.12. Socioaffective skills: the development of these skills is crucial in the classroom, as the relationships and understanding among students, and students and teachers, will depend on aspects such as interacting with all the students in the group, making an effort to get to know about their interests or their personal lives, and promoting a working environment that is respectful and comfortable for all. Aims such as learning in community, carrying out

⁴ Zone of Proximal Development or ZPD is related to students' prior knowledge, and the gap that needs to be covered for them to acquire new knowledge (Vygotsky, 1978).

collaborative tasks, or respecting discipline require the use of appropriate socioaffective skills.

1.1.2.13. Core goals: these are related to teaching the AL. Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney (2008) list under core goals teacher's activities such as explaining vocabulary or teaching grammar, which are sometimes carried out in the L1. They have also been called *medium-oriented goals* (Ellis, 1994) or *message-oriented type of CS* (Macaro, 2005), where the focus is on what is being said and where the teachers want to use the students' L1 to make sure that the students have understood, as they feel the AL may not always be completely trusted.

1.1.2.14. Framework goals: these are related to managerial and organizational issues in the classroom (Ellis, 1994), which are often carried out in the L1. They typically involve teachers in tasks such as organizing the group, giving procedural instructions or assigning homework; but they can also involve students when they organise themselves in collaborative tasks. Macaro (2005: 69) labelled them *medium-oriented type of CS*.

1.1.2.15. Social goals: these are related to expressing personal concern and empathy with students (Littlewood & Yu, 2011), where students' L1 is often use as it is felt that monolingual (that is, AL only) use might potentially alienate students' identities and be a source of anxiety.

1.1.3. Conclusions of this section

As regards context of acquisition, the model offered in this thesis responds to an *Additional Language Acquisition* learning context (in contrast with Second, Foreign, Third or Multilingual Language Acquisition context) in a *formal setting* (in contrast with informal). This is so as the focus is placed on the development of *plurilingualism* or, in other words, *plurilingual and pluricultural competences*, which views all the languages students have available (that is, their *multilinguality*), and especially their mother tongues, as languages that can be helpful for the learning process when they are introduced in the language classroom in an informed way.

In this line, I will argue in favour of a particular example of *translanguaging* that supports *switching codes* in the *additional language* classroom. This particular switch is pedagogically *informed* and should be promoted by teachers. In so doing, the teacher makes use of a particular *teaching (and learning) strategy* in order to develop *cognitive and metacognitive skills* and reach *cognitive goals*. This learning strategy is labelled *pedagogically-based codeswitching (PBCS)*.

Moreover, PBCS is seen as effective in opening the door to other languages in the classroom, which may, in turn, support the development of *communicative and socioaffective skills* and reaching *social goals*.

In this context, the children acquiring English as an AL will be referred to as *plurilingual learners* and the process of teaching and learning English as an AL in school will be referred to as a *plurilingual process*, as it is believed that “language learners are able to conceptualize the classroom as a bilingual space” (Liebscher & Dailey O’Cain, 2005: 234). However, when quoting or when referring to ideas presented in the literature, terms such as SLA, FLA or bilingualism will be respected.

It is important to add here that, in the Catalan context where the research described in this thesis has taken place, learning English could actually be considered a case of TLA or MLA (see section 1.1.1.3) as it is often the third language being acquired (after Catalan and Spanish) or the fourth or subsequent in the case of students with other language backgrounds. However, I have chosen to use ALA because it reflects a broader understanding of language teaching and language learning and it incorporates the idea of transferring knowledge to and from the languages available.

In this section, I have presented operative definitions of the key terms that are used in this thesis by presenting them in two main groups: a set of terms related to the general context of acquisition, and a set of terms related to the use of AL in the classroom. I have also made explicit my terminological choices and the reasons behind them, supported by my theoretical framework. Expanding this will be the focus of chapter 2, section 2.1.

The aim of the following section is to offer a chronological review of the treatment several ALT methods have made of L1 throughout time and how this has evolved from monolingual

to bilingual teaching. Even though monolingual teaching was used as early as medieval times (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009; Hall & Cook, 2012; Howatt & Widdowson, 2004), I have chosen to begin the historical overview dealing with the Grammar Translation Method because it is still a point of reference for today's plurilingual methods, albeit a negative one, in the sense that all those advocating them seem to feel the need to begin by stating they are not arguing in favour of going back to Grammar Translation.

1.2. L1 in Additional Language Teaching: Historical Overview

“Changes in language teaching methods throughout history have reflected recognition of changes in the kind of proficiency learners need, such as a move toward oral proficiency rather than reading comprehension as the goal of language study; they have also reflected changes in theories of the nature of language and of language learning (...) Today's controversies reflect contemporary responses to questions that have been asked often throughout the history of language teaching” (Richards & Rodgers, 2007: 3).

One of the long-standing *controversies* that Richards & Rodgers mention above is, indubitably, the role of the L1 in the language classroom. Different answers have historically been given to this question, sometimes by accepting the usefulness of the L1 in the classroom; other times simply by denying the fact that, even if impossible to discard from the classroom, L1 might have a role at all; and yet other times by actually stating that any role it might have is negative and therefore the L1 should be avoided. Macaro (2001: 535) describes these positions as the Optimal Position (there is some pedagogical value in L1 use), the Maximal Position (L1 as an unavoidable resource) and the Virtual Position (total exclusion of the L1).

The historical overview presented next takes into account:

1. First, the historical evolution of teaching methods and, specifically, the role the L1 has played in each of them or groups of them;

2. Second, the acceptance or rejection of the L1 through time, that is, the prevalence of the interdependence or the interference hypotheses (Cummins, 1981) and the subsequent definitions given to *transfer*;
3. Finally, the chronological criterion (the description starts with the Grammar-Translation Method and ends with today's bilingual approaches).

1.2.1. 1840s-1940s: Grammar-Translation Method

In their description of the Grammar-Translation Method, Richards & Rodgers (2007: 5) state that the goal of studying the foreign language (henceforth FL) was “to learn a language in order to read its literature or in order to benefit from the mental discipline and intellectual development that result from foreign language study”. This would lead to memorising rules and facts in order to manipulate the morphology and the syntax of the FL. The L1, therefore, was a “reference system in the acquisition of the foreign language” (Stern, 1984: 455). That is, learners learnt the foreign language by analysing its rules in detail and by applying this knowledge mostly to the task of translating sentences and texts into and out of the target language (henceforth TL).

The L1 was also present in bilingual word lists, the selection of which was based on the reading texts used, and it was also used as the medium of instruction: to explain new items and to enable comparisons to be made between the FL and the student's native language. In sum, the use of the L1 was instrumental.

From a more general perspective, the linguistic theory of the time was aimed mostly at preserving the purity of classical languages. No distinction was made between the teaching of the FL and the teaching of the MT. As regards MT, teaching it in a formal educational setup was meant to impart the knowledge of the formal styles and their written forms, and to expose the learners to literary style in its written form. The basic understanding was that knowing the grammar of a language meant knowing about the language. As regards FL, the same philosophy was applied and transfer was not even an issue yet.

The impact that the Grammar-Translation method can still be felt today by many authors who are in favour of an informed use of the L1 in the AL classroom –whether it is through the use of CS, translation or other ways– and who begin by stating that when they are talking about using the L1 they are by no means talking about going back to the Grammar-Translation method. This impact mentioned above is probably one of the reasons why today it is still hard to defend a position in favour of using the L1 in the classroom.

1.2.2. 1940s-1950s: Reform Movement

Slow opposition to the Grammar-Translation Method gradually developed in the USA and in several European countries. It began by what was known as Reform Movement and, gradually, took the form of several methods: Direct Method, Berlitz Method, Oral Approach or Audiolingual Method, among others.

The Reform Method argued for the *primacy of speech* and thus advocated a radical shift in language teaching: away from the emphasis on written language towards an emphasis on spoken language (Cook, G., 2010). Socially, other aspects supported this change, such as the need for developing oral proficiency quickly as opportunities for communication among Europeans increased, English-speaking soldiers in World War I and II needed to learn FLs fast, and so did immigrants to the USA. This meant that the aim for language learning was no longer reading the language literature or the intellectual benefit derived from the study process, but actually learning to communicate –especially orally– in another language.

All the methods mentioned above advocated total use of the FL. However, a radical stand in favour of monolingual teaching was the Berlitz Method, which excludes any use of the students' language in the classroom and advocates for total immersion of the student in the new language (Cook, G., 2010; Hall & Cook, 2012). The Berlitz Method quickly became a model for other institutions and a great influence on monolingual teaching.

Structural linguistics was the model of the time, the aim of which was to describe contemporary varieties of the language. There was a change from prescriptive to descriptive grammar and the approach to the teaching of grammar was now inductive.

The theoretical positions taken towards language acquisition were behaviouristic and influenced by studies in psychology and psycholinguistics. Like all learning, language learning was also viewed as situation and environment-oriented. In that sense, any kind of behaviour could be described in terms of the kind of responses to particular stimuli – that is, when a given response is always associated with the same stimulus, a habit is created. Consequently, learning was said to be produced by imitation or reinforcement.

The implications for first language learning were that verbal expressions, words, sentences, phonological units, etc. could be all acquired or learned by a process of drilling, mimicry and memorization. In this sense, children would acquire their MT by imitating the adults' utterances. Their language would then be either rewarded or corrected so that appropriate habits were established.

As regards SL learning, it was now distinguished from L1 learning. There appeared a growing interest in child language learning, which would be taken as a model for FL teaching. As regards the Direct Method, for instance, it was said to imitate “the way children learn their L1 emphasizing the avoidance of transfer and the direct use of the foreign language as medium of instruction in all situations” (Yu, 2000: 176) thus giving way to the use of non-verbal communication to convey the meaning of utterances (which means, among other things, avoiding the use of L1 as reference system), that is, “teaching new meanings through establishing associations within the target language rather than by establishing associations with the native language” (Richards & Rodgers, 2007: 9) and also stating that translation should be avoided.

Even though the Reform Movement presented itself as a counterbalance to the Grammar Translation Method and advocated a greater emphasis on spoken language, fluency and connected texts, there was no radical opposition to the use of translation. For instance, Viëtor, a reformist linguist who wrote “it goes without saying that the foreign language should always be spoken in class” but was also happy to accept that the MT had a useful role to play both in the presentation of new language – “[the teacher] should leave the class to compete with suggestions for a complete translation”- and in question-and-answer work – “the questions may have to be put in German first” (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004: 191). Also, Sweet believed in using translation when teaching vocabulary (Cook, G., 2010; Hall & Cook, 2012).

The influence of behaviourism and the interest in child language learning had two main consequences for language teaching: the relevance of transfer and the idea of language compartmentalisation.

On the one hand, the relevance of transfer understood as old habits influencing new ones, that is, L1 knowledge transferred to the L2 (Lado, 1957). This transfer could be positive or negative, depending on whether it helped or hindered the learning process, which was directly related to whether the language structures were similar or not, that is, to language typology. In this line, Contrastive Analysis was born as a technique devised to predict the potential errors that language learners with a given L1 would make when learning a given L2. It was not until a few years later, in the 1980s, that Krashen proved that “many errors are not traceable to the structure of the first language, but are common to second language performers of different linguistic backgrounds (...) other sources need to be considered” (Krashen, 1981: 64).

On the other hand, the idea of language compartmentalisation, according to which successful L2 acquisition depends mostly on keeping the L2 separate from the L1 as they are, in fact, two separate systems in the brain. This has also had many consequences in language teaching programs until today. In fact, Cummins (2008: 65-66) labels this language separation the *two solitudes assumption*, the roots of which lie in the Direct Method and which refers to the long-standing belief that “within L2 immersion and bilingual/dual language programs, the two languages should be kept rigidly separate” (Cummins, 2005: 588). This idea has had many consequences until today and it is now challenged by many authors who argue that the literature on language teaching, bilingualism, etc. has always been influenced by a monolingual view of the world that, in fact, does not correspond to reality.

1.2.3. 1960s-1990s: Communicative Approach

In the 1960s, Pure Linguistics expanded to include Applied Linguistics, the interest of which was applying knowledge about different fields in linguistics to other fields of study thus going beyond the theoretical viewpoint. One of these fields is Language Acquisition and,

especially, Second Language Acquisition (henceforth SLA). With the work of Chomsky and Krashen, a new interest in language acquisition and language didactics was born. On the one hand, Chomsky's theory of the Universal Grammar and Lenneberg's Critical Period Hypothesis and, on the other, Krashen and his five hypotheses regarding SLA, aimed at applying the cognitive theory to language pedagogy. They aimed at understanding the process of language learning, so their theories were not theories of first, second or any other language pedagogy. In this line, Krashen & Terrell (1983) developed the Natural Method, based on the Direct Method mentioned above, which advocates total immersion in the FL thus imitating the conditions in which children acquire their L1. Based on the beliefs of creative and innate characteristics of the process of LL, the use of L1/s knowledge was deemed unnecessary to support learning.

According to Chomsky, we are born with a Language Acquisition Device that incorporates a set of innate principles (Universal Grammar) which both specify the form of any language and contain the necessary procedures to relate these principles to the specific data obtained as input. A great importance is granted to input –comprehensible input– which will trigger language acquisition. This was labelled the Creative Construction Hypothesis and advocated the creative and innate process involved in language acquisition, instead of the habit formation, called upon by behaviouristic theories a few years before. Also of relevance here was the Critical Period Hypothesis, described by Lenneberg in 1967 and associated with Chomsky's innate views of language. According to the Critical Period Hypothesis, humans are genetically programmed to acquire language –together with other kinds of knowledge or skills- and it would be either difficult or impossible to acquire linguistic abilities beyond those 'critical periods'. According to Lenneberg, between the age of 2 and 13 there exists a period within which potential functional and biological linguistic development needs to be activated for normal development to occur. In this sense, children with no access to language in infancy and early childhood would not be able to acquire language if this deprivation went on for too long. This hypothesis was based on neurological research and its findings on hemispheric lateralization.

Subsequent studies, however, cast some doubt on the reality of the Critical Period and replaced it by *sensitive periods*, which are periods of special sensitivity or responsiveness to specific stimuli, thus allowing for a more flexible understanding of the learning periods and for greater individual variation (Muñoz & Singleton, 2011). Supporters of the *sensitive age*

hypothesis claimed that there is a strong association between age of acquisition and ultimate attainment of proficiency and, in particular, they claimed that children can apply heuristic strategies which are more efficient than those applied by adults. Others, however, saw other factors beyond the neurological that may affect significantly the learning process in adults, such as aptitude, attitude, identity and motivation (Bee Chin & Wigglesworth, 2007: 12-13).

Muñoz (2006) establishes a difference in the relevance of *age* in FLL in terms of naturalistic contexts and formal contexts of learning, and within these, in terms of immersion and foreign language teaching. On the one hand, in natural contexts, age would be relevant because the earlier the start, the more exposure the child would have to the FL. Greater exposure, in its turn, would entail higher ultimate attainment. On the other hand, in formal contexts where exposure is limited (that is, there is no extended immersion in the FL), research has proven age not to be relevant, as older learners seem to learn faster and quickly obtain similar results to those who begin at a very early age. The crucial distinction has to do with rate of learning, as very young learners' rate of learning is significantly slower than that of older learners (except for phonetics and syntax), who present a higher cognitive development and more experience as learners (Celaya, 2012; Muñoz, 2006).

Krashen developed Chomsky's theory and focused on the acquisition of the L2. His five hypotheses regarding SLA were groundbreaking at the time and can be summarised as follows (Krashen, 1981; 1982):

1. The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis: this hypothesis refers to two different ways of developing competence in a second or foreign language, namely, the natural(istic) way or *acquisition* (which could be compared to children's unconscious first language acquisition), or the non-natural(istic) way or *learning* (which would refer to the process in which conscious rules about a language are developed). *Learning* would require formal teaching and error correction.
2. The Natural Order Hypothesis: according to this hypothesis, the acquisition of grammatical structures proceeds in a predictable order, both in first and second language acquisition. Errors are signs of naturalistic developmental processes and similar errors occur in learners regardless of their native language.

3. The Monitor Hypothesis: the monitor hypothesis refers to the speakers' conscious calling upon learned knowledge to correct themselves. This process will take place given that, first, the learner is allowed sufficient time to choose and apply a learned rule; second, the learner is focused on form; and, third, the learner knows the rules.
4. The Input Hypothesis: the input hypothesis relates what the learner is exposed to (input) with what the learner actually acquires, not *learns* (intake). The input should be *comprehensible*, that is, slightly beyond the learners' level of competence (also known as $i+1$).
5. The Affective Filter Hypothesis: this hypothesis states that a low affective filter helps acquisition (as acquirers in a positive learning atmosphere seek and receive more input and are more receptive to it), whereas a high affective filter prevents acquisition (as it undermines acquirers' confidence).

Some of the most relevant implications of Krashen's hypotheses for language teaching are related to the conditions that must be met for learning to be successful: input should be comprehensible, support for comprehension is important, the classroom focus should be on listening and reading, exposure should be sufficient, and the classroom atmosphere relaxed. According to Krashen's developmental view of language learning, L1 transfer would seem not to be an issue any more in naturalistic settings. However, Krashen identified two conditions –which, interestingly, were linked to formal contexts of language learning– that could possibly lead to transfer. These were: first, the premature use of the L2 (that, for example, a teacher may demand from a student) and, second, certain elicitation tasks (that, again, may take place in a classroom when a teacher *forces* a student to produce an answer).

During the same period, the Humanistic Approach developed. Humanistic methods were often devised around particular theories of learners and learning, sometimes the theories of a single author (Asher, 1977; Curran, 1972; Gattegno, 1972; Grinder & Bandler, 1979; Lozanov, 1979). They looked at the way children learn their MT to mirror some of their developments and were especially careful with the affective aspects of the learning process. In no case, however, did this mean granting some space to the L1 in the process of learning the FL. Some of these methods are: Total Physical Response, The Silent Way, Suggestopedia or Neurolinguistic Programming, among others.

Regarding language transfer, it was left aside again. However, transfer of abilities was somehow acknowledged by Gattegno (*The Silent Way*) in stating that the processes of learning a second language are different from those involved in learning a first language because the second language learner “cannot learn another language in the same way because of what he now knows” (Gattegno, 1972: 11).

As far as the use of the L1 in teaching is concerned, it was non-existing. Some examples of this rejection follow: Asher (*Total Physical Response*) described his method by stating that “understanding should be developed through movements of the student’s body” (Asher, 1977: 4) and “when you cast material in the imperative, there is no translation” (Asher, 1977: 20). Also, Gattegno (*The Silent Way*) wrote “throughout our oral work with the rods and the visual dictation on the charts, we have carefully avoided the use of the students’ native languages. We have even succeeded in blocking them, so that the students relate to the new language directly” (Gattegno, 1976: 99).

An exception to the lack of L1 use is present in the *Community Language Learning* method (Curran, 1972). In this method, Curran applied psychological counselling techniques to language teaching. One of the traditions with which it is linked is a set of strategies known as ‘language alternation’. In language alternation, a message is presented first in the native language and then again in the second language. Students know the meaning and flow of an L2 message from their recall of the parallel meaning and flow of an L1 message. A learner presents a message in L1 to the knower, who translates it into L2. The learner then repeats the message in L2 to another learner with whom he or she wishes to communicate (Richards & Rodgers, 2007: 90-91).

The first stage in a learning task in *Community Language Learning* is *Translation*: in a small circle, a learner whispers a message or meaning he/she wants to express, the teacher translates it into the TL, and the learner repeats the teacher’s translation. This method, therefore, places some demands on language teachers: they must be highly proficient, sensitive to nuance in both L1 and L2 and have translation skills.

Around the 1970s, the shift was made from mere mastery of structures to communicative proficiency to develop communicative competence with what was known as the

Communicative Approach (Richards & Rodgers, 2007). This was linked to a growing interest in the developmental nature of language acquisition together with the influence that the environment may have on the learning process. *Communicative* is a term that can include most of the previous methods and approaches as long as they focus on communication versus accuracy, meaning versus form, and the four skills with a special emphasis on the oral skill.

The Communicative Approach brought about communicative methods, which have been, and still are, a major influence in language classrooms. These methods have as landmarks the following aspects: amount of exposure, comprehensible input, variety of resources, TL only, and attention to affective aspects related to learning. Also of relevance here is the Threshold Level, which was developed in 1975 for the English Language and by the Council of Europe. It was used as an “operational model for abilities which specific groups of learners (tourists, businesspersons, migrants, etc) require for using a language for independent communication in a country in which this language is the everyday medium for communication. By thus identifying these groups’ language needs, they were able to pinpoint the knowledge and know-how required for attaining this communication *threshold*” (Council of Europe, n.d.).

Influencing general learning theories were Piaget’s stages of cognitive development (sensory-motor period from 0 to 2 years of age, pre-operational thought from 2 to 7, concrete operational thought from 7 to 11, formal operational thought from 11 to 15) or Vygotsky’s social constructivism where learning is understood as an active and social process in which learners need to discover new knowledge by themselves when presented with opportunities which are within their Zone of Proximal Development, that is, within the Zone where a connection can be made between students’ prior knowledge and the gap that needs to be covered for them to acquire new knowledge (Vygotsky, 1978).

Following the innatist trend begun by Chomsky and Krashen, Dulay & Burt (1973, 1974) discarded the importance of habit formation in language acquisition. According to them, L2 acquisition proceeded in much the same way as L1 acquisition, and as the L1 could no longer be considered the basis for L2 acquisition, this was known as the *L2=L1 hypothesis*. Experimental studies of the time concluded that the L1 played no role or very little in SLA and that second language learners’ errors were mostly the same as those that children made

when learning the same language as their L1. These were considered developmental errors and this is the reason why they argued in favour of substituting the term *transfer* by the term *interlingual errors* (Celaya, 1991). More recent research, however, has shown how both developmental and transfer issues play a role in plurilingual acquisition.

In accordance with the research carried out in the 1970s, a technique that came to substitute the now obsolete Contrastive Analysis appeared: Error Analysis (EA). EA dealt with errors in terms of the learner's performance in relation to L2. Thus, errors were seen as a necessary tool to learn the L2, in fact, as a strategy to test hypotheses about the language.

After communicative methods, content-based methods were developed. In these, teaching is organized around the content or information that students will acquire, rather than around a linguistic syllabus. The principles behind the content-based perspective are that people learn a second language more successfully when they use it as a means for acquiring information, rather than as an end in itself (meaningful learning); and that content-based instruction better reflects learners' needs for learning a second language (Richards & Rodgers, 2007: 207). In order to make content comprehensible to learners, there is a definition of the strategies teachers need to put into practice. Among others, teachers need to make the same kinds of adjustments and simplifications that native speakers make in communicating with second language learners (...) These include simplification (e.g. use of shorter teacher units and classes), well-formedness (e.g. using few deviations from standard usage), explicitness (e.g. speaking with non-reduced pronunciation), regularization (e.g. use of canonical word order), and redundancy (e.g. highlighting important material through simultaneous use of several linguistic mechanisms) (Stryker and Leaver, 1993). Neither *adjustment* nor *simplification* related to the use of communicative strategies includes any reference to the L1. This is especially surprising as, among the principles of the content-based approach, there is one referring to the fact that the teacher builds on the previous experience of learners: "students do not start out as blank slates but are treated as bringing important knowledge and understanding to the classroom. The starting point in presenting a theme-based lesson is therefore what the students already know about the content" (Richards & Rodgers, 2007: 211). However, the students' previous experience seems to be limited to their prior knowledge regarding content, as previous language/s and language experience are not mentioned at all. The ideal classroom was still defined as "having as little L1 as possible" (V. Cook, 2001: 404).

1.2.4. 1990s onwards: Revisiting Approaches that involve the L1

The 1990s saw a redefinition of Transfer –known as the New Transfer– in which finally the fact that the L1 (or other languages a speaker may know) information is involved in the acquisition of an AL began to be accepted. Many years had had to go by so that teachers could begin to accept openly the notion of transfer as an essential part of the learning process, which was visibly initiated when Cummins elaborated his Interdependency Hypothesis: “To the extent that instruction in Lx is effective in promoting proficiency in Lx, transfer of this proficiency to Ly will occur provided there is adequate exposure to Ly (either in school or environment) and adequate motivation to learn Ly” (Cummins, 1981: 29).

In the light of the Interdependency Hypothesis, it becomes clear that certain L1 knowledge – specifically the knowledge that is related to academic uses– can be positively transferred during the process of L2 acquisition provided there is adequate exposure and motivation. The L1 linguistic knowledge and skills that a child possesses can be extremely instrumental to the development of corresponding abilities in the L2. However, an integral component of these facilitative aspects of language influence is that the L1 be sufficiently developed prior to the extensive exposure to the L2. Likewise, when adding a second or further language to one’s repertoire, Cummins believes that *Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills* (BICS) need to be sufficiently developed, which may about 2 years of exposure, before students can master the *Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency* (CALP), which may take about 5 years of exposure (Cummins, 1979). He justifies in these terms one of the reasons for failure in the AL, as many children are faced with CALP in the classroom before they have a sound development of BICS. Cummins (2000) rephrased BICS and CALP as Conversational Language Proficiency and Academic Language Proficiency.

The L1, then, does finally have a role to play in the language classroom and the door is open to the notion of bilingual teaching in the sense of teaching that makes use of the students’ MTs, that is, the door is open to what Butzkamm & Caldwell (2009) have named the *Bilingual Reform*.

Advocating the use of the L1 in the classroom is not against the obvious fact that students should be provided with models of real L2 use nor that they should develop strategies to communicate in classroom contexts; the idea is that this is not incompatible –and it can even be improved– with an *informed* use of the L1 in the classroom. The common factor in the methods that deliberately involve the L1 is that they try to use the L1 to favour the learning process or, in other words, “students’ heritage language proficiency can become a resource (...) rather than being viewed as either irrelevant or an impediment” (Cummins, 2005: 587).

It must be added, however, that there have been voices against this idea. A relevant one is Turnbull (2001) who, despite accepting the fact that there may be reasons for teachers to use the L1 in language classrooms, there are also many disadvantages when this use becomes overreliance. Everyone seems to agree with Turnbull here and that is the reason why there are many who claim the need for “establishing the empirical and theoretical basis for choice of medium of instruction in L2 teaching” (Cummins, 2008: 67).

Many of the ideas that are now starting to be applied in AL contexts originate, in fact, in bilingual language programs, either in the context of heritage language (that is, the languages of immigrant, refugee, and indigenous groups) teaching in the United States and Canada (Cummins, 2005; 2008; García, 2009; Genesee, 2002; among others) or in the plurilingual perspective taken on by many in Europe favoured by mobility and internationalization.

Some of the methods that have been used in bilingual programs have been collectively labelled “Alternating Language Methods”. When involved in these methods, students are at one moment learning their L2, at another using their L1. Both languages are present in the classroom and one is not taken for granted over the other. Their presentation, however, is still compartmentalised or presented as “two solitudes”, in Cummins’ (2008) words. Examples of Alternating Language Methods are the following (V. Cook, 2001: 411):

1. Language Learning in Tandem: Tandem learning is defined as autonomous, out-of-class, open learning, whereby two people with different native languages work together in pairs in order to learn more about one another’s character and culture; to help one another improve their language skills; and to exchange additional knowledge about, for example, their professional life. It takes place through authentic

communication with a native speaker, who can correct the learners and also support them in their attempts to express themselves. Since each partner can speak the other person's language at least to some extent, they have more opportunities to help one another: through explanations in the FL, through comparisons, etc. As learning in tandem is always based on communication between members of different language communities and cultures, it also facilitates intercultural learning (see International Tandem Network).

2. Key School Two-way Model: this model is based on the alternation between languages for parts of the school day.
3. Alternate Days approach: standard curriculum subjects are taught in different languages on alternate days.
4. Dual Language Programs: both the majority and the minority language are used (in differing percentages as children grow older) to teach the school curriculum.
5. Reciprocal Language Teaching: pairs or groups of students learn each other's languages on alternating occasions.
6. Two-Way Immersion Model: one only language is used in a certain period of time; afterwards, the other language is used.
7. Bilingual Immersion: a class is fully translated within a concept category. From this, note-taking in the L1 in a lecture given in L2 may be useful.
8. Co-teaching (native speaker and non-native speaker, using the L1, teach the language): co-teaching allows students to make use of both their native and TL grammars.
9. Using bilingual texts: it cuts down on the time needed to learn vocabulary and hence the time needed to reach a better reading comprehension level. One important aspect derived from it is looking at grammatical structures and pointing out structural differences in the languages, that is, engaging in some sort of contrastive analysis. Hélot (2010) also points out the richness of using bilingual literature when teaching young children, as a way to support linguistic and intercultural development and, ultimately, develop multilingual literacy.

A second major group of methods that deliberately involve the L1 move a step forward towards the decompartmentalisation of languages and they favour the active creation of links between the L1 and L2, as the languages are used within the same lesson. A few examples of these are described next. However, it must be said that some of them (i.e.

Community Language Learning) faded very soon as they were not considered effective by teaching experts.

New Concurrent Method: In concurrent teaching, the role of the L1 is to foster L2 learning through a more natural L2-use situation (Jacobson & Faltis, 1990). In one particular approach, the teacher switches from one language to another at key points according to particular rules. The teacher may switch to L1 when, for instance, concepts are important; the students are getting distracted; or a student should be praised or reprimanded.

In more general terms, Jacobson & Faltis (1990: 5-8) deem as clearly artificial language separation and choice of language that depends on factors such as topic (switching to a language when dealing with a particular academic content), person (switching when addressing a particular teacher), time (switching at set times) and place (switching at set places). Therefore, they suggest other ways of using the two languages concurrently, such as:

1. The teacher may randomly switch, as happens frequently in informal dialogues between bilinguals;
2. The teacher may consistently alternate between two languages by saying everything twice;
3. The teacher may preview a school unit in one language and teach it in depth in the other;
4. The switching may be only teacher-initiated, the alternation occurring only when the teacher can justify it, and,
5. Finally, this dual language use may be consciously incorporated in the lesson in response to certain cues that the teacher wishes to acknowledge.

Therefore, this method

“acknowledges CS as a normal L2 activity and encourages students to see themselves as true L2 users, at home in both languages. Hence the language classroom becomes a real L2 use situation in which both languages are concurrent, not a pretend L2 monolingual situation. Jacobson’s switch-points

resemble the patterns in real-life code-switching, adapted to the classroom” (V. Cook, 2001: 412).

Dodson’s Bilingual Method: The teacher is to read a L2 sentence aloud several times and to give its meaning in the L1. Next, the students imitate by repeating the sentence, first in chorus and then individually. The teacher tests their understanding of the meaning by saying the L1 sentence while pointing to a picture, requiring them to answer in the L2.

The role of the L1 is to help students get hold of the meaning of the language. Translation is used only to convey meaning and consists of whole sentences. The process starts with a teacher’s L2 sentence translated into the L1, while in Community Language Learning, it starts with the student’s self-created L1 sentence, which is then translated into the L2.

In one way or another, most of the methods described above try to benefit from the alternation of different codes as a learning strategy. This is certainly a revision of beliefs, in historical terms. Nowadays, there are very relevant authors who clearly advocate a plurilingual perspective to be applied in language teaching. This would call for the creation of formal –or informal– contexts of learning where languages are not compartmentalised and where the alternation of codes –understood as a learning strategy, as well as a communicative strategy- and bilingual communication strategies –such as CS or translation- are not only allowed but actively promoted. One example of such research is Cummins (2008), where he actually advocates the idea of “teaching for transfer” in order to challenge the unrealistic, even if generalised, “two solitudes assumption”⁵. He states that “when we free ourselves from exclusive reliance on monolingual instructional approaches, a wide variety of opportunities arise for teaching bilingual students by means of bilingual instructional strategies that acknowledge the reality of, and strongly promote, cross-language transfer” (Cummins, 2008: 65). On the other hand, Cummins (2005) describes what some of these practices, or instructional strategies that would bring the languages into productive contact, may be, and his advocacy of translation as a pedagogical tool should be highlighted. More specifically, he details five different types of transfer (Cummins, 2005: 588-590):

⁵ The same idea has been addressed by other authors and labelled “parallel monolingualism” (Heller, 1999), “bilingualism through monolingualism” (Swain, 1983), “separate bilingualism” (Creese & Blackledge, 2008) or “two monolinguals in one body” (Gravelle, 1996) (cf. Creese & Blackledge, 2010).

1. Of conceptual elements,
2. Of metacognitive and metalinguistic strategies,
3. Of pragmatic aspects of language use,
4. Of specific linguist elements, and
5. Of phonological awareness.

Cummins further acknowledges the possibility of two-way transfer across languages (from L_x to L_y or from L_y to L_x) given that the sociolinguistic and educational context is conducive to, or supports, such transfer (Cummins, 2008: 69).

With the development of approaches that take plurilingualism as the norm, new connections between the L1 and subsequent languages have been made. These new connections have led to new models of language acquisition. One of these models is connectionism, based on cognitive-processing models of language.

According to connectionist principles, all knowledge is related and interdependent (Elman, 2001). When applied to linguistic knowledge, this is clearly against the Interference Hypothesis which argues that knowledge of an existing language interferes with the acquisition of subsequent languages thus creating what has been called *negative transfer*. In turn, connectionist views can be associated with Cummins' Common Underlying Proficiency Model or Interdependency Hypothesis (1978), which argues that certain first language knowledge can be positively transferred during the process of second language acquisition.

Based on interdependency, Ligthbown & Spada (2006: 23) explain that

“connectionists hypothesize that language acquisition does not require a separate ‘module of the mind’ but can be explained in terms of learning in general (...) what children need to know is essentially available to them in the language they are exposed to. Children then acquire links or connections between words and phrases and the situations in which they occur”.

One of the consequences that may be drawn from this and that are relevant for the L1 in the ALL process is that “if there isn’t a language-specific lexicon and all connections have equal value, the L1 can have at least as substantial a facilitating role as it can have an inhibitory role” (Macaro, 2003: 41).

1.2.5. Conclusions of this section

A chronological review of the treatment several ALT methods have made of L1 throughout time has been the focus of this section. The historical perspective shows how this has evolved from monolingual to bilingual teaching, that is, from methods that advocated that there was no place for the L1 (or other languages) in the ALT process and that these needed to be kept separated in different compartments, to methods that acknowledge the essence of the ALT process as intrinsically bi/plurilingual.

To conclude this section, it must be noted that despite the fact that the L1 has not always been considered helpful or useful when learning an AL, there have been several authors who have historically advocated the idea that the L1 *does* have a role to play in the language classroom and different types of methods deliberately involving the L1 have been devised. The major aim of this thesis is to add to this approach in favour of the use of L1 in the classroom (section 2.1.) the rationale of which comes from different areas and disciplines (language acquisition, bilingualism, translation studies or language teaching). Presenting this rationale is the focus of the following section.

1.3. Additional Language Teaching Today: The Role of the L1

The undeniable role of English as today’s global ‘lingua franca’ for international communication (Guido, 2008; Seidlhofer, 2011) has been advocated by many authors. Many have even used the label “World English” to refer to the English spoken in many parts of the world and mostly by people who are not native speakers of it. This has clear consequences for the teaching process and also for the language itself as society is clearly demanding more and better language teaching techniques that will result in students achieving higher proficiency levels.

However, some authors are also beginning to state the fact that English may soon lose this role and will simply become a *must* that will need to be complemented with the knowledge of more and more languages. Graddol (2006) begins his report commissioned by the British Council as follows:

“The new language which is rapidly ousting the language of Shakespeare as the world’s lingua franca is English itself – English in its new global form (...) is not English as we have known it, and have taught it in the past as a foreign language. It is a new phenomenon, and if it represents any kind of triumph it is probably not a cause of celebration by native speakers” (Graddol, 2006: 11)

The evidence of this evolution in the language and in the way of teaching it can well be taken as a good starting point for suggesting teaching methodologies that deal with English as an AL and that aim at making the most of all the languages that are alive in the classroom. In this sense, “what is needed are practices firmly rooted in the multilingual and multimodal language and literacy practices of children in schools of the 21st century, practices that would be informed by a vision starting from the sum: an integrated plural vision” (García, 2009: 8).

1.3.1. The role of English in today’s Catalan education system (Primary Education)

The position that the Catalan Curriculum (Departament d’Educació, 2009) takes towards the teaching of languages agrees with the new perspective defined in the CEFRL (Council of Europe, 2001) in the sense that a broader look to languages and language teaching and learning is taken. This new perspective can be summarised as follows:

1. The aim of language teaching is the progressive command of more than two languages,
2. The plurilingual and intercultural competences need to be developed,
3. Learning FLs enhances the MT, and
4. Learning languages is a privilege that opens doors in a society that needs to be open to other cultures.

At least two aspects related to these ideas may be highlighted: on the one hand, the use of the expression *progressive command* rather than the more traditional term *acquisition*, which may be understood as posing more emphasis on the *process* of actively learning the language; and, on the other, mentioning *plurilingual and intercultural* competence, rather than the more traditionally used and also more limited *communicative competence*. The CEFRL (Council of Europe, 2001) defines plurilingual and intercultural competence in the following terms:

“Plurilingual and pluricultural competence does not consist of the simple addition of monolingual competences but permits combinations and alternations of different kinds. It is possible to code switch during the message, to resort to bilingual forms of speech. A single, richer repertoire of this kind thus allows choice concerning strategies for task accomplishment, drawing where appropriate on an interlinguistic variation and language switching” (Council of Europe, 2001: 134).

The development of this competence also entails focusing on mediation skills, which the CEFRL defines as the ability to “make communication possible between persons who are unable, for whatever reason, to communicate with each other directly” (Council of Europe, 2001: 14). Mediation includes strategies such as translation, interpretation, paraphrase, summary or record, for instance.

In sum, the CEFRL is following the trend towards a globalised, and probably less rigid, understanding of communication, which entails the subsequent redefinition of the language learning aims. I believe it is a good starting point for language teaching professionals as it shifts the focus from very specific skills to be developed in the classroom to a wider, more challenging, yet more realistic, aim behind the teaching of languages: it is about teaching language rules but also about developing a positive attitude towards other languages and cultures and towards language learning as well.

The document does not specify any didactic proposal that could be taken to the classroom to develop these competences. This lack of *practical* information is called upon by many authors, who claim that classroom-based research and experiences are needed (G. Cook (2010), V. Cook (2001), Crawford (2004), Cummins (2005, 2008), Jessner (1999), Hall & Cook (2012), Liu et al. (2004), Macaro (1992, 2001, 2003, 2005), Meiring & Norman

(2002), Stern (1992), Turnbull (2001), Turnbull & Arnett (2002) and Turnbull & Dailey-O’Cain (2009), among many others).

At the Primary School level, and regarding the three languages mostly taught in Catalan schools –Catalan, Spanish and English– three types of competences should be developed in the language classroom (Departament d’Educació, 2009):

1. Communicative competence (oral, written and audiovisual)
2. Literary competence
3. Plurilingual and intercultural competence

It must be noted, however, that these competences are not developed in detail in the *Curriculum* and no levels are indicated. Therefore, it basically remains the teacher’s job to see how they can be dealt with in the language classroom, through which activities and which contents. Furthermore, CLIL methodology is also mentioned in the *Curriculum d’Educació Primària* (Departament d’Educació, 2009) as an interesting approach to bring to the classrooms, even though no greater details are given either.

However undetailed it may be in the official documents, it is clear that taking this new perspective into the classroom is crucial nowadays and goes well beyond traditional language teaching as it broadens the aims of the language lesson. However, it requires new didactic proposals that will promote an open attitude towards languages and cultures, an interest in knowing and learning languages and an ability to reflect upon languages and the relationships among them.

1.3.2. Redefinition of nativeness as a goal

Regarding nativeness, the Reform Movement and the Direct Method in particular (see section 1.2.2.4) stated that the native speaker was the best model for the learner, that emulating native-speaker acquisition was the best route for the learner, and that native teachers were the best teachers. These notions have been challenged recently and the idea of native speaker and native-like proficiency as a goal of language teaching are being reassessed (V. Cook, 1999, 2002, 2003, 2005, 2007; Firth & Wagner, 1997) mainly due to

the acceptance of the fact that the majority of the world's population is multilingual and to the increase of mobility of population, trade and culture.

This reassessment has effects on teaching and on language research, namely, "it has become obvious that our conception of the speaker's language system has to be flexible enough to accommodate the command of more than one language" (Herdina & Jessner, 2002: 1). In other words, ALT spaces need to be flexible enough to turn into bilingual spaces of communication, and the process of ALT informed enough to promote the development of students' plurilingual abilities.

Native speech has been qualified in the literature (V. Cook, 1999; Davies, 1996; Stern, 1984) as, for instance, the speech produced by language users who know the rules governing their native language and can 'apply' them almost unconsciously or, also, as the speech produced by language users who have an intuitive grasp of the linguistic, cognitive, affective, and sociocultural meanings expressed by language forms. As V. Cook (1999) affirms, the features described above, together with many others that have been used to describe native speech, are clearly biased and easily contradicted. Among others, the native speaker is said to spontaneously use language for the purpose of communication and to have an intuitive understanding of the sociolinguistic functions of a language in use; the native speaker is also described as using the first language 'creatively'. Many doubts can arise after such a statement: what is intuitive understanding? how creative is creatively? This lack of objectivity in the definition makes native-like proficiency questionable, as well as not necessarily desirable, as when we are speaking about native English we are also dealing with many different registers, levels of command, variants, and so on, which may not be ideal: not all-native English is widely comprehensible, stylistically diverse, literate or eloquent (Hall & Cook, 2012).

While native speech and native proficiency as goals of language teaching are redefined, and bearing in mind that plurilingualism is not the exception but the norm, successful communication, plurilingual competence and mediation strategies (as defined in section 1.3.1 above) are becoming the new aims of language teaching.

Furthermore, following V. Cook (1999), language teaching would benefit by paying attention to the L2 user, as a speaker in his/her own right, rather than concentrating primarily

on the native speaker. This would require, on the one hand, applying an L2 user model and, on the other, exploiting the students' L1s in informed and effective ways in teaching activities.

1.3.3. The role of prior knowledge

The belief in the importance of using students' L1 as prior knowledge that can help the ALL process (Cummins, 2008; Jessner, 1999; Ringbom, 1987) is related to the belief that this prior knowledge will serve as scaffolding, in constructivist terms, for the learning process. In this line, Fennema-Bloom (2009/2010) suggests the use of the term "code scaffolding" which she defines as a pedagogic technique where the switch is made between two or more linguistic codes in order to facilitate learning.

Following Stern (1984), the psychological development of second language learning may be interpreted as a cognitive, affective, and social process. A second language learner is not in the same situation as an infant learning the first language. Cognitively, at the start, the learner faces disorientation and may feel the second language system to be arbitrary and confusing. Affectively, the learner has to come to terms with the frustrations of non-communication. In social terms, the second language learner is dependent (like the child on the parent figures) on the model given by the teacher or the second language milieu.

It is precisely when not being able to communicate that speakers will naturally try and activate any prior knowledge that helps them get their message across. This activation of previously-learnt languages –and *which* language is activated may be more related to language typology and to emotional factors, rather than to which was learnt first– becomes a *communication strategy* that should be praised and fostered. Furthermore, it is especially relevant to the issue of teaching from a plurilingual point of view, because "if students' prior knowledge is encoded in their L1, then their L1 is inevitably implicated in the learning of L2" (Cummins, 2008: 67) or, one may add, of any other language. This implies that "when students are being educated through a second language (either in second/foreign language instruction or in bilingual/immersion programs) instruction should explicitly attempt to activate students' prior knowledge and build relevant background knowledge as necessary" (Cummins, 2008: 68).

Skinner (1985) justifies L1 use in ALL by questioning the two most basic assumptions that SLA has traditionally held, that is, the L1 = L2 hypothesis, and the idea the most appropriate language of instruction is L2. These assumptions underlie the Direct Method and all the methods and techniques that stem from it. That is, they underlie the monolingual approach to ALL which has been the norm for over a century. Skinner argues how they contradict the views of Cummins, Vygotsky, Piaget and Chomsky and their general learning theories.

1.3.4. Additional Language Teaching as the road to plurilingualism

Language teaching as the road to plurilingualism is related to the understanding of the language teaching space as a space where the aim is not to train native-like English speakers, but future plurilingual speakers with plurilingual skills. Different authors have used different terms to refer to this aim, namely, *interculturality and multilingualism* (Alcón & Safont, 2007), *additive bilingualism* (Baetens Beardsmore, 1986; Grosjean, 2001), *crosslingual teaching* (Stern, 1992), *compound bilingualization* (Widdowson, 2003), *multicompetence* (V. Cook, 1991, 1992, 2003, 2005, 2007), *acting interculturally* (Byram, 2008), and *emergent bilingualism* (García, 2009). However, they all have in common the interest in turning the language learning process into a successful road to plurilingual communication.

Alcón & Safont (2007) put the emphasis on the goal of language learning in bilingual or multilingual communities, where the aim of LL should be to develop intercultural competence. They state that a balance can be found between promoting language diversity while encouraging English as both a means and an end of instruction. PBCS wishes to be, in fact, an example of such a balance, whereby *the* language of the classroom remains English, whilst use of students' MTs can be incorporated in the teaching activities. Clearly, this will require pedagogical norms that adjust to diversity and variation in the English classroom (Alcón & Safont, 2007: 1).

According to Baetens Beardsmore, in contexts of additive bilingualism, the second language brings to the speaker a set of cognitive and social abilities which do not negatively affect those that have been acquired in the first language but where the two linguistic and cultural entities involved in being bilingual combine in a complementary and enriching fashion

(Baetens Beardsmore, 1986: 22-23). That is, learning an AL will affect positively previously-learnt languages, as greater connections will be made.

In his discussion of language modes, which Grosjean (2001:3) defines as “the state of activation of the bilingual’s languages and language processing mechanisms at a given point in time”, he distinguishes between the monolingual and the bilingual language mode. Regarding the second, he further distinguishes between a bilingual that may use the L1 or the L2, with or without CS: “at any given point in time and based on numerous psychological or linguistic factors, the bilingual has to decide, usually quite unconsciously, which language to use and how much of the other language is needed” (Grosjean, 2001: 2). He further states that language mode will have to be studied “in bilinguals who are highly dominant in one language (...), bilingual children who are strongly dominant in one language, second language learners (on the condition that they make regular functional use of their second language” (Grosjean, 2001: 20). Regarding the latter, he also adds in a footnote that “it is difficult to know how the language mode concept applies to ‘traditional’ language learners who acquire their second language in a formal school environment” (Grosjean, 2001: 20). What is relevant here is that, even if deemed difficult, the door is open for formally-trained learners to make use of language modes.

Stern (1992) establishes a difference between *crosslingual* and *intralingual* LL. Whereas the former would use or make reference to students’ MTs, the latter would be an example of monolingual teaching. Stern goes on to suggest that these two possibilities are not mutually exclusive, but rather can make part of a continuum whereby the two strategies will be used at different times and for different purposes.

According to Widdowson (2003: 149), “in teaching English as a foreign language our business is bilingualism”, that is, understanding that students come to class with, at least, one language. Widdowson goes on to state that “if bilingualism is the prime example of language contact in the individual⁶, presumably teachers should be busy getting the first language (L1) and the foreign language (L2) into contact in our learners. But in many ways what we seem to be busy doing is exactly the opposite” (Widdowson, 2003: 149). He moves

⁶ Here Widdowson is referring to Spolsky’s words “However explained neurophysiologically, the phenomenon of bilingualism is the prime example of language contact, for the two languages are in contact in the bilingual” (Spolsky, 1998: 49).

on to distinguish between bilingualism and a process of compound bilingualization, which is what learners go through as they move up on their interlanguage stages, and even if “conventional language teaching procedures are designed to stifle rather than promote it” (Widdowson, 2003: 150).

V. Cook’s (1991, 1992, 2003) definition of multicompetence is “the compound state of two languages” which “covers the total knowledge of a person who knows more than one language, including both L1 competence and the L2 interlanguage” (V. Cook, 1999: 190). In this sense, it is a dynamic knowledge and the result of the knowledge of two or more languages in one mind and “it implies that at some level the sum of the language knowledge in the mind is relevant, not just the portions dedicated to the L1 or the L2” (V. Cook, 1999: 190-191). The development of this concept made V. Cook present a redefinition of *plurilingual speaker* as something different from two monolinguals in one, together with a definition of the L2 learner/user as a speaker with his/her own rights, whose mind is qualitatively different from that of the monolingual native speaker in a number of ways and it may him also put an end to the notion of *nativeness* as the ultimate goal of language learning⁷. In consequence, the traditional goal of SLA worded as “to acquire the language as spoken by the native speaker” (V. Cook, 2007) would no longer make sense.

Byram (2008) confronts “acting interculturally” to “being bicultural” and defines the former as pre-supposing “certain attitudes, knowledge and skills that need to be learnt (...) [It] requires a willingness to suspend those deeper values, at least temporarily, in order to be able to understand and emphasize with the values of others that are incompatible with one’s own” (Byram, 2008: 69); and the latter as “people become bicultural in a natural way, as a consequence of living in certain situations, through which (...) they negotiate and steer their pathway” (Byram, 2008: 59). Thus, whereas “being bicultural” is the consequence of being born or raised in a particular family or context, “acting interculturally” refers to a competence that needs to be formally trained and, in consequence, it entails a specific role for teachers and education systems. Probably one of the first consequences for teachers and education systems is that they have to choose whether they want to try and make their learners bicultural. Taking into account that some authors state that, when children are introduced to ALL in schools, they undergo a further stage of socialization (as they have to

⁷ Grosjean (1982, 1985, 1989) refers to this as *monolingual prejudice*.

relieve some of their primary and secondary socialization in some way, i.e. learning numbers or colours in the AL; and as their experience of the world is extended with a new set of beliefs, values and behaviours), education agents will need to decide whether and how they want to introduce children to the culture of a new social group, contrasting it with their own (Byram, 2008: 70).

Finally, García (2009) states that even though the approach may be different, some type of bilingualism is accomplished in both language-teaching programmes and bilingual education programmes (García, 2009: 6) and goes on to state that “in the globalised context of the 21st century, the conception of a second language learner must be replaced by the concept of the bilingual whose communicative practices include *translanguaging*”. García feels that second language learners should be considered emergent bilinguals and that, in consequence, educators should understand that it will be impossible, and probably undesirable, for their students to leave their home practices behind if they are going to succeed in learning the additional language (García, 2009: 60). On the contrary, these home practices should be acknowledged and used effectively in the classroom.

The theoretical approach on which this thesis is based draws from all the views presented in this section and moves forward as it presents a pedagogical proposal coherent with them. As it stands, PBCS intends to be used in an AL classroom where the ultimate aim is to promote plurilingualism (Alcón & Safont, 2007) as it is understood that when dealing with AL we are in fact dealing with bilingualism (Baetens Beardsmore, 1996; García, 2010; Widdowson, 2003) and, therefore, we should present students with a bilingual language mode (Grosjean, 2001) that makes use of bilingual strategies of communication (Stern, 1992). By moving along this path, we are also developing intercultural competence (Alcón & Safont, 2007; Byram, 2008) and promoting cognitive development (V. Cook, 2007).

1.3.5. Features of plurilingual speech

Understanding that plurilingual speech is characterized by features involving the use of the several languages the speaker has available and of strategies such as CS or translation is the focus of this section. Firstly, it must be stated that, given the fact that the research described here was carried out in a formal context and it is taken to be appropriate for other teaching contexts, it is believed that the features and strategies mentioned above will need to be

taught and used by teachers in order to model plurilingual speech, as they will most probably not occur naturally. These features and strategies are defined in section 2.1. They include: switching codes (use of L1 and codeswitching) and translation.

Secondly, it must be not forgotten that the perspective taken here agrees with V. Cook, (1999) when he states that “language teaching should place more emphasis on the student as a potential and actual L2 user and be less concerned with the monolingual speaker” (V. Cook, 1999: 196) by setting goals appropriate to L2 users, including L2 user situation and roles, using teaching methods that acknowledge the L1, basing teaching on descriptions of L2 users and, as is the focus of this section, modelling plurilingual speech features.

1.3.5.1. Codeswitching

As mentioned in section 1.1.2.3., Poplack (1980: 583) defined CS as “the use of two languages in alternation within a single discourse, sentence or constituent”. She deems CS as typical of a bilingual mode of communication and, therefore, it may be considered a bilingual language skill, which specifically occurs when the speakers involved share the same languages. V. Cook (2002) defines CS as a highly skilled activity that may help carry out a range of social and psychological functions to do with the social roles of the participants, the topics they are talking about, and so on. CS proper is only possible when both participants are aware that they share the same two languages and, therefore, “is the most obvious achievement of the multicompetent user that monolingual speakers cannot duplicate, as they have no language to switch into. It shows the intricate links between the two language systems in multicompetence: in the mind, the L1 is not insulated from the L2” (V. Cook, 1999: 193).

Furthermore, CS strongly relates to attitudes because “it elicits strong affective responses from both bilinguals and monolinguals (...) despite the fact that CS has been accepted as a natural and systematic aspect of bilingualism by sociolinguists for many years, there is a tendency for the general public to still view it negatively” (Bee Chin & Wigglesworth, 2007: 120). In consequence, these attitudes will need to be taken into account when choosing to bring CS to the classroom.

Potentially, the AL classroom is a CS situation *par excellence* since there are, at least, two languages involved. However, the consensus has been for a long time to try and discourage CS as much as possible, based on the belief that keeping languages compartmentalised would help learning and allowing their simultaneous presence would only bring difficulties, in the form of negative transfer or lack of interest on the part of the students to use the AL, for instance. A further reason for discouraging its use is that, particularly when used by children, CS has been treated as evidence of an absence of linguistic differentiation, as an unconscious and not intentional activity.

Studies of CS, however, indicate that CS is both rule-governed and function-specific, and not evidence of linguistic interference, even when produced by children. For instance, Genesee qualifies bilingual code-mixing as not symptomatic of linguistic fusion or confusion (Genesee, 2002: 170). Along this line, Lindholm and Padilla (1978) found in a study of Spanish-English bilingual children between ages 2 and 6 that children's switches served both sociolinguistic and communicative strategies and therefore were suggestive of a sophisticated metalinguistic awareness.

If this is so, Macaro (2005) adds that we need to start developing a *pedagogy of codeswitching*, which he defines as a communication and learning strategy when used in the L2 classroom (Macaro, 2005: 63). Macaro further argues that the teaching community needs to provide a framework to identify when L1 can be a valuable tool and when it is simply used as an easy option. This would help us work “towards a theory of optimality for the use of codeswitching by the teacher” (Macaro, 2001: 545). Furthermore, V. Cook (2002: 332) adds, in accordance to his definition of *L2 user* (see 1.3.2), teachers should recognise the classroom as an “L2 user situation”. To do so, they should develop systematic use of the L1.

A further and relevant description of CS is that given by Grosjean (1982). Grosjean defines CS as part of a two-stage decision where bilinguals, first, decide which base language they are going to use –and this may depend on the weighting of a number of factors, such as the participant, the degree of intimacy, the degree of fluency, the setting or situation, among many others– and, second, decide whether to use CS. This second decision will only take place when the bilingual is addressing another bilingual and, even if it is delayed, “what is sure is that this stage does exist, because a bilingual will codeswitch in certain situations but not in others” (Grosjean, 1982: 145). CS, then,

“not only fills a momentary linguistic need, it is also a very useful communicative resource (...) It takes place quite unconsciously; speakers are often quite unaware that they are switching from one language to another. Their main concern is with communicating a message or intent, and they know that the other person will understand them whether they use one or two languages” (Grosjean, 1982: 148).

According to Grosjean, in a bilingual-speech mode, the reasons for CS are of various types:

1. Topic-oriented: when speakers lack facility in one language related to a particular topic;
2. Vocabulary-oriented: when speakers can't find an appropriate word or expression or when the language used does not have the items or the appropriate translation for the vocabulary needed; or when the switch involves fixed phrases, quotations, or discourse markers,
3. Proficiency-oriented: when speakers have not learnt or are not equally familiar with both languages;
4. Strategy-oriented: it may be used to convey semantically significant information; as a communicative resource that builds on the participants' perception of two contrasting languages; it is meaningful and skilful; it may be taken as an indicator of the speaker's momentary attitudes, communicative intents and emotions; it is an important means of conveying linguistic and social information;
5. Emphasis-oriented: CS may help to amplify or emphasize a point; or to qualify what has been said;
6. Participant-oriented: it may be used to include or exclude someone, or to specify the addressee; it may also be used to raise one's status and give one added authority or expertise;
7. And phenomenon of the most available word: mostly when speakers are tired, lazy or angry they will produce a word in the language that is most available to them at that time.

In a similar line, Bee Chin & Wigglesworth (2007: 14-15) refer to *domain of use* as an aspect that will influence the language choice. Some of these domains are place or location (i.e. home, work), interlocutor, topic, among others.

When talking specifically about children, it may be stated that “CS occurs early in childhood but at first is used mainly to express a word or an expression that is not immediately accessible in the other language. With time it is used as a verbal or communicative strategy and ultimately as a marker of group membership” (Grosjean, 1982: 206). Therefore, the process followed by plurilingual children moves from using CS to respond to a specific communicative need created by lack of knowledge to developing a more complex communicative strategy.

Chapter 2 will look in detail at classroom-based research on the use of CS –used either by the students or the teacher, or both– and will provide a definition for the specific sort of CS that has been used in the research presented here: Pedagogically-Based Codeswitching.

1.3.5.2. Translation

Translation is a complex notion that has historically had different meanings in different contexts of language learning: from being used as an aid to the comprehension of a foreign language and as a sensible technique that allowed the lesson to move on to being deemed as detrimental for language learning as it was believed that it ‘short-circuited’ the mental effort needed to work out the meaning of unfamiliar expressions.

Another use was given to translation at the time of the Reform Movement (see section 1.2.2.2), which was related to the conversion of texts in the MT into FL texts *with the same meaning*, an activity with much more serious pedagogical consequences than glossing. Most reformers thought that this use of translation was “an activity that failed to give learners the experience they needed in expressing their own thoughts and ideas in the foreign language (...) Translation was an art which was inappropriate for the school classroom” (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004: 191-2).

The strongest theoretical argument against the use of translation in language teaching at the time came from associationist psychology, which held that oscillating between two languages was the worst way of attaining accuracy in either of them. However, banning the native language was also rejected by many teachers, who saw much less harm in translating the odd word or phrase than in leaving pupils to flounder around imprecise guesswork. Also the teachers were often put off by many of the classroom techniques needed to explain meaning without translating, that is, by miming, acting, and so on.

The truth is that while translation has long been dismissed as a pedagogical resource in language teaching, it has persisted in the spontaneous strategies of actual language users (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 2001). According to Widdowson, "while in the classroom the teachers try to keep the two languages separate, the learners in their own minds keep the two in contact" (Widdowson, 2003: 150). Teachers who know both languages also use it naturally as a teaching technique, unless they have been trained against it., which has made some claim the need for translation to be a major topic for future applied linguistic research and discussion (G. Cook, 2007).

Translation has always been a useful skill, but perhaps it is more so in today's multicultural world, where *mediation* becomes a valuable social ability. Regarding language learning as such, the usefulness of translation can be supported in various terms, such as (G. Cook, 2007; 2010):

1. Cognitively, as an aid to language acquisition
2. Pedagogically, as a motivating factor
3. Functionally, as a needed skill
4. Politically, allowing students to use their MT and thus not feel disempowered, infantilised, frustrated, deprived of their identity and knowledge

G. Cook (2010) explicitly refers to Translation in Language Teaching (TILT). TILT would be an example of *own language* (versus *new language*) use in the classroom, which he considers both a natural and effective means of language teaching, as well as a needed skill in today's world.

In a similar line, González Davies (2001, 2002a, 2002b, 2004, 2007a, 2012a) has consistently been looking for ways to combine learning a FL and translation. She argues that, as translation happens in the FL classroom anyway, activities far from the Grammar-Translation Method can be designed to channel it in an explicit and systematic way thus making students aware of points –such as linguistic and cultural contrast– that can help them become more efficient mediators, more open and understanding in an increasingly multicultural environment.

González Davies (2012a, 2012b) sets the theoretical framework for the concept of Translation for Other Learning Contexts (TOLC), i.e. translation to acquire linguistic mediation skills and intercultural competence in fields other than Translation Studies. Regarding the skills and knowledge that translation may bring to language learning from Translation Studies, González Davies (2012a) identifies three main aspects:

1. Linguistic skills: besides written and oral knowledge of the source and TLs, this aspect includes an awareness of the interferences that can be produced between them so that, by dealing with them explicitly, students can cope with them more efficiently.
2. Encyclopaedic knowledge (world, subject, cultural knowledge): in these days where CLIL is becoming an exponent of meaningful FL learning, knowing about the subject in hand is essential and, once again, contrast can be useful.
3. Transferential knowledge (Dealing with *impossible* translations using translation strategies): This has to do with translation proper. It involves problem-spotting and solving, deciding, mental agility, flexibility, adaptability, and resourcing skills, among others.

Another aspect worth taking into account is how bilingual children naturally develop translation skills, which may involve translating messages but also giving linguistic or cultural explanations if required. For many bilingual children, translation is an everyday activity, a part of their lives (Grosjean, 1982). Yet it is a poorly understood phenomenon (Malakoff & Hakuta, 1994: 142) and not greatly researched, probably because the emphasis has been placed on keeping the languages separate rather than on the benefits and advantages of decompartmentalising them.

1.3.6. Benefits of plurilingualism

Firstly, there is the need to acknowledge the fact that multicompetent speakers and monolingual native speakers differ in certain thought processes (V. Cook, 1999). On the one hand, research argues for the benefits of bilingualism and equates bilingual speakers with speakers with more:

1. Cognitive flexibility, which is used to mean “creativity or ability to use divergent thinking, such as the ability to generate multiple associations from one concept, or the ability to mentally reorganize the elements of a problem of situation” (Bee Chin & Wigglesworth, 2007: 61) (Malakoff & Hakuta, 1994)
2. Metalinguistic awareness, which may be defined as “an awareness of the underlying linguistic nature of language use (...) allows the individual to step back from the comprehension or production of an utterance in order to consider the linguistic form and structure underlying the meaning of an utterance” (Malakoff & Hakuta, 1994: 147) and also as the “ability to treat language as an object of thought” (García, 2009: 95).
3. Communicative sensitivity and ability to learn multiple languages (Bee Chin & Wigglesworth, 2007)
4. Learning to learn abilities (Baetens Beardsmore, 1986; Bialystok, 1994, 2002; Genesee, 2002).

On the other hand, research has also shown that people who know two languages are slightly less effective at language-related cognitive tasks in the L2 than monolinguals in their L1, probably due to “the very fact of having available more than one response to the same stimulus [which] may lead to slower reaction times unless the two response systems are hermetically isolated from each other” (Magiste, 1986: 118). In sum, although it could be stated that the knowledge of more than one language may mean, at times, slightly slower responses to some language tasks, the benefits seem much greater than the deficits.

At the social level, bilingualism is also reported as being advantageous. It is said to promote socioeconomic benefits, global and local interaction, and cultural awareness and construction (García, 2009).

One final idea that is of relevance here is related to the fact that some conditions have to be met before speakers can enjoy the cognitive benefits of bilingualism and the fact that these conditions are usually related to their level of proficiency in each language. Thus, the hypothesis is that bilinguals have to achieve certain thresholds in their language competence before reaping the cognitive rewards. This is known as Threshold Theory (Cummins, 1981), according to which the cognitive growth of children who fail to reach the first threshold will be adversely affected; whereas those who attain the second threshold will enjoy the positive effects of bilingualism (see distinction between BICS and CALP in section 1.2.2.4).

One of the difficult aspects of this theory is establishing clearly what these thresholds are and this is in direct correlation with the level of proficiency –and amount of exposure– language learners may reach in an ALL tutored setting and with whether this level may allow them to develop strongly any of the advantageous aspects of bilingualism described above. In this sense, it is worth mentioning that, despite the Threshold Hypothesis, Landry (1974) and Cummins (1977) reported that learning a second language in elementary school might increase divergent thinking, so they opened doors to classroom-based learning and its cognitive benefits, beyond those of naturalistic bilingualism. Supporting this view, Yelland et al. (1993) carried out a study where it was found that even minimal exposure to second language was enough to give the children an edge in word awareness tasks and reading superiority, even though the effect was short-lived.

1.3.7. The role of Primary School in developing plurilingual competence

According to García (2009), “although it is acknowledged that plurilingual competence may be developed either through schooling, private study or even participation in public life, the school is given a primary role in the development of *plurilingualism as a positive value*” (García, 2009: 54). The belief that it is positive and possible to develop plurilingual competence in Primary School –which is also stated as one of the teaching aims in the CEFRL– is probably connected, on the one hand, with the need to educate children who will live in a globalised world and, on the other hand, with the long-standing myth that young children seem to learn a second language ‘more easily’ than adults (Stern, 1984: 361).

Regarding the latter statement, several views have been defended by experts, at different times: from the belief in an optimal, even critical, period in the early years (known as Critical Period Hypothesis) to its substitution by the idea of sensitive periods and the sensitive age hypothesis (Bee Chin & Wigglesworth, 2007: 12; Muñoz, 2005) (see section 1.2.3).

A *cognitive explanation*, based on Piaget's stages of intellectual growth, was offered by Krashen (1981), according to whom the critical period of language development is the period of concrete operations, i.e. after the sensorimotor stage of the earliest years and before the period of formal operations at adolescence. In the 1970s, Schumann (1975) advanced an *Affective Theory* which attributed to the early years of life a greater social and emotional permeability to language influences than is available in adolescence or childhood; it was also argued that children had fewer inhibitions and thus were less embarrassed when making mistakes (Grosjean, 1982: 192). Schumann's Affective Theory can be related to Krashen's "Affective Filter Hypothesis", as it is believed that the affective filter rises in early adolescence and this may account for children's apparent superiority to older acquirers of a second language (Richards & Rodgers, 2007: 183).

Furthermore, research in the 1970s seemed to show that young children appear to be remarkably responsive to language education in a *natural* setting of language use of the kind offered by language *immersion* so, under these circumstances, an early start would be advantageous. This evidence, however, was not conclusive in favour of the younger learner, but rather of a certain type of methodology, which could be also advantageous with a late start. It had obvious consequences in the methods to language teaching that were developed at the time (as described in section 1.2.3). To others, the only advantage to an early start, as found in a ten-year inquiry undertaken by the National Foundation for Educational Research (a British project on Primary French), was that it allowed more time for second language learning. Regardless time of exposure, older learners are more efficient because they bring to the learning task more learning experience and cognitive maturity. Following Muñoz (2005), this would relate to Piaget's processes of accommodation and assimilation. Thus, older learners would make use of their previously acquired knowledge of the L1 in their process of L2 learning.

Research has no definite answers as yet. Something that seems clear, however, is that the primary factor in attainment of proficiency is the amount of instructional time provided, that is, the amount of exposure. Therefore, starting earlier should be beneficial. Moreover, a further idea that needs to be taken into account is stated by Stern (1984) who, regardless of efficient teaching results, believes that “on educational, political, and philosophical grounds it may be desirable to introduce younger children to second languages even though it is not necessarily psychologically optimal” (Stern, 1984: 367).

As well as age, more recent discussions incorporate internal and external or psychosocial factors as being more decisive in successfully acquiring a second language. These are factors such as exposure, age, aptitude, intelligence, identity, attitude, motivation, and need to communicate (Bee Chin & Wigglesworth, 2007: 12-13; Muñoz, 2005). These factors are clearly related to individual students, but also to the methodology and teaching style the language teacher brings to the classroom. Following a socioconstructivist and humanistic pedagogy, based on the communicative approach that promotes interaction and adapts to the learners’ needs and interests, while viewing them as active participants in their learning process (as described, in the context of teaching English in Pre-Primary Education in Flores & Corcoll, 2008 and Corcoll & Flores, 2009) would favour the process.

The last factor mentioned above –need to communicate– can be taken as an argument in favour of opening doors to all the languages available in a primary classroom. Also, this is related to the distinction between multilingualism and plurilingualism made in the CEFRL. Whereas multilingualism would be the answer of a monolingually-biased, and thus compartmentalised, view of languages and language learning; plurilingualism would move beyond that and advocate a connectionist view of learning, where learning occurs when different sources of knowledge are related (see section 1.1).

The conclusion here is that if younger learners are shown and allowed to use more efficient tools for learning an AL⁸ –one of them being the explicit use of the L1 through PBCS– they may benefit from their previously-acquired languages in their learning process.

⁸ The need for greater exposure –through CLIL or other measures- advocated for by Muñoz (2005), and mentioned in the Catalan Curriculum, would still remain essential but it would in no way contradict the measure described above.

1.3.8. Conclusions of this section

After the historical perspective offered in section 1.2, the focus of this section has been placed on describing ALT in Catalonia today. Understanding ALT today requires dealing with two different aspects: on the one hand, the role of English as the international language that is taught in the vast majority of schools, and the role it has in society as the demands to learn it increase. And, on the other, the consequences this pressing need has for the teaching process, as the educational system needs to find ways to keep improving in order to make language learning as successful as possible.

It is argued that room for improvement can be found if incorporating a plurilingual approach that is in favour of finding an informed use of the L1 in the classroom. The rationale upon which this approach is built comes from different areas and disciplines (language acquisition, bilingualism, translation studies or language teaching), which redefine or relocate aspects such as nativeness, the role of prior knowledge, understanding language teaching as a plurilingual process in essence, and the need for developing plurilingual and pluricultural competences.

The aims of this chapter have been three-fold. First, a set of operative definitions has been given in order to establish the viewpoint that will be taken in this thesis and to differentiate it from other perspectives. Second, a historical overview of language teaching methods has been presented in order to contextualize the role the L1 has had in language teaching throughout time. This role has been related to the linguistic and language acquisition theories of the time. Finally, a few ideas that are key to understanding the present situation of AL –and, specifically, English– teaching in Primary School have been outlined.

2. Pedagogically-Based Codeswitching: Theoretical Framework

Chapter 2 is divided into three sections: the first is devoted to reviewing classroom-based research carried out from the 1990s to the present on the uses of L1. The second section includes the presentation of PBCS, which is defined and justified in theoretical terms. Finally, PBCS is placed in an Additional Language Teaching Continuum, the aim of which is to offer a long-term view of what can be the main features concerning L1 use in the ALL process in our context.

2.1. Classroom-Based Research on the use of L1 and Codeswitching

The aim of this section is to offer a summary of relevant classroom-based research that has been carried out on the uses of L1 and, specifically, CS and translation. The overview has been organised in three parts:

1. Describing the teacher or student perspective taken in the research.
2. Review of research carried out before and during the 1990s.
3. Review of research carried out in the 2000s until today.

The reason why the second and third parts have been separated is the different approach to L1 use that has been observed in the published work. In general terms, whilst classroom-based research carried out before and during the 1990s mostly aimed at understanding and quantifying L1 and L2 uses in the classroom in order to optimise L2, although a few started to claim a space for the L1; the evident shift was made towards the 2000s in the sense that, even though optimising L2 is still an aim, it is not seen as contradictory with finding effective uses for the L1 thus turning the classroom into a plurilingual space.

2.1.1. Teacher or student perspective

Before beginning with the research review, it is important to note that most classroom-based research on L1 use deals with the observation and analysis of *teachers'* linguistic behaviour, as opposed to observing *students'* linguistic behaviour.

This may be due to the widespread idea that it is the teacher's responsibility to decide when the L1 would be most effectively used. In this line, Macaro (2000) states that "in many classrooms the teacher controls (...) which language is to be used and when; what topic will be discussed; the content of the interaction, the vocabulary and phrases; the relevance of the language used" (Macaro, 2000: 182).

Some other studies, albeit fewer, have looked at the uses *students* make of L1, and following V. Cook (2001), it seems that, in general terms, students use it to "explain the task to each other, negotiate the roles they are going to take, or check their understanding or production of language against their peers through the L1" (V. Cook, 2001: 418). González Davies & Scott-Tennent (2009) and González Davies (2012c) analysed students' uses of L1 and translation in the classroom and reached the conclusion that L1 use is almost always linked to or associated with metacognitive and socioaffective skills and strategies, whereas the use of translation is mostly linked to or associated with cognitive skills and strategies.

2.1.2. Research carried out before and during the 1990s

When looking at the research that was conducted on L1 uses before and during the 1990s, it is interesting to see how it was initially biased towards the exclusive use of the L2 and therefore its main aim was to focus on identifying when the L1 was used in order to find ways to avoid it; and how it gradually moved on to more flexible and plurilingual accounts of language use in the classroom, which was more clearly the focus of research conducted in the 2000s (see section 2.1.3). Relevant studies carried out during that time often shared research questions, hypotheses, type of participants and results; and they often observed L1 use –in general terms– rather than CS or translation specifically. Some of the key aspects that are common to the studies carried out during this period are related to the fact that their aim is to see how L2 use can be maximized, although the L1 may be accepted for specific functions. Therefore, it was especially important to observe communication in FL classes, as teacher talk is often the only input students get in the L2, and teachers tended to equate good practice with maximal use of the target language (Macaro, 1995; Polio & Duff, 1994).

Furthermore, as L1 use by teachers seemed to respond to individual needs or beliefs, there was great variation among teachers. However, it seems that teachers felt that when the emphasis was on understanding and they were not dealing with routinized language, they could not trust the L2, while at the same time, most teachers questioned felt guilty that they were not using the L2 as much as they would have liked to (González Davies, 2002; Mitchell, 1988; Neil, 1997):

“Despite the fact that it is not stated outright in these documents that teachers should make exclusive use of the FL, many teachers assume that they must speak in the TL 100% of the time and that any use of English is indicative of a poor lesson (...) other practising teachers, however, have come to realize that (...) the effective teaching of foreign languages may involve certain phases during lessons where it is appropriate to use English (...) quantity of TL cannot be equated with quality” (Neil, 1997: 3-4)

The interest for analysing systematically the verbal interaction produced in the language classroom stemmed from realising that, with the generalisation of the communicative approach, foreign language lessons were mostly oral (Wragg, 1970) so it became necessary to see how this talk was developed, especially as

“the TL is an optional means of communication, constantly in competition with the shared native language. The ever present availability of an efficient means for fulfilling the many immediate communicative needs involved in managing the language classroom is a powerful factor militating against adoption of the TL, so inefficient for accomplishing these short-term purposes, as the communicative norm” (Mitchell, 1983: 42)

The final aim of most research during the 1990s was often, however, to explore the question of optimal classroom conditions for L2 acquisition (Guthrie, 1987) and to collect information about the nature of input in this specialized classroom setting in order to understand how learning occurs in FL classes (Wing, 1987).

Research indicated that teachers’ purposes and amount of use of the TL varied greatly (Duff & Polio, 1990; Guthrie, 1987; Kharma & Hajjah, 1989; Wing, 1980, 1987) and seemed to be

related to certain types of activities (i.e. activities of greeting, praising, routine instructions, informal talk) whereas other types of activities (i.e. grammar, disciplining, classroom management, explaining meanings, giving instructions and discussing objectives and cultural matters, setting objectives, peer input and interaction) were less frequently conducted in the TL (Chaudron, 1997; Dickson, 1996; Franklin, 1990; Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989; Macaro, 1997; Mitchell, 1988; Neil, 1997; Polio & Duff, 1994; Wing, 1987).

Instead of *activities*, Atkinson (1987) pointed to *applications* where the L1 may be appropriate (i.e. eliciting language, checking comprehension, cooperation among learners) and contended that “the potential of the mother tongue as a classroom resource is so great that its role should merit considerable attention and discussion” (Atkinson, 1987: 241).

Research also indicated, however, that while activity or application type was a great indicator of TL or MT choice, the students’ level of proficiency was also highly relevant: “the use of MT generally decreases with the increase of the students’ knowledge of the language being taught” (Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989: 228).

As mentioned above, the focus of research was on identifying and understanding classroom L1 uses in order to see how the L2 may be maximised (Duff & Polio, 1990; Franklin, 1990). In their paper, Duff & Polio (1990) even suggested some techniques in order to reduce the use of the L1, such as making input comprehensible through verbal and nonverbal modifications –by repeating utterances, slowing down the speed of discourse, establishing an L2-only policy from the start, among others. Elsewhere, Franklin (1990) stated her belief that language teaching should be done through the L2:

“commonsense tells us that to learn a foreign language one must be exposed to it, and that although it is possible to learn a foreign language through the medium of the mother tongue (as did most contemporary British teachers of Modern Languages), such teaching does not generally prepare the learner for face-to-face communication” (Franklin, 1990: 20)

and addressed some of the findings of a Communicative Interaction Project, funded by the Scottish Education Department and conducted between 1980 and 1983, which stated that

“while teachers were aware of the desirability of teaching through the medium of the TL, only a very small percentage of the 59 interviewed believed that it could be used exclusively in the classroom. Most teachers felt that a mix of the two languages was appropriate. Indeed, there was a general consensus that the only activity that could be easily conducted in French was the giving or organizational instructions and that, at the other end of the scale, activities such as teaching grammar, disciplining pupils, or teaching background, were best dealt with in English” (Franklin, 1990: 20)

Despite these teachers’ opinions, Franklin spent no time considering whether these might be, in fact, moments where the L1 may be most effectively used in the classroom, but rather moved on to identify “Teachers’ *inability*⁹ to use the target language”, which she listed under the heading “Problems or excuses?” and summarised as: class size, mixed ability and pupil indiscipline. In her opinion, cooperative teaching with a fluent target language teacher might be the solution to all these difficulties and, therefore, the way to make sure that L1 disappears from the language classroom.

Giauque & Ely’s paper (1990) is especially relevant for this thesis as it is very specifically devoted to studying CS uses in the classroom. Following Jacobson and his New Concurrent Method (see section 1.2.4), Giauque & Ely suggested that “CS can be used to advantage not only in bilingual content-based instruction (...) but in foreign language teaching as well” (Giauque & Ely, 1990: 174). They stated that the purpose of using CS in the classroom is mainly to “enable teachers to conduct their class largely in the target language even at the early stages of the language learning process” (Giauque & Ely, 1990: 174). So, in fact, they were arguing for the use of CS as a communication strategy that allows teachers to support meaning when the L2 is not enough to communicate fluently. They also argued that such use of CS would, on the one hand, reduce tension in the classroom and thus make the classroom atmosphere more comfortable and, on the other, motivate beginning students to use as much of the FL as they could.

In their opinion, teachers should adapt their speech by, first, using as many cognate words as possible¹⁰ and, second, using CS and contextual clues where there are no cognates. They felt

⁹ My italics.

¹⁰ Cummins (2005, 2008) also relies on using cognates as a good bilingual teaching strategy.

this strategy may indirectly teach students to listen for cognate words to support understanding.

For this to succeed, Giaouque & Ely felt students must be explicitly taught about cognates and their importance in language learning and teachers must be careful when modelling CS for students –which should not be done randomly but in an informed way– and persistent in asking them to codeswitch –even though they may resist at first. Furthermore, they felt this might be a strategy very much used at the beginning of the course and gradually substituted by L2 use: “CS is not a ‘method’ to be used throughout the entire year, but is a procedure leading to the stage where the class is conducted entirely in the target language” (Giaouque & Ely, 1990: 176).

They researched this type of CS with 30 first-year university students of French for a term and the results indicated how, with exposure to CS and even if cautious at first, students finally accepted the procedure and used it themselves. When the term was over, they felt that CS could be helpful in teaching and learning a FL.

Other authors begin to advocate a new role for the L1 as they suggest that there are “good reasons for questioning the currently widely held assumption that teachers and learners should always use the target language in the classroom” (Atkinson, 1993: 2). In the same line, Macaro quotes one of the teachers he interviewed when saying “I believe TL is a useful ingredient. It will never be the whole recipe” (Macaro, 1995: 54). They claimed that it would seem obvious to anyone involved in language teaching that the content which they are trying to teach should be the *main* medium in the teaching process, and may reflect that other languages –namely, students’ MTs– might be welcome and useful in the classroom. According to Atkinson (1993), “it is far from self-evident that the target language should be the exclusive (or virtually exclusive) medium of the learning process” (Atkinson, 1993: 2) or even if this exclusivity is possible. Therefore, the question is raised regarding whether such a monolingual approach would in fact be ideal if it could be realised (Atkinson, 1993: 3).

The latter fact leads him to state that the relationship between the TL and the MT should become a much more central focus in teacher training. Answers should be explored to questions such as the role the mother tongue can play in the presentation of new language, in pair and group work, in listening or reading tasks; the role translation can have in a

communicative classroom; or the respective advantages of ‘bilingual’ and ‘monolingual’ dictionaries (Atkinson, 1993: 4).

Auerbach (1993) introduced a new aspect to the discussion when claiming that the issue of using or opposing the L1 in the ESL classroom went, in fact, beyond pedagogical arguments and was based on power relations, and on political and ideological grounds:

“it [the position in favour of or against the use of L1] is rooted in a particular ideological perspective, rests on unexamined assumptions, and serves to reinforce inequities in the broader social order. Evidence from research and practice (...) suggests that the rationale used to justify English only in the classroom is neither conclusive nor pedagogically sound” and yet there is “a growing body of evidence indicating that the L1 and/or bilingual options are not only effective but necessary for adult ESL students with limited L1 literacy or schooling and that use of students’ linguistic resources can be beneficial at all levels of ESL” (Auerbach, 1993: 9).

Joseph & Ramani (1998) followed Auerbach’s argument above when they defended the role ELT specialists should have

“in maintaining and promoting multilingualism (...) by demonstrating through classroom practices the positions they take on multilingualism” (Joseph & Ramani, 1998: 214). Based on the idea that “English teachers must affirm their learners’ languages in their classrooms (...) we encouraged our students to use their home languages in group discussion (...) however, we were not satisfied with limiting ourselves to the informal oral use of learners’ languages (...) therefore introduced progressively structured tasks which required one-way written translation from English to the learners’ home languages (...) Integrating English with the learners’ languages was, we thought, the best way to provide access to English while also affirming their own languages” (Joseph & Ramani, 1998: 217)

This project, which was labelled “The Communicational Teaching of Adults Project”, took place in South Africa and was not successful because the activities suggested (such as using

students' MTs in group discussions or in written tasks) were questioned, even strongly resisted, by the learners as they saw time devoted to working in their L1s as time wasted from English.

Looking at the uses students made of the L1, Villamil & De Guerrero (1996) conducted a study on peer revision in an L2 classroom and they claimed that students used the L1 as an efficient mediating strategy to gain control of the task, for instance, when involved in peer revision of written texts: "the L1 was an essential tool for making meaning of text, retrieving language from memory, exploring and expanding content, guiding their action through the task, and maintaining dialogue" (Villamil & De Guerrero, 1996: 60). As can be noted, these aspects relate both to individual and collaborative cognitive processes.

In their research, Antón and DiCamilla (1998) also looked at students' use of the L1 and they focused on sociocognitive functions. They distinguished between inter-psychological and intra-psychological functions: on the one hand, in inter-psychological functions, the L1 is used to provide scaffolded help to peers, to help maintain interest in the task and make it more manageable, to evaluate and understand new meanings, and ultimately to mediate the cognitive process and thus provide an opportunity for language acquisition to take place; it also serves social functions, as the L1 is used to construct a social space that will facilitate acquisition by developing a shared perspective of the task. On the other hand, in intra-psychological functions, the L1 is used in private speech in order to support students' own thinking when facing a cognitively difficult task and when assessing the results obtained.

Macaro (2000) reviewed in detail studies carried out from 1970 to 1998 on teachers' opinions on the use of the TL and the reasons they use the L1 for. He summarised the results as follows:

1. It seems to be the case that teachers find occasions to use the L1 whenever there is a choice of language use (that is, whenever there is one L1 in the classroom).
2. Students' behaviour and teachers' disciplining correlate strongly with the use of L1 in adolescent classrooms.
3. Grammar teaching is usually an area where teachers switch to the L1.
4. Instructions are also often given in the L1: a difference may be established between routine instructions (such as 'open your books') or more complex, procedural

instructions (such as setting up a group activity). It seems to be the case that the L1 is used in the latter case, while teachers have no problem and see great value in remaining in the L2 for the former.

5. Students' level of competence is also an important factor, as teachers use the L1 because they feel they may not be able to put across the meaning and thus lead to demotivation.
6. Students' age seems to be another relevant factor, being the case that most studies agree that it is easier to maintain virtual L2 exclusivity with younger learners.

Macaro (2000) summarises the empirical evidence as

“in none of the studies I have come across is there a majority of teachers in favour of excluding the L1 altogether. In all the studies there is an overwhelming impression that teachers believe that the L2 should be the predominant language of routine interaction in the classroom. Teachers report that the areas in which they use the L1 are: building personal relationships with learners (...); giving complex procedural instructions; controlling pupils' behaviour; teaching grammar explicitly. They also cite time pressures as an important factor. The major variables in teacher recourse to L1 are ability and age of the learners. Many teachers report feeling guilty when they use the L1” (Macaro, 2000: 180).

To conclude this section, it seems clear that research carried out during this period indicates that classroom reality has not gone hand in hand with what was *expected* from teachers or with the sort of training they had received. That is, whilst most language teaching theoretical approaches claimed the need to use the AL in the classroom to the extreme of *banning* or dismissing the use of the students' MTs, which were deemed irrelevant or even damaging for the teaching process, teachers were finding it difficult to do so. This made many feel guilty and disappointed with their own work. Slowly, however, some voices started to be heard that accepted what the reality in language classrooms was and began to defend a judicious use of the L1 when teaching. Specific didactic proposals were still hard to find and, therefore, it was left in teachers' hands to see how this could be shaped. As will be described in the following section, in the 2000s many more voices have been heard in favour of opening the AL classroom doors to new languages and to new didactic proposals, thus walking down the plurilingual road.

2.1.3. Studies carried out in the 2000s

In contrast with research conducted previously, studies carried out in the 2000s until today are not so clearly biased towards finding the way to ensure exclusive use of the AL. G. Cook (2010) and Hall & Cook (2012) relate this shift towards bilingual and multilingual language use to a change in the academic climate and the social climate, together with advances in the scientific understanding of language acquisition.

On the one hand, the academic climate is shaped by new views such as the “social turn” (Block, 2003) in which applied linguists, and those interested in SLA, increasingly draw upon other disciplines, such as social theory, sociocultural theory or ethnography; and the “ecological approach” (van Lier, 2004) which sees language as dynamic and the result of daily negotiations between speakers.

On the other hand, the social climate is characterised by aspects such as globalisation and mass migration and how these may affect identity construction, which, in turn, influences how languages are used and perceived.

Finally, a new understanding of language acquisition has been brought by new light on brain functioning thanks to imaging and other new technologies and research carried out on bilinguals in bilingual countries (Bialystok et al, 2005). Overall, then, new aspects of academic and social nature shape ALL.

As regards research during this decade and until today, the main focus is on finding good practices regarding the use of L1, and translation and CS, in the language classroom; and on pointing out the need for more classroom-based research in order to do so:

“there is still very little research that provides a quantitative context in which to explore (...) just how much CS do teachers use, and do they do so intentionally and, if so, for what purposes? Should teacher educators, faced with this lack of research evidence, refrain from giving student teachers guidelines on the use of CS?” (Macaro, 2001: 532).

Levine (2003) also calls upon the need for this formal, research-based, description on the idea that “there are likely few foreign language instructors who have not developed an individualized approach to classroom target language and first language use (...) yet often it appears to be based primarily on classroom experiences and intuitions about what feels right” (Levine, 2003: 343). Based on analysis of students and teachers’ use of the L1, Levine derives three pedagogical tenets for TL and L1 use in the classroom, namely:

1. **Optimal TL Use Tenet:** instructors need to realize that the L1 serves numerous functions in the class and, furthermore, that denying this fact appears to be a futile endeavour. In this sense, they should accept the FL class as a multilingual environment.
2. **Marked L1 Tenet:** it seems that using the L1 simply for reducing anxiety or increasing efficiency and thus as an unmarked code is actually what may engender TL-use anxiety among students. It would be more beneficial to create situations in which the L1 could serve pedagogical functions whilst remaining a marked code.
3. **Collaborate Language Use Tenet:** students should be allowed an active role in managing TL and L1 use in the classroom and, together with teachers, create bilingual norms similar to those that develop naturally in naturalistic multilingual environments.

Another aspect that characterises research carried out during this decade is that there are many studies that have replicated research conducted previously (especially regarding their aims, initial hypotheses and research questions) but are now carried out in different contexts. In most cases, findings are similar to those already described in the previous section, which supports the claims already made. This is especially clear with studies focusing on amount of L1 and CS use in classrooms and reasons why L1 and CS are used, including both teacher and student use.

It must be noted that the list of studies dealt with here is not exhaustive, but its aim is to include some of the most relevant classroom-research published in the past decade. As G. Cook (2010) points out, it is important to note that the results obtained in some of these studies are highly contextualized and that it is sometimes difficult to see how they can be relevant to ALT in general. However, this type of research can be said to be at the basis of new approaches such as Butzkamm & Caldwell (2009) paradigm shift towards bilingual teaching.

The main focus of these studies has been on how the L1 can help the learning process by examining the use that is made of it. A comment made in most of the studies is related to the great variability in terms of L1 use by teachers and students, which is sometimes due to individual factors, and sometimes due to the type of activity observed. A further idea that many of the studies have in common is related to how *use of L1* is defined, which may be more or less general and may or not include codeswitching or translation. However, it should be made clear that these are, in fact, not interchangeable terms (González Davies & Scott-Tennent, 2009) and that, therefore, operative definitions are needed (see sections 1.1.2. and 2.2). More specific characteristics and outcomes of the studies are presented next.

What follows is a revision of some relevant classroom-based research carried out during the past decade and grouped into studies on the use of L1 and codeswitching, and studies on the use of translation. At the end of the section, there is a table that summarises the main findings.

2.1.3.1. Studies on the use of L1 and codeswitching

Swain & Lapkin (2000) found that the L1 enables L2 students to negotiate meaning and communicate successfully in the TL. In their study, students were given tasks for which they had to work collaboratively in pairs to construct a story, based on a recording they had listened to and taken notes on. The dialogues of all pairs were tape-recorded and transcribed. The analyses of the transcriptions showed that students used their L1s for three main purposes (Swain & Lapkin, 2000: 257-258): moving the task along, focusing attention, and interpersonal interaction.

Their quantitative analyses to explore differences between and within the tasks in terms of L1 use showed that the amount of use depended greatly on pairs of students. L1 was used most frequently for task management purposes by everyone and pairs of students achieving higher ratings for content and language on their written narratives made less use of the L1 (although other variables also affected the amount of L1 use and its effect on performance, i.e. the task itself).

Swain & Lapkin (2000) state that they had heard repeatedly from French immersion teachers that one of the main reasons why they did not do much group work in class was that students would use a lot of their L1, and that such use was counterproductive. However, the analyses of the transcriptions showed that the L1 use served mostly important cognitive and social functions and that it did, in fact, support learning:

“students’ use of the L1 is not for naught (...) [it] helps students (...) to understand and make sense of the requirements and content of the task; to focus attention on language form, vocabulary use, and overall organization; and to establish the tone and nature of their collaboration. Without their L1 use, the task presented to them may not have been accomplished as effectively, or perhaps it might not have been accomplished at all (...) judicious use of the L1 can indeed support L2 learning and use. To insist that no use be made of the L1 in carrying out tasks that are both linguistically and cognitively complex is to deny the use of an important cognitive tool” (Swain & Lapkin, 2000: 268).

Therefore, disallowing the use of L1 denies L2 learners an invaluable tool for learning, particularly according to the interactionist learning theory, which suggests that input alone (even comprehensible input) is not enough for acquisition to take place (Brooks & Donato, 1984).

In his research involving six student teachers and aiming at giving answers regarding the amount of L1 these student teachers were using and why they were using it, Macaro (2001) points out that “one of the conclusions drawn from these discussions [carried out before the study itself began] was that there is no evidence, as yet, that the L1 should be excluded from language classrooms” (Macaro, 2001: 534). Once the student teachers had undergone this introductory stage, the study proper began. Their classroom speech was analysed and the major findings were the following:

1. Regarding amount of L1 used: first, very little L1 was used, “if future research found such low levels of CS to be the norm, it would provide little basis for the concern that time in the L1 detracts from exposure in the L2” (Macaro, 2001: 544); second, instances in L1 were very short (in terms of time) compared to sequences of L2 talk and interaction with the learners; third, there was little evidence that this minimal use of L1

led students to use the L1 themselves; finally, there seemed to be no link between the level of the class and the student teacher's use of L1, therefore, students' level of proficiency is just but one of the variables at play.

2. Regarding the functions of L1: first, L1 was used for procedural instructions; second, L1 was used to communicate a message; finally, L1 was used for keeping control of students and/or for reprimanding them.

A more multilingual approach was followed by Belz (2002), who collected written data from third-year university students of German to explore the nature of learner language choice from grammatical, functional, and affective perspectives. In their texts, the students were allowed to use German and any other language/s they knew, which contrasted with the institutionalized ban on L1 use in their classrooms. After the essays, students participated in open-ended interviews where they recalled their motivations for language choice in their texts. Some of the relevant characteristics of these texts were related to the inclusion of metalinguistic reflections on the use of words or constructions that existed in one of the codes and not the other/s or that could be object of confusion. Even some invented conversations are described where the multilingual speaker can joke about something as a result of her multicompetence and yet her monolingual friend cannot. This is taken as an example of "the type of advanced linguistic actions that a multicompetent conceptualization of the language learner might reveal and ultimately legitimize" (Belz, 2002: 222). In conclusion, and

"to varying degrees, these learners were engaged in processes of meaning creation, identity transitioning, and metalinguistic play that were enhanced, indeed, made possible by their multicompetence (...) the linguistic juxtapositions we find in these texts are a source of pleasure because they are a source of distinction" (Belz, 2002: 235)

Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie (2002) concentrated on researching the use teachers made of the L1 produced by their beginner students at French university classrooms. In the context of their study, immersion was favoured and the use of the L1 discouraged. They analysed the use of L1 in terms of amount and in terms of the type of instances where it was used. Regarding amount of L1, activity type seemed to be an influential factor. Furthermore, they observed two particular strategic uses teachers made of L1: on the one hand, it was used to

translate words from one language to the other; and, on the other, it was used to offer contrastive information. The authors suggest these strategic uses may modify input in such a way that they facilitate acquisition and label CS as “another strategy teachers use to simplify their speech in order to accommodate the learners’ level of proficiency” (Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002: 423). As for translation, they state it may contribute to comprehension, together with other speech modifications, and draw learners’ attention to specific words, while allowing for redundancy (the word is repeated more times in one language and the other) that helps vocabulary uptake. Regarding contrastive comments, they feel they help learners become aware of differences between the systems, thus avoiding negative transfer (see also Kupferberg, 1999).

Celaya (2004) studied CS (and also translation) uses made by University students and teachers in content-based lessons carried out in English. It was found that while students mostly used CS to communicate among themselves, that is, for communication and social purposes; teachers mostly used translation for translating specific terms in order to clarify or help comprehension (whether because they felt it was necessary to do so or because students asked them to), that is, for pedagogical purposes.

As Celaya (2004), Liebscher & Dailey-O’Cain (2005) set out to analyse students’ code-switching in a content-based University classroom. Interestingly, it was found that while students used CS when they lacked vocabulary in their FL or in order to communicate with other learners, they also used it for discourse-related functions that helped turn the classroom into a bilingual space, that is, into a *social* context of communication. Students were constructing their own bilingual community of practice within the classroom: “the particular functions of code-switching emerged as a consequence of the students’ participation and membership in this community of practice, allowing shared understandings about the purpose of the interaction to enter into the language practice” (Liebscher & Dailey-O’Cain, 2005: 245). The authors argue that students may only go down this path if the conditions are right, that is, if they feel comfortable using their L1 and L2 in the classroom.

Liu et al. (2004) described in their study CS practices in South Korean high schools, where teachers were requested by Education authorities to maximize English use in the classroom after years of unsuccessful language teaching that were thought to be related to the little use

of the L2 teachers made. They recorded language produced by teachers in 13 different schools and teachers' and students' responses to surveys asking about their reactions towards maximized L2 use and the challenges they faced. The main findings indicated that, on the one hand, teachers used less English than what they felt appropriate and, on the other, that there were certain patterns and principles guiding teachers' CS, especially regulated by their own beliefs (to a greater extent than curriculum guidelines).

Interestingly, teachers' language use appeared to have little influence on students' language use, as students would choose what language to use depending mainly on the difficulty of activities. Teacher-CS was mostly used for greetings, directional or instructional comments, questions, vocabulary or grammar explanations, giving background information, managing students' behaviour, giving compliments or confirmation, and jokes or personal talk. Yet another function, which is opposed by many (see, for instance, Harbord, 1992), was related to translating into the L1 what had just been said in English, supposedly in order to facilitate understanding. Furthermore, in the surveys some teachers reported that they would use CS when they had difficulties expressing themselves in English, which would be directly related to their (the teachers) proficiency level.

Kim & Elder (2005) carried out a research where they compared the language uses of native speaker teachers of Japanese, German and French in FL secondary schools in New Zealand. They were interested in the amount of L1 versus TL use teachers made, but also on their reasons for using one language or the other (quantitative and qualitative observation). Their findings showed that teachers' individual linguistic patterns differed greatly regarding language choice and also regarding the pedagogic functions related to the use of one language or another, which authors feel may be influenced by the context of each classroom. The only major tendency observed was, on the one hand, in using the TL for modelling, correcting or scaffolding; and, on the other, in avoiding complex interactions in the TL, thus, according to Kim & Elder "limiting the potential for intake and for real communication on the part of the students" (Kim & Elder, 2005: 355). In the line of the previous statement, Kim & Elder position themselves in favour of maximizing TL use in order to attain what they call *optimal conditions for learning* and make no concession to the potential benefits L1 use may have.

Macaro (2005) focused again on CS use in research carried out entirely in formal classroom settings and among adolescent learners, who mostly share the same L1. In this context, and regarding teachers' view of students' CS, Macaro states that they often complain that students switch to their L1 in collaborative activities. Research suggests, he follows, that CS does not occur in the topic of the task but for other reasons, such as the management of the task or when discussing unknown language words or for social interaction. In this sense, there is not a clear stand by teachers: some argue that the important aim is for the task's linguistic objectives to be achieved even if this is at the expense of CS, thus accepting the students' use of L1 as a natural communicative strategy; others, however, believe that the task's linguistic objectives should include the language needed for the task's management, thus making this classroom language part of the contents to be taught. According to this, Macaro feels that "whereas there seems to be a fairly clear pedagogy for the topic language itself, the pedagogy for increasing the task management language is limited to phrases written on classroom walls or in students' notebooks" (Macaro, 2005: 67).

As for teachers' view of CS, Macaro (2005) states that in all the studies teachers express the belief that the L2 should be the *predominant* language of interaction in the classroom, while at the same time there is not a majority of teachers in favour of excluding the L1:

"However, preference for including the L1 is not based on a perception of its value in terms of cognitive development but because teachers believe the perfect conditions, which would allow the total exclusion of L1, do not exist (...) in other words, recourse to L1 is almost entirely a comprehension issue, not an acquisition issue" (Macaro, 2005: 68).

In his research on teachers' purposes for using CS, and confirming previous findings, Macaro (2005) finds that the L1 is mostly used for message-oriented functions (i.e. giving feedback to students, giving complex procedural instructions, teaching grammar), rather than for medium-oriented functions where L1/L2 comparisons might be made. It is interesting to note that, while message-oriented functions would make this type of CS resemble naturalistic CS (that is, a communicative strategy used by bilingual speakers), medium-oriented functions would not resemble naturalistic CS. However, one could argue the latter would help develop plurilingual awareness, which is one of the aims of language teaching today. PBCS could actually be categorised as a medium-oriented type of CS.

Regarding the amount of CS taking place, two quantitative studies found that the amount of CS occurring in beginner and lower-intermediate levels was quite small, probably due to pressures of the National Curriculum. Here,

“when CS was kept at a level below about 10% there was no significant increase in the learners’ use of L1 in the whole group interaction (...) conversely, no significant increase in the students’ use of L2 was detected if the teacher used the L2 exclusively or almost exclusively (...) it would appear from a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the data, that CS by the teacher has no negative impact on the quantity of students’ L2 production and that ‘expert CS’ may actually increase it and improve it” (Macaro, 2005: 71-72)

In their article, Arthur & Martin (2006) describe the language uses of teachers and students who must accomplish their task in English as an FL. They relate these uses to social factors that exist outside the classroom and affirm there is a “pressing need (...) for further (...) studies which link classroom use to the multilingual communicative needs of citizens of post-colonial societies across the world” (Arthur & Martin, 2006: 179).

Their comparative findings suggest that, in Botswana, classroom interaction tends to comply with language policy: while CS seems to be allowed for teachers, it is not permitted to pupils, who are “prevented from meaningful and critical engagement with the curriculum” (Arthur, 1996: 31). Regarding Brunei, the distinction between the use of one language or another is not so rigid and students are encouraged or expected to use their L1 by teachers who feel it is their duty to “take into account the language competences of the pupils (...) to facilitate pupil comprehension through their codeswitching practices in order to provide a level of bilingual support (...) Teacher thus perceived their codeswitching practices to be hearer-oriented, that is, related to the competencies of the pupils” (Arthur & Martin, 2006: 190).

The authors claim that the differences described above –which can be explained by differences in histories of teaching, cultures of classroom, and so on– have consequences on the teaching and learning styles in the two countries, and especially, on the classroom discourses produced by teachers and students and on learner participation: where the use of CS by students is not welcome and the English used by teachers is formal, lessons are more

teacher-centred and the distance between teacher and student greater, with few opportunities for students to participate; where students are allowed, even invited, to use CS as a communicative resource and the use of the language is less formal, communication is facilitated and classroom atmosphere improves. This is a good example of how the use of the L1 in the classroom can benefit the students not only at a cognitive level but also at a socioaffective level.

With the aim of finding similarities between CS use in formal and naturalistic contexts, Macaro et al. (2009) focused their research on CS behaviour in SL contexts. In their attempt to try and define what the optimal use of CS might be, they set up a research project to analyse whether “limited CS, in broadly communicative classrooms, can enhance L2 acquisition and/or proficiency better than L2 exclusivity” (Macaro et al., 2009: 129). Even though the results they obtained are not conclusive and there is no firm evidence to confirm or deny the statement above, they feel it has been proven that brief CS does not seem to disrupt the flow of communication but rather helps to speed it up.

Macaro et al. (2009) also researched teacher CS as regards two distinct aspects: first, as regards teachers’ beliefs about its use; and, second, as regards the amount and uses given to it in the classroom. As for the second perspective, one of the most important functions of CS is to communicate meaning of new or unknown lexical items. According to the authors, this use could be related to the lexically-based function that tends to guide the use bilinguals make of CS. Regarding the discussion developed in this thesis, this could be one further argument to support the introduction of CS in the language classroom as the use of PBCS in the classroom is supported, among other arguments, by the belief that the AL classroom should be considered a plurilingual space of communication and thus plurilingual strategies of communication should be developed.

Creese & Blackledge’s (2010) article is of utmost relevance to this thesis as they position themselves in a flexible bilingual approach –that is, teaching bilingual children with bilingual strategies– following van Lier’s ecological approach (2004). They carried out their research in two complementary schools (schools established by community members and which focus on language, culture, and heritage teaching) in the UK. They analysed speech

produced both by teachers and students (in these schools, Gujarati and Chinese) and explained the reasons behind the use of CS¹¹.

It is important to note that, in complementary schools, “teachers and students construct and participate in a flexible bilingual pedagogy (...) [the pedagogy] adopts a translanguaging approach and is used by participants for identity performance as well as the business of language learning and teaching” (Creese & Blackledge, 2010: 112). When this type of pedagogy is not only accepted but supported, the different languages available are used and this entails the development of the following skills:

1. Use of bilingual label quests, repetition and translation across languages.
2. Use of student translanguaging to establish identity positions.
3. Endorsement of simultaneous literacies.
4. Use of different languages for different functional goals.

Sampson (2012) described learner CS in EFL classes at a Colombian language school. His findings regarding learners’ use of CS confirm some prior results and suggest, on the one hand, that learner CS is not necessarily related to level of proficiency and, on the other, that it generally serves communication classroom functions often beyond the main learning focus, i.e. discussing procedural concerns, relating to peers or reiterating concepts.

2.1.3.2. Studies on the use of translation

González Davies & Scott-Tennent (2009) conducted research to observe when, how and why a naturally occurring group of teacher trainees in their third and last pre-service year used L1 and translation in their learning process. This was studied by involving the students in an authentic translation project and the process was recorded by means of a pre- and post-questionnaire, a pre- and post-translation task, a teacher’s diary, pedagogical translation activities, an authentic translation project, a written protocol, and the teacher trainees’ self-reports.

¹¹ The authors follow García’s (2007) and Bailey’s (2007) terminology, who talk about translanguaging and heteroglossia, respectively.

González Davies (2012c) expands the results obtained in the former study concentrating on two related aspects: first, when, why and how the students used Translation and, second, how these uses related to cognitive, meta-cognitive and socio-affective learning strategies. The results indicate that the use of L1 and translation are spontaneous learning strategies, but that they need to be distinguished as they are used for different aims. The final goal is to use the information collected to design strategies to use the L1 and translation as well as adequate teaching materials that will promote learning and development of intercultural competence.

When looking at the results, it seems clear that use of the L1 and translation are spontaneous learning strategies, considered useful by students but poorly exploited. This is why if they were introduced in the classroom in an informed way, they could be used more efficiently. Moreover, some preliminary results seem to indicate, in accordance with Macaro (2005) and contrary to the beliefs of those advocating monolingual teaching, that using them does not necessarily increase L1 use in the classroom.

A further result, which is of relevance as we are dealing with future teachers is the reconsideration of their concept of translation and their improved ability to solve translation problems and provide a rationale for their choice of strategies. That is, by having them experience and reflect upon the use of translation in the pre-service classroom, González Davies argues that providing them with appropriate knowledge will enable the teacher trainees to use translation in an informed way with their future students.

González Davies (2012b) set to study the development of linguistic mediation skills and intercultural competence in a teacher training context through projects involving the translation of children's literature. The results obtained show how the students' awareness was raised regarding issues related to views of culture, intercultural competence. Moreover, their awareness was also raised regarding the use of translation to improve linguistic mediating skills, that is, issues directly related with guiding them towards acting interculturally.

The findings suggest that the explicit teaching of issues related to translation in the context of research brought about relevant changes in both the aptitudes and the attitudes of the teacher trainees regarding their intercultural competence and their linguistic mediating skills,

namely, they progressed from a humanistic to an anthropological view of culture; from fronting cognitive ('Know') knowledge to stressing the importance of the more invisible behavioural ('Do') and moral ('Feel') knowledge and actions; generally moving from a Virtual to an Optimal position (Macaro, 2001) regarding the effectiveness of introducing translation into their classes; and, above all, the reconsideration of their concept of translation and their improved ability to solve translation problems and provide a rationale for their choice of strategies.

Goitia & Sugranyes (2011) conducted a study in a Primary Education English class of a 6th year primary school where 95% of the students were of foreign origin and spoke languages other than Spanish and Catalan as their MT. In the AL classroom, the students created stories and wrote them in English. They were then translated into all the MTs of the members of the group of pupils who had invented the stories. Finally, they were read to younger children in English and in all the languages spoken in the group.

The language results of the children involved improved after the experience involving the use of multilingual literature, which, in fact, gives them the change of experiencing otherness through the mediation between different cultures (Hélot, 2010), both their English results and those in the other languages taught in the school, and this was taken as evidence of overall academic improvement and of an increase in plurilingual and intercultural competence. The perspective adopted in this study is innovative as the starting point is the use of children's literature, which is a resource that is clearly motivating for children, but also makes students' languages visible and relevant to the learning process thus helping develop children's language awareness but also making them feel proud of their own languages, their own linguistic prior knowledge.

2.1.3.3. Conclusions of this section

Despite all the research findings presented above and the arguments put in favour of L1, translation and CS use in the language classroom, it is still a fact that

“CS is rarely institutionally endorsed or pedagogically underpinned. Rather, when it is used, it becomes a pragmatic response to the local classroom context

(...) further research is needed on classroom language ecologies (van Lier, 2004) to show how and why pedagogic bilingual practices come to be legitimated and accepted by participants” (Creese & Blackledge, 2010: 105-113).

Even further, following Lemke (2002) we could ask ourselves “could it be that all our current pedagogical methods in fact make multilingual development more difficult than it need be, simply because we bow to dominant political and ideological pressures to keep ‘languages’ pure and separate” (Lemke, 2002: 85).

Macaro et al. (2009) answer this rhetorical question when they review three historical developments that may account for the debate that has always been linked to L1 use by teachers or students, namely, the emphasis on communicative language teaching as *the* method to be used in classrooms, the focus of which is communicating in the L2; the relevance given for many years to the native speaker teacher versus the non-native speaker teacher: partly thanks to the task developed by the British Council, for decades the native speaker teacher was considered to embody the perfect command of the target language and culture, and thus was the best person to teach it; and, finally, the fact that CS has long been viewed by scholars and speakers as a symptom of language deficiency, rather than as a bilingual competence.

Some relevant points can be derived from the three historical developments mentioned above: first, placing the focus on communicating in the AL may mean, for instance, that when the teacher chooses to use the L1 for giving information, both the teacher and the students are seen to be missing the opportunity to develop listening skills and acquiring new vocabulary, their exposure to the AL is reduced, and they are not making the classroom a realistic L2 environment. The point that can be made here is that using the L1 for specific, effective reasons, and in an informed way, could actually enhance –rather than limit– the communicative process and, furthermore, it would in no way mean a return to the *dreaded* grammar-translation method. Secondly, non-native speaker teachers are now recognised as having L1 essential knowledge that may benefit the learning process. And, finally, language classrooms are now viewed as a preparation stage for plurilingual environments, where CS clearly has an important role to play. That is, “optimal use of teacher CS should be considered not only in terms of helping students to learn more language but also in terms of

helping them to use language more effectively in real contexts” (Macaro et al., 2009: 126-128).

The following table summarises the main findings of the studies described above:

Use of L1 and CS – by teachers	
Main findings	Source
L1 used by teachers for procedural instructions, to communicate a message, to keep control of the students	Macaro, 2001
L1 used by teachers to explain vocabulary through translation and to offer contrastive information	Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002
CS used by teachers for pedagogical purposes (to translate specific terms in order to clarify)	Celaya, 2004
L1 used by teachers for procedural instructions, for managing students and for social talk (greetings, giving compliments, joking, etc.); also for translating vocabulary to help understanding	Liu et al, 2004
L1 used by teachers for modelling, correcting or scaffolding	Kim & Elder, 2005
CS used by teachers for message-oriented functions (i.e. procedural instructions)	Macaro, 2005
CS used by teachers on social factors	Arthur & Martin, 2006
CS used by teachers to explain unknown vocabulary	Macaro et al, 2009
CS used to construct a flexible bilingual pedagogy	Creese & Blackledge, 2010
CS used by teachers for procedural instructions and to reiterate concepts	Sampson, 2012
Use of L1 and CS – by students	
Main finding	Source
L1 enables students to negotiate meaning and communicate successfully in the TL	Swain & Lapkin, 2000
L1 enables students to engage in metalinguistic	Belz, 2002

reflection	
CS enables students to communicate among themselves	Celaya, 2004
CS enables students to communicate when they lack vocabulary and to socialise	Liebscher & Dailey-O’Cain, 2005
CS used by students on social factors	Arthur & Martin, 2006
L1 used for metacognitive and socioaffective purposes	González Davies & Scott-Tennent, 2009; González Davies, 2012c
CS enables students to relate to peers	Sampson, 2012
Use of translation	
Main finding	Source
Translation used by teachers for pedagogical purposes, that is, for translating specific terms in order to clarify or help comprehension.	Celaya, 2004
Translation used for cognitive aims	González Davies & Scott-Tennent, 2009; González Davies, 2012c
Translation used in a project of multilingual literature helped improve language results (both school languages and additional languages)	Goitia & Sugranyes, 2011
Translation used as spontaneous learning strategies by learners	González Davies & Scott-Tennent, 2009; González Davies, 2012b
Translation used for the development of intercultural competence	González Davies, 2012c

Table 3. Summary of results of classroom-based research on L1 use conducted in the 2000s

To conclude, having a L2 is “not just adding rooms to your house by building on an extension at the back: it is rebuilding all the internal walls. Trying to put languages in separate compartments in the mind is doomed to failure since they are connected in many ways” (V. Cook, 2001: 407) and which of these connections might be more beneficial for

language learning is to be reflected upon –as well as planned and modelled– by teachers and used effectively and spontaneously by students. My didactic proposal, PBCS, to establish such a connection will be the focus of the following section.

2.2. Pedagogically-Based Codeswitching: Theoretical Framework

This section is devoted to presenting and describing the theoretical framework on which this thesis is based. This framework covers the wide notion of *translanguaging* (see section 1.1.2.1) in the AL classroom to then focus on the use of PBCS, which is the strategy that has been devised to use in the study (see chapter 3).

Next, the particular type of CS that has been developed and put into practice through the process of this research, that is, PBCS, is described. Why it has become the key feature used in the didactic proposal will be explained here, and how it has been used in the activities will be thoroughly described in chapter 4. Finally, PBCS will be placed in a proposal of a Language Teaching Continuum describing the role the L1 could play in a long-term process of teaching a language (section 2.3).

Before moving on, however, it is important to acknowledge here the distinction that has been made in the literature between CS and heteroglossia¹² (Bailey, 2007; Blackledge & Creese, 2010). This distinction responds to the argument put forward by the authors according to whom the long-standing monolingual view of the world should be revised, as it is clearly not a realistic description. In Bailey’s words, “while heteroglossia denotes the use of different kinds of forms or signs, the term does not refer, particularly, to the ‘distinct languages’ that are commonly seen as constituting bilingualism” (Bailey, 2007: 258), which would be the case with the use of the term CS. According to Blackledge & Creese (2010), the use of CS would relate to the monolingual view of bilingualism –the “two solitudes assumption”, in Cummins’ words– that has long pervaded, whereas the use of *heteroglossia* would no longer look at language contact phenomena as mixing this or that code but as something much more general and beyond the borders of single languages: “the use of

¹² Bailey takes the term from Bahktin, 1981.

different signs combined as a resource¹³ to make meaning” (Blackledge & Creese, 2010: 65).

Even though the theoretical grounds of this study share the essence that is at the basis of the use of the term *heteroglossia*, which puts forward a non-compartmentalised view of languages and entails translanguaging, the term CS will be used here. Furthermore, I feel the definition of PBCS and how it is placed in the Additional Language Teaching Continuum (see section 2.3) will clarify the terms in which CS is used.

As has been already mentioned, even though amount of use of L1 in the classroom varies greatly, research shows that the reasons why it is used do not vary much. In general terms, L1 in the AL classroom is deemed useful to deal with three different types of goals (Hall & Cook, 2012):

1. Core or medium-oriented goals: L1 is used to support teaching and clarify meaning, as it may help lighten the cognitive load. Skinner (1985) supports this point by taking the views of Cummins, Vygotsky, Chomsky and Piaget and arguing for a model of language learning which questions the two basic Direct Method assumptions efficiently: first, that the L2 is learnt in the same way as the L1 and, second, that the L2 should be used at all times in the FL classroom. He explores how these assumptions are inconsistent with general learning theories.
2. Framework or message-oriented goals: L1 is used for managerial issues. As has been mentioned in section 2.1, research carried out into teachers use of languages suggests that these are common uses given to L1 (i.e. L1 is used to give instructions, set homework, organize the students, and so on). As will be argued below, I believe this is actually one part of the communication carried out in the classroom that may be effectively and successfully done in the AL.
3. Social or socioaffective goals: L1 is used to relate with students, to establish closer bonds with them and to reduce classroom stress that the use of the AL may create in some students.

More specific examples of L1 uses in relation to these goals are given below:

¹³ With traces of the social, political and historical forces that have shaped it.

1.Core or medium-oriented goals	
Teachers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To teach difficult language areas, particularly grammar - To help with vocabulary comprehension - To deal with cultural issues - To build up links between MT/s and AL
Students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To deal with collaborative tasks - To understand difficult concepts - To carry out private speech - To practice L2 uses of the language - As a tool for self-regulation
2.Framework or message-oriented goals	
Teachers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To manage the class - To give instructions - To check comprehension - To give feedback to students - To assign homework - To discipline the group
Students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To organise group tasks - To set roles
3.Social or socioaffective goals:	
Teachers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To express empathy - To reduce students' anxiety - To compensate for lack of understanding - To enhance affective environment - To encourage learner motivation - To promote positive attitudes towards AL learning

Students

- To deal with interpersonal issues
- To promote class unity
- To promote identity

Table 4. Goals and L1 uses

Taking the above classification of goals and L1 uses as a basis, in a formal setting for language teaching, I believe the broad expression *translanguaging* can refer to, at least, two different situations: *what* we do with the languages involved and *how* we do it. The figure below summarises my proposal as to this distinction.

First, regarding *what*, I suggest translanguaging may refer to two different language uses, namely, switching codes and translation. Second, regarding *how*, the use may be informed or spontaneous. Both the *what* and the *how* are then related to the goals and strategies they aim at and help develop.

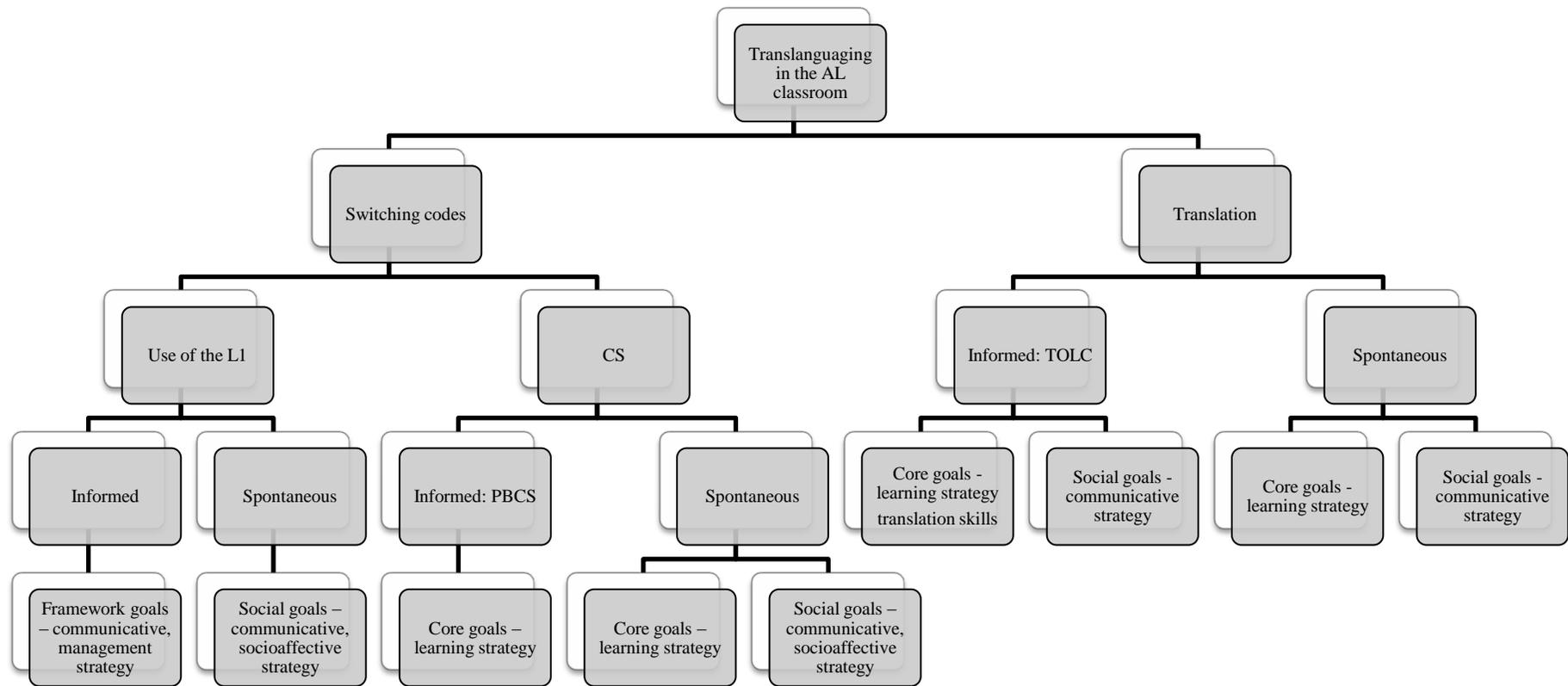


Figure 2. Theoretical framework

Figure 2 above presents the overview of the theoretical approach that is at the basis of this thesis. On the one hand, it allows for the understanding of each strategy and how it is related to the others; on the other hand, it is a proposal for defining terms which are usually ill-defined in the literature (see section 1.1.2 for operative definitions).

When dealing with translanguaging in the AL classroom, that is, in a formal context of teaching, two major approaches have been distinguished: switching codes and translation. As explained in section 1.1.2, this first grouping is based on the understanding that when switching codes, two languages are involved, yet they cannot be qualified as source and target language. This is not so in the case of translation, where there is clearly one source and one target language.

Each approach has then been explained in terms of the strategies it focuses on and the type of language use that can be made (i.e. informed or spontaneous). This should be read in accordance with the Continuum presented in section 2.3, whereby all the strategies and uses are seen as essential elements of the ALL process, which is understood as a process leading to the creation of a plurilingual space.

Regarding *switching codes*, two subtypes have been distinguished: use of L1 and codeswitching. They will now be defined in detail.

As dealt with previously, *Use of L1* is related to the development of framework goals and, specifically, to a classroom management strategy (see sections 1.1.2.14 and 1.1.2.9, respectively). In this sense, it is mostly used by teachers for, among others, giving instructions, checking understanding or disciplining students. This type of use has been widely found in classroom-based research. However, the viewpoint defended in this thesis is that there are better occasions to use the L1 in the classrooms than these moments which are actually quite routinized and standardized and, therefore, rather easily developed in the AL. In this line, a focus on how to give instructions effectively, how to check understanding, and so on, should become an essential content to be dealt with in Teacher Training Studies. As for students, they might also make a similar use of L1 when organising themselves for collaborative work, for instance.

Furthermore, *spontaneous* use of L1 would respond to the development of social goals and would be used as a communicative strategy. This aspect is of crucial importance in a classroom in order to establish a stress-free atmosphere.

Regarding *codeswitching*, it has been subdivided into two types: informed or PBCS, and spontaneous CS. On the one hand, PBCS responds to an informed use of the languages and aims at developing a learning strategy, understood as a core goal (see sections 1.1.2.6 and 1.1.2.13, respectively). As such, it is promoted by the teacher and included explicitly in the teaching activities that are carried out in the classroom. In chapter 4, activities including PBCS are thoroughly described. On the other hand, spontaneous CS would respond to the need to develop social goals and communicative strategies (see 1.1.2.15 and 1.1.2.7, respectively) and it would become a language code –or bilingual language mode– in the classroom that explicitly uses and models CS, which is presented as a naturally-occurring communication strategy typical of plurilingual speech. As such, it would appear at a later stage than PBCS in the Continuum (see section 2.3).

Even though I do think there is an issue with the length of the switch that could help distinguish *use of L1* from *codeswitching* (in the sense that *use of L1* tends to entail a much longer switch than *CS*), I feel length is hardly an objectivable element for distinction. This is why I have chosen to explain the difference in terms of goals and strategies that are developed through the use of these strategies.

The second major approach involves the use of *translation* in the ALL classroom. That is, designing and carrying out activities that incorporate translation as a cognitive skill and pedagogical tool, but also as a communication strategy that reflects the explicit use of more than one language. The informed use of translation would respond to the models presented by González Davies (2012a, 2012b, 2012c) and G. Cook (2010), TOLC and TILT, respectively. The theoretical framework behind TOLC is more clearly related to the fields of ALT and Translation Studies, whereas TILT is more clearly related to the field of Linguistics, SLA and FLA.

With this view of translanguaging in the AL classroom, one of the teachers' goals will be to design and carry out didactic activities where several languages are used and thus encourage the possibility of comparing and analysing similarities and differences, that

is, the possibility to move towards the development of language awareness and multilinguality (see section 1.1.1.9). I argue that this active development of language awareness and, specifically, of comparison would be much more fruitful if it were systematically encouraged and supported by teachers.

Based on all the above, my aim has been to establish a language code that explicitly uses and models a specific type of CS that will allow for systematic and fruitful comparison among the different languages the students have available.

However, PBCS does not respond to personal, conversational, social or topic-based needs, which are some of the key elements that are used to describe CS in the literature (Gumperz, 1982; Myers Scotton, 1993; Poplack, 1980). It is rather a CS pattern designed by the AL teacher as an aid for language learning. It is therefore *pedagogically-based* and it is a kind of CS that the teacher promotes for pedagogic reasons and which gives the students the chance to work with several languages simultaneously. The aim is to create explicit opportunities for the students to use their languages in class by creating new and informed routes to go from language to language, that is, by giving the students the chance to translanguage. This use of PBCS is directed and promoted as a learning strategy, but the aim is to include it in a tutored setting such as the classroom so that, in time, the learners learn to see and use CS as a spontaneous type of communication strategy.

Furthermore, this is done without changing the centrality of English as the language of the classroom, thus providing, at the same time, the students with the immersion-like context they require for learning.

The understanding of translanguaging in the AL classroom as described above responds wholly to the underlying belief that the L1 has a positive and effective effect on AL teaching. To this end, the switching of codes or the use of translation needs to be informed and carefully planned and developed; it cannot be the product of poor planning, management difficulties or lack of command of the language.

Beyond L1 usefulness, aspects of different nature are also put forward when claiming in favour of L1 use in the classroom, such as questioning whether a TL-only lesson results

in greater intake by learners; considering exclusivity of the TL as detrimental to the process of concept development in the sense that it prevents from connecting with thoughts and ideas already developed in the L1; placing the focus on quality of input, rather than on quantity; viewing TL-only classrooms as a form of linguistic imperialism; acknowledging the fact that the use of learners' L1 avoids the loss or downgrading of those languages and of their associated cultures; or believing that negative attitudes to FLs may be due to unequal power relationships established in classrooms or to a feeling of alienation students may have when their MTs are not accepted.

Whether used for a reason or another, those in support of finding a role for the L1 seem to coincide that its use in the AL classroom should not be something unplanned or random, but rather informed and planned beforehand¹⁴. V. Cook (2001: 413) lists the following factors that are worth considering when deciding when to use the L1 in the classroom¹⁵:

1. Efficiency: can something be done more effectively through the L1?
2. Learning: will L2 learning be helped by using the L1 alongside the L2?
3. Naturalness: do the participants feel more comfortable about some functions or topics in the first language rather than the second, as studies in CS have shown?
4. External relevance: will use of both languages help the students master specific L2 uses they may need in the world beyond the classroom?

When the answer to any or all of the questions above is affirmative, V. Cook (2001) suggests the re-examination of the view that the first language should be avoided in the classroom. However, he continues, this is to be done without forgetting the need to maximise the use of the L2: that is, maximising the L2 should be done while using the L1 for specific, effective, reasons. In other words, finding the way for “using the L1 to convey meaning may be efficient, help learning and feel natural in the L2 use environment of the classroom (...) Most studies of cognitive processing suggest that

¹⁴ This distinction is actually at the basis of some of the fears or criticisms several authors put forward when arguing against the use of the L1 (see, for instance, Turnbull, 2001).

¹⁵ An earlier and similar approach was given by French (1963: 94-96) as an answer to the question of when the use of the mother tongue was desirable. The answer was when it is inevitable, useful and quicker.

even advanced L2 users are less efficient at absorbing information from the L2 than the L1” (V. Cook, 2001: 414).

A study carried out by the research group CILCEAL (Intercultural and Interlinguistic Competence in Teaching and Learning a Foreign Language) at the Faculty of Psychology, Education and Sport Sciences Blanquerna, Universitat Ramon Llull, is also looking for answers to the questions above with University students of English. Particularly, regarding students’ use of translation as a skill and a strategy, and also CS, the aim of which is to observe and document the beliefs teachers and students have about the use of L1 and how they relate to cognitive, metacognitive and socioaffective strategies, on the one hand, and to different moments in the classroom, on the other. Results have been published in González Davies & Scott-Tennent (2009) and González Davies (2012c) (see section 2.1.3.2). According to these results, students seem to relate the use of translation with cognitive aspects, namely, *learning* aspects above (i.e. to find equivalences, to understand new concepts and words, to check meanings); whereas they relate CS and the use of L1 with metacognitive and socioaffective aspects, namely, *naturalness* aspects above (i.e. to share an opinion, to facilitate communication). Other results that are currently being analysed are related to when, how and for what purposes the students used L1, and also related to whether the use they made of translation was perceived as successful in aiding or improving the ALL process.

In conclusion, the balance between TL and L1 use –and what maximizing TL use means in terms of optimal L1 and TL use– is what often generates discussion in the literature. In this sense, there are some who fear that if “teachers are ‘licensed’ to use the L1 in their teaching, it will result in an overuse of the L1” (Turnbull & Arnett, 2002: 207) (Harbord, 1992; Gearon, 1998; Turnbull, 2001).

Whether in favour or against the use of L1 in the classroom, there is general agreement that further research, especially classroom-based research, is needed to settle this discussion. PBCS would like to be a practical proposal to be taken into account in the search for this balance.

2.3. Pedagogically-based Codeswitching in a Language Teaching Continuum

“CS occurs frequently and is widespread throughout the world’s bilingual language communities. The fact that bilinguals can codeswitch is an asset and a valuable addition to their array of communication strategies” (Macaro, 2005: 63)

PBCS wishes to be an instance of what García (2009) labels languaging, that is, “fluid ways in which languages are used in the 21st century” (García, 2009: 22). This fluid way is adapted to a formal context, the classroom, as an ingredient to be added to a project of plurilingual education. In this sense, García (2009) qualifies bilingual (plurilingual) education as

“simply any instance in which children’s and teachers’ communicative practices in school normally include the use of multiple multilingual practices that maximize learning efficacy and communication; and that, in so doing, foster and develop tolerance towards linguistic differences, as well as appreciation of languages and bilingual proficiency” (García, 2009: 8)

or, in other words, plurilingual and intercultural competences, as well as mediation skills.

García also talks about *translanguaging*, which she defines as the “multiple discourse practices in which bilinguals engage in order to make sense of their bilingual worlds” (García, 2009: 45). That is, *translanguaging* would be related to the varied and flexible ways in which plurilingual speakers communicate. Thus, PBCS wishes to be an instance of translanguaging in the sense that it is used in order to help language students make sense of the plurilingualism they experience in the language classroom.

By bringing PBCS into the classroom, the teacher could be the person who provides the initial spark (Dewaele, 2012) and invites students to open up to a new way of learning languages. This spark would be provided by modelling and creating opportunities for

students to use their languages and, in consequence, to reflect upon them and to become conscious –and proud– of their linguistic repertoires.

The essence of PBCS would also be related to Macaro’s (2005) definition for expert CS as the

“systematic and principled guidelines based on *functional* use of L1 (...) reassert the principle that second language learning is best carried out through communicative interaction (...) however, the switch does not only ensure communication. Its function is also to ensure that more learning will take place if the switch had not taken place” (Macaro, 2005: 81)

The crucial difference, however, is that PBCS is encouraged by the teacher but used by the students, while the teacher remains as the main source of input in the AL.

Having reached this point, it is important to make explicit some of the reasons why PBCS is thought to be useful in a formal teaching context such as the one described in this thesis, which is not an example of plurilingual education context. My claim is that its use can help turn a non-plurilingual context of formal education, where the language is taught as a subject, into a plurilingual context of formal education, where children can have the experience of using all their languages for learning. This first experience should help them to understand the fact that languages are not compartmentalised, to see them as communication tools with many communicating vessels that are worth exploring in order to develop efficient learning and communicative strategies.

However, it must be noted that the use of PBCS is clearly linked to developing a pedagogical role, that is, it is viewed as tool for supporting the learning process. PBCS is presented as a bilingual strategy but it should not be confused with using the L1 for socioaffective or discipline reasons.

Taking García’s (2009: 6) list of differences between Bilingual Education (BE) and Language Education (F-SLE) as a reference:

	<i>Bilingual Education (BE)</i>	<i>Foreign/Second-Language Education (F-SLE)</i>
<i>Overarching Goal</i>	Educate meaningfully and some type of bilingualism	Competence in additional language
<i>Academic Goal</i>	Educate bilingually and be able to function across cultures	Learn an additional language and become familiar with an additional culture
<i>Language Use</i>	Languages used as media of instruction	Additional language taught as subject
<i>Instructional Use of Language</i>	Uses some form of two or more languages	Uses target language mostly
<i>Pedagogical Emphasis</i>	Integration of language and content	Explicit language instruction

Figure 3. Differences between Bilingual Education and Language Education
(García, 2009: 6)

It can be seen how a combination of items of both lists in Figure 3 above is necessary to account for what can happen in a classroom where PBCS is used, such as the one in which the research presented here took place:

1. Overarching goal: Competence in additional language (F-SLE) *through*¹⁶ educating meaningfully and some type of bilingualism (BE), namely, the promotion of CS as a communicative strategy that promotes translanguaging.
2. Academic goal: Educate bilingually and be able to function across cultures (BE)
3. Language use: Additional language taught as subject (F-SLE) *through* Languages used as media of instruction (BE)
4. Instructional Use of Language: Use some form of two or more languages (BE), especially concerning the students, as the teacher remained the main source of AL input.
5. Pedagogical Emphasis: Explicit language instruction (F-SLE)

¹⁶ My word and my italics.

Following Spada & Lightbown (1999) when they speak of L1 use, the use of PBCS can also be seen as favouring “an interaction between developmental sequences and L1 influence and also suggests that explicit instruction, including contrastive metalinguistic information, may be needed to help students move beyond apparently stable interlanguage patterns” (Spada & Lightbown, 1999: 1). Their research findings indicate that progress in the AL remains linked to receiving explicit focus-on-form instruction and corrective feedback. I argue that PBCS is a possible, plurilingual, approach to this focus-on-form teaching.

This aspect is related to the distinction Macaro (2005) establishes between message-oriented and medium-oriented type of CS (see sections 1.1.2.13, 1.1.2.14 and 2.2). PBCS is an example of medium-oriented type of CS as it is not used in order to clarify or help understanding. Given the age of the children, their experience as language learners and the role of non-verbal communication and visual support in the classroom, this was not necessary.

What is clearly innovative regarding PBCS is the fact that it is used to create opportunities for the children to combine their languages, use them actively and, therefore, empower them to grow as language learners. This is so because the mere presence of the different languages in the activities makes them begin to think in linguistic terms, make comparisons, observe differences and establish hypotheses. In a nutshell, they are developing their language awareness.

As a teaching strategy, it is also important to place PBCS within a language teaching continuum that could give shape to a long-term language teaching methodology that would adapt to each language learning stage and to the learners’ age in order to reach maximum efficiency and high levels of ultimate attainment. The main aim of this Continuum is to address the role the L1 could play in every stage and it must be made clear that the suggestions would apply to those learners following the Continuum from the start, that is, those learners that have experienced different uses of the L1 in their language classrooms as they grow up and also those learners that have begun learning the AL at an early age. Adjustments of various sorts should be made to this Continuum when thinking of adult learners beginning an AL or when thinking of teenagers who have been in English-only communicative classes, for instance.

The Continuum that I have designed in order to incorporate these aspects is based on previous research, as presented in previous chapters, and includes three main stages: very young learners (in the Catalan context, English in Pre-Primary, from 3 to 5), young learners (in the Catalan context, English in Primary Education, from 6 to 12), teenage and adult learners (in the Catalan context, English in Secondary School, from 13-16, post-secondary and above). As it is culturally and pedagogically situated, it may need to be adapted in other cultural and pedagogical settings.

In general terms, and leaving aside individual differences which are crucial in teaching, each stage (and age-group) has different cognitive, communicative and social abilities. Therefore, it may benefit more or less from a particular teaching strategy, even to the point that a particular strategy may be adequate or inadequate. Taking this into account, the Continuum is thought to cater for each stage in terms of the needs and abilities the learners may have, especially concerning their need for the L1 to be used in the AL classroom and the benefits they may obtain from its informed use.

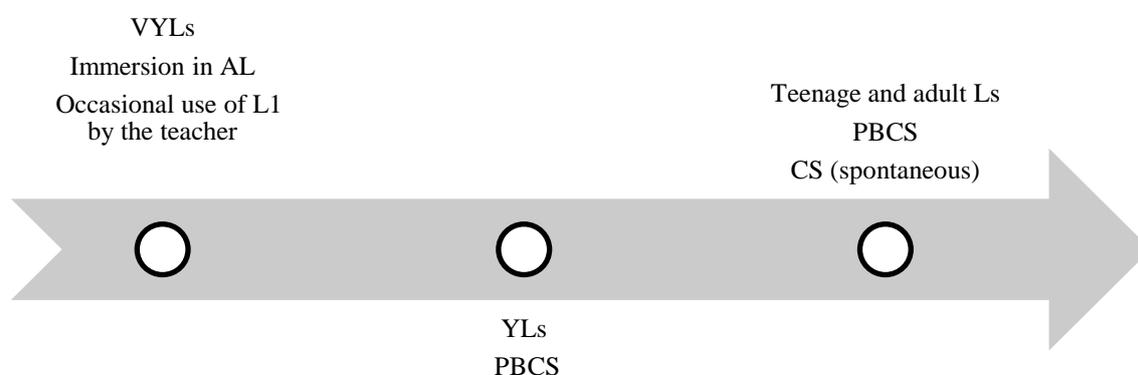


Figure 4. PBCS in an Additional Language Teaching Continuum

2.3.1. Very Young Learners

By very young learners, I refer here to children in Pre-Primary Education, that is, ages 3-5. As explained in the Introduction, today's legislation states as a recommendation the introduction of the first foreign language –which is mostly English in Catalonia– at age

5 (Departament d'Educació, 2008), even though schools developing trilingual programmes (338 schools in 2009) and many private and semi-private schools introduce it as early as 3 (Muñoz, 2001, 2006; Pérez & Juan, 2009).

The process of cognitive and social development of Pre-Primary children is characterised by going from being highly dependent on the adult to developing an increasing level of autonomy; from impulsiveness to reflection; from selfishness to socialisation; and, on linguistic terms, from the silent period towards first oral exchanges in language use, which can be observed in the MT as well as in ALs. These characteristics need to be known and respected by teachers, who should adapt their teaching style to children's needs and abilities (Corcoll & Flores, 2009).

When speaking of the AL, very young learners can also be said to be the ones that benefit mostly from an immersion-like context of teaching, where meaning is conveyed through verbal and non-verbal communication and where contextual clues play a vital role (Flores & Corcoll, 2008). This can be so when we create a comfortable and positive classroom atmosphere, where successful and effective learning is taking place. Obviously, teachers will use the children's MTs when the situation requires it, whereas it is for solving children's socioaffective needs or to deal with any urgent issue that may occur in the classroom.

The type of language that would be used in the English class with these children may be related to Cummins' notion of BICS (see section 1.2.4), which can, in turn, be related to Gibbon's definition of Playground Language. This is so because it is the type of language required by the sort of activities carried out in the classroom, i.e. routines, games, storytelling, experimentation, etc.

On the one hand, Cummins describes BICS as the language used in cognitively undemanding manifestations in interpersonal situations and he makes a distinction between BICS in a L1 or L2 situation, as "clearly, in an L2 context, where proficiency is as yet inadequately developed, a wider range of interpersonal communicative tasks are more cognitively demanding than in an L1 context" (Baker & Hornberger, 2001: 114).

On the other, Gibbons describes Playground Language as

“the language which enables children to make friends, join in games and take part in a variety of day-to-day activities that develop and maintain social contacts. It usually occurs in face-to-face contact, and is thus highly dependent on the physical and visual context, and on gesture and body language. Fluency with this kind of language is an important part of language development; without it a child is isolated from the normal social life of the playground” (Gibbons, 1991: 3).

As the most effective didactic resources used at this stage are related to highly active and motivating activities (i.e. storytelling, drama, songs, games, etc.), both BICS and Playground Language would respond to the sort of interaction that is developed in these classrooms.

Furthermore, the learning process that takes place during this stage is clearly implicit (not consciously-driven) and this is why creating the right atmosphere and developing communicative strategies that go beyond the verbal is of utmost relevance. In Piaget’s terms, these children would be in the pre-operational stage, which is characterised by learning to use language and to represent objects by images and words, self-centred thinking and classifying objects by a single feature.

In Vygotsky’s terms, the scaffolding would be provided in this stage by the good communication skills of the language teacher through the use of varied and adequate use of verbal and non-verbal strategies, such as modelling, gestures, facial expression or intonation. This is essential as the teacher is generally the only source of input in the AL for the children. A good use of visual support (i.e. pictures, photographs, realia, toys, and so on) is also required to help comprehension (Flores & Corcoll, 2011; House, 2007; Lobo, n.d.; Moon, 2001), as well as occasional use of the L1.

In conclusion, it could be affirmed that virtually no L1 would be needed for teaching at this stage, as it is possible to create an immersion-like context that the children accept, enjoy and benefit from. However, this is so when we think very specifically about the

language acquisition¹⁷ process; as mentioned above, the L1 may be required –and should be used– in a very young learners’ classroom for very practical, affective or emotional needs. That is, a clear distinction needs to be made between the use the teacher makes of language when teaching (i.e. telling a story, singing a song, etc.) and the use the teacher makes of language when addressing the children at a personal level and for socioaffective matters or urgent needs they may have. Even though the latter can also often be resolved in the AL, it is obvious that the teacher will never hesitate to use any other language if this is what the child needs.

Furthermore, providing for the immersion-like context mentioned above makes sense when thinking of the ALL process in a formal context such as the Catalan school, where exposure to the AL is usually very limited (it may be as low as 30 minutes per week), and where the number of hours of English increases over time and therefore eventually allows for a bilingualization process that incorporates other languages to the classroom. That is to say, the teaching conditions that ALT has to meet at a very early stage in our ordinary classrooms do not allow for the emulation of a plurilingual naturalistic context. Were this exposure to increase, as it does in trilingual schools, for instance, PBCS might be introduced at an earlier stage.

2.3.2. Young Learners

Regarding teachers’ use of the AL, Macaro (2000) states that young learners may be easier to deal with as

“[most studies agree that] it is easier to maintain virtual L2 exclusivity with younger learners (...) only the younger beginners will be content with remaining within the limited L2 repertoire. As the learners get older, and the repertoire is not correspondingly enlarged, learners are more likely to react against excluding, for relatively long periods (...) the only language in which they can express themselves” (Macaro, 2000: 179-180).

¹⁷ Krashen’s (1982) distinction between *learning* and *acquisition* is relevant here.

It could be stated that young learners in a Continuum such as the one described here would be beginning to experience the need to use their L1s to solve communication needs.

Regarding their cognitive development, young learners would be advancing from the pre-operational to the concrete operational stage (in Piaget's words) and this means that, even though they would still benefit from an immersion-like context where they can make the most of contextual clues (i.e. non-verbal communication or visual support), they would also begin to be ready to move further in their concept development abilities and to transfer knowledge from and to the languages they know (Skinner, 1985). This ability, at its initial stage, could be promoted and supported by the controlled (by the teacher) use of PBCS in the sense that it would help children continue developing BICS but also incorporate CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency) as they would be using language for more complex uses, especially for developing literacy skills, and also thinking about language in more abstract terms. In this stage, then, the classroom language would still be English (thus favouring an immersion-like context that is beneficial for these children that may still rely on contextual clues and making the most of exposure to the AL) but an informed use of other languages would also be promoted to favour concept and language development in children whose AL is gaining proficiency.

This would also support the move from a very implicit to a more explicit type of learning, and it would also accord with Gibbons' definition of Classroom Language:

“But playground language is very different from the language that teachers use in the classroom, and from the language that we expect children to learn to use. The language of the playground is not the language associated with learning in mathematics, or social studies, or science. The playground situation does not normally offer children the opportunity to use language such as: *if we increase the angle by 5 degrees, we could cut the circumference into equal parts*. Nor does it normally require the language associated with the higher order thinking skills, such as hypothesizing, evaluating, inferring, generalizing, predicting or classifying. Yet these are the language functions which are related to learning and the development of

cognition; they occur in all areas of the curriculum, and without them a child's potential in academic areas cannot be realized" (Gibbons, 1991: 3)

Even though it cannot be affirmed that skills such as hypothesizing, evaluating, etc. (either in the L1 or in the AL) are not used in the playground situation by young learners, it might be accepted that these are most commonly used in an informed way in the classroom, as planned or suggested by the teacher, who can then provide richer linguistic input.

Furthermore, Vygotsky's scaffolding would be provided here by the use of children's L1s, which would help ALL as

“the exclusive use of L2 not only forms an obstacle to connecting thoughts and words, but it limits those thoughts that seek unity with words (...) When L2 becomes the sole source of instructional content not only does immediate learning suffer, but future learning may suffer because concept development has been retarded” (Skinner, 1985: 377).

In this sense, Hornberger (2005) claims that “bi/multilingual learning is maximized when they [students] are allowed and enabled to draw from across all their existing language skills (...) rather than being constrained and inhibited from doing so by monolingual instructional assumptions and practices” (Hornberger, 2005: 697).

Taking all the above into account, the underlying idea is that, by including mostly the controlled form (as opposed to spontaneous) of PBCS when involved in teaching activities, students' concept development would grow in tune with their natural developmental stages as more complex meanings could be addressed in the language classroom than if the TL was used alone. Thus, the level of cognitive function would increase in parallel with the level of language proficiency. Finally, the transfer of common underlying concepts (Cummins, 1984) would also be promoted and accelerated as routes inter languages would be open.

When dealing with young learners and in our education system, it is also important to note how the English lessons, mostly focusing on form, would often coincide in time

with content-based lessons in English, mostly focusing on meaning. PBCS would be a teaching strategy devised to be used in the former, whereas the latter might incorporate a more message-oriented CS to help understanding or clarify meanings, for instance.

2.3.3. Teenage and Adult Learners

Teenage and adult learners would be in Piaget's formal operational cognitive stage and, in consequence, able to think in abstract terms. Regarding their formal learning, they would be in a CAPS context and their learning processes could be clearly made explicit. Also, those students that had been consistently exposed to PBCS in previous stages could now continue to use it in classroom activities but also be expected to be using a freer and more spontaneous form of CS, thus emulating a plurilingual means of communication.

Furthermore, controlled PBCS promoted by the teacher could lead to contrastive observations to support learning, as well as metalinguistic discussion regarding linguistic elements. Developing contrastive analysis can help learners become aware of differences between the systems, thus avoiding –instead of promoting– negative transfer (Kupferberg, 1999) and supporting learning.

Adult learners would very specifically benefit greatly from an accurate contrastive analysis applied to vocabulary acquisition or grammar points, as they tend to be highly concerned with accuracy (in contrast with younger learners, who are often more concerned with fluency) and naturally resort to their L1s to compare and analyse an AL structure. This sort of cognitive contrastive analysis (Kupferberg, 1999) could be applied to areas such as false friends, verb tenses or word order, for instance. These are some of the areas where mistakes are common as the result of transferring a meaning or a rule from the MT to the AL. The idea is that by teaching explicitly the meaning or the rule in the languages involved and designing activities that allow for their comparison, students' acquisition of these aspects may be facilitated.

To conclude this chapter and going back to the dual perspective I mentioned in the Introduction (that of a teacher and that of a researcher), it was important to place PBCS

in the bigger picture of language teaching in a formal context of education before moving on to the following chapters, where the use that was made of PBCS in the primary education language classroom will be thoroughly described by detailing how the study was undertaken (chapter 3) and by detailing the didactic proposal that was followed in the classroom (chapter 4). This is so because I believe it is important to see PBCS not only as an interesting and useful teaching strategy, but also as a strategy that is coherent with the needs and abilities of language learners at different stages and as a strategy that may be used flexibly for the benefit of the students, of their learning process and, ultimately, of the teacher's task at hand.

3. The Study

3.1. Introduction

Chapter 3 is devoted to presenting the study undertaken for this research. This is an action-research study carried out during ALT lessons with children aged 7 and 8. The main aim of the study was to test hypotheses and answer research questions regarding the use of PBCS in an AL classroom. It was carried out in a Primary School in Barcelona with a group of 100 students (25 in the treatment group and 75 in the control groups). All children were taught the same language contents (i.e. food and drinks, and parts of the face). However, the difference was the use of PBCS in the activities carried out with the treatment group, while the control groups carried out the activities in English only.

Regarding ethical issues, the school and all the parents were informed about the study that was going to take place and of its aims, and they freely consented. As for the video-recordings, when consentment was not given (only 1 case in 1 control group), this was obviously respected. Students' anonymity is kept throughout as photographs have been carefully chosen so that children cannot be identified and codes have been used instead of children's names.

The instruments used were designed to obtain both quantitative and qualitative data during the research process. On the one hand, language tests were used to obtain quantitative data that would help corroborate the hypotheses regarding language acquisition. On the other hand, qualitative data that would help answer the research questions was obtained through a wider variety of instruments (i.e. activity survey, recorded group interview, motivation survey). Other instruments that were used to obtain as much information as possible were activity worksheets, recording of some sessions and a teacher's diary.

When using some of these instruments, the teacher and researcher switched into Catalan. This was clearly so when conducting the interviews with the groups of students or when reading out the questions in the activity survey. Even though some children

refer to this as a surprising fact when answering the question “Did anything surprise you?” in their survey, it did not make a big impact in the sense of changing students’ communicative attitudes in the classroom.

Statistic analysis has been carried out with the results, as well as discourse analysis of the children’s answers in the surveys and in the group interviews. Data triangulation has been done. Whereas the hypotheses have not been corroborated, the research questions have been answered affirmatively. Moreover, an unexpected and relevant outcome has been obtained regarding the development of language awareness in the treatment group.

The main conclusions of the study indicate that PBCS can be used successfully in the AL classroom for, at least, three reasons: first, it does not affect negatively the teaching process, as children in the treatment group learn the same as those in the control groups; second, it increases language awareness in the students; and, third, it does affect positively other variables which are also crucial in the teaching context from a humanistic and socioconstructivist perspective, such as students’ motivation, classroom atmosphere, and the development of language awareness.

Each one of the aspects mentioned here will be defined in detail in the following sections.

3.2. Participants and setting

The research was carried out in a school in Barcelona and with a naturally occurring group of children in their second year of Primary Education (7 and 8-year-olds) in the second term (January-March) of the school year 2007-2008. In this school, there are four groups of 25 children per year, which means that there are 100 children in their second year. The school language is Catalan, as is the home language of many children. Spanish is also some children’s home language and is introduced in kindergarten. English is introduced in kindergarten as an AL for all the children.

A total of 100 students have participated in the study, 25 in the treatment group and 75 in the control groups. Both the treatment and the control groups have learnt about the same contents but the methodology has varied. However, not all of them were in class every day during the whole research process, which is the reason why, on some occasions, there have been fewer valid answers.

The researcher was also the English teacher for these four groups, and had been their teacher the year before as well. She is herself bilingual (Catalan and Spanish) and proficient in English and French. She was trained as a translator and as an English teacher and had an eight-year experience of teaching in Primary Education before conducting this research.

An aspect that is important to take into account here is the fact that, in this study, all children and the teacher share their knowledge of Catalan and Spanish and all have either one or the other –or both– as MT. Despite the fact that the teacher had always strived to use only English in the language class until this study was undertaken, sharing the MT with the children is relevant because they knew that she could understand them if they spoke in Catalan and Spanish, and so they did use these languages as communication strategies when they needed to. This aspect is interesting as this is a common setting in our community, which justifies the study and makes its conclusions likely to be generalised to similar contexts.

The second-year primary children had begun learning English in their last year of kindergarten and this was their third year learning English at school. They had always been in very active and communicative English lessons, where the focus was the oral language, particularly listening to and singing or acting out songs and stories, and working with vocabulary.

Out of the four groups in their second year, one was chosen, for purely practical reasons, to carry out the research with. It was with these 25 children (11 boys and 14 girls) that Catalan and Spanish were introduced in the classroom within the framework of PBCS and in order to teach the contents that had been planned for the second term: food and drink, and parts of the body. They were based on the textbook that the children were using at the time (Maidment & Roberts, 2003a) thus underlining an ecological

approach to the research project. With the other three groups, exactly the same contents were taught but with no reference at all in the classroom activities to Catalan and Spanish, which is what they were used to.

Regarding the home language of the children in the treatment group, 13 reported to speak Catalan at home, 2 spoke Spanish and 9 spoke both. All can be considered, however, bilingual. The figure below shows the language/s used at home per groups (see section 3.4.1.3 for further discussion):

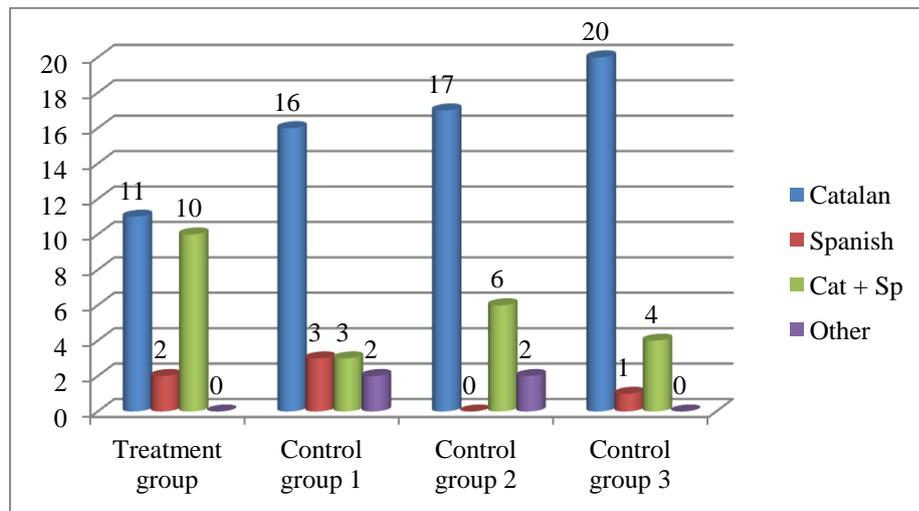


Figure 5. Language/s used at home.

Another element that has been recorded has to do with the number of participants that take extracurricular subjects, especially English. The difference among groups is shown below (see section 3.4.1.3 for further discussion):

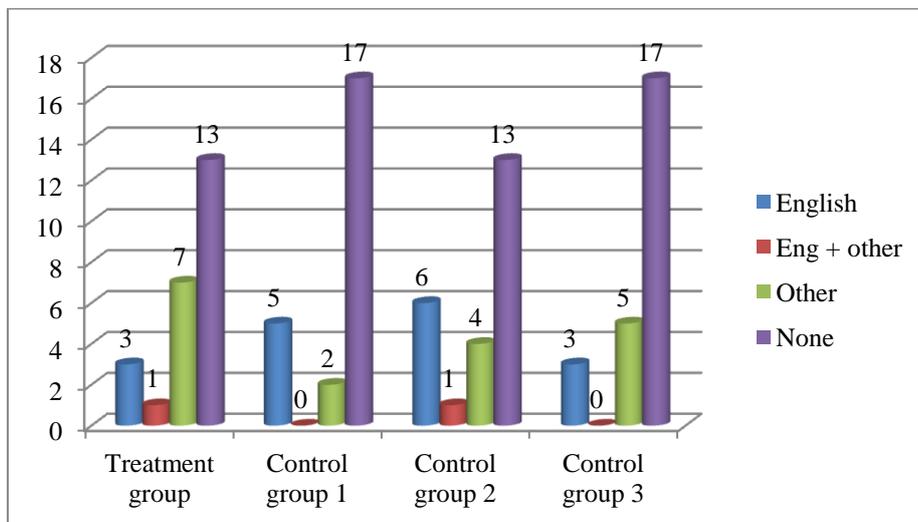


Figure 6. Extracurricular subjects.

Finally, data was also collected regarding children’s favourite subject, as reported by the students in an individual oral interview they had with a teacher, not the researcher, as it had to be done during class time and it was also thought they might feel more at ease when answering this question to someone other than their teacher. Their answers are shown below (see section 3.4.1.3 for further discussion):

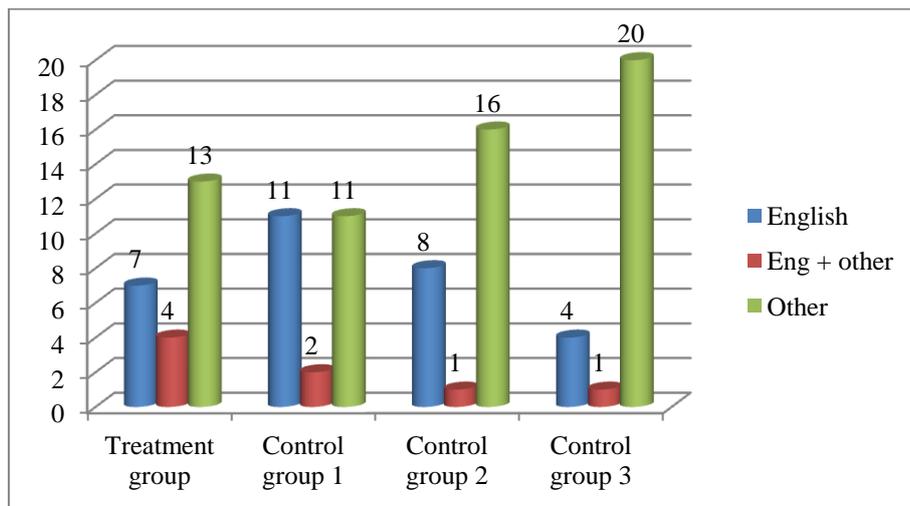


Figure 7. Favourite subject

3.3. Method

The research paradigms at the basis of this research are interpretivism and post-positivism. On the one hand, interpretivism has played a major role as most of the data analysed are qualitative and research questions have been designed in order to obtain participants’ answers and develop meaning from them. Furthermore, grounded theory has played a role as the theoretical view has been partly the result of data analysis and the identification of categories, subcategories and connections among them. On the other hand, the post-positivistic paradigm has also been at play as some of the data collected are quantitative and statistical analyses have been done to test hypotheses and establish probabilistic relations among them.

As mentioned above, both quantitative and qualitative data have been collected and analysed. This is so because it was thus required by the context of the research and the

hypotheses and research questions that were at the basis of the study. The source of quantitative data is the language tests done by the children before and after each one of the two content units that were covered during the term, i.e. food and drinks, and parts of the face. Contrastive statistical analyses (Anova and Mann-Whitney) have been applied to these data.

As for the qualitative data, the sources are of a different nature: mainly written surveys and recorded group interviews, but also the teacher's diary, worksheets and observation of classroom activities at a lesser degree. The information collected through surveys and group interviews has been analysed by compiling details in Excel tables that allow for a comprehensive view, and also by developing a codification system to record relevant comments in the transcriptions of the recorded group interviews¹⁸.

Grounded Theory has played a major role in the analysis of the data as one of the major outcomes (i.e. the development of language awareness) has been theorised after analysing the data and thus the theory has been constructed during and after the research and is not only the result of a preconceived theory. That is, categorising and subcategorising the written and spoken productions of students allowed for an unexpected outcome to become visible. This has been applied to the analysis of the recorded group interviews and the children's answers to the Activity surveys and the Motivation surveys as they are the instruments that allowed the researcher to collect the students' discourse (either oral or written) in a sequenced and controlled way, and both for treatment and control groups.

The data analysis used to categorise and analyse the students' discourse mentioned above followed the Grounded Theory guidelines described in Strauss & Corbin, 1990. According to these authors, the coding of data is defined as the "operation by which data are broken down, conceptualized, and put back together in new ways" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990: 57). Furthermore, they distinguish between three types of coding: first, open coding, which relates to the "part of the analysis that pertains specifically to the naming and categorizing of phenomena through close examination of data (...) broken

¹⁸ All the research instruments mentioned here are described in detail in section 3.3.2 and the results are presented in section 3.4.

down into discrete parts, closely examined, compared for similarities and differences, and questions are asked about the phenomena as reflected in the data” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990: 62); second, axial coding, which “puts those data back together in new ways by *making connections between a category and its subcategories*” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990: 97); finally, selective coding, which is “the process of selecting the core category relating it to other categories, validating those relationships, and filling in categories that need further refinement and development” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990: 116). The end-product of this codification process leads to theory building.

As these guidelines were followed, this is the process that took place during the analysis of data: from a more general identification of key aspects (open coding) to the establishment of connection between categories and subcategories (axial coding) to the final identification of more specific and interconnected categories that have been used to describe the data (selective coding).

First, the more general identification of key aspects of open coding involved reading carefully all written answers and the transcriptions of all group interviews to begin to identify children’s perceptions towards the ALT process they were experiencing. Relevant comments were identified in children’s written answers, such as:

Què has après?
L'angles i el català junts

T'ha agradat aquesta activitat?
Si perquè a sigut molt xula

T'ha agradat aquesta activitat?
Si perquè aprenem molt.

T'agrada aprendre anglès? Per què?

Si perquè és una llengua que es parla a tot el món

Què has après?

Les parts del cos amb angles

Et sorpren alguna cosa de l'anglès a segon?

No gaire alguna cosa si com per exemple que s'escriu molt raro

Second, the open coding led to the establishment of connections between categories as some ideas or thoughts were identified in different surveys and different interviews. This allowed for the creation of a list of major topics and subtopics that could be potentially interesting for the research process. For instance, the connections below could be made as regards motivation in the transcriptions of the recorded group interviews, which were commented by students in the following terms:

- Enjoyment of the activity, as in:

JU: ah, doncs just tenim el millor dia [*oh, then we have the best day*]

T: què dius? [*what did you say?*]

JU: que just tenim el millor dia [*we have the best day*]

T: per què? [*why?*]

B: [perquè diu que [*because (she) says that*]

JU: perquè avui ha sigut molt divertit [*because today it was a lot of fun*]

T: sí? Què és lo que més t'ha agradat? [*yes? What did you like the most?*]

JU: ah, entrevistar [*ah, interviewing*]

T: l'entrevista? i lo que hem fet abans/, dels jocs aquells? \ [*the interview? And what we have done before/, those games? *]

B: També era guai [*that was also cool*]
JU: també [*also*]

- Perception of increased cognitive difficulty, as in:

T: i això era, ho feia més difícil/ o més fàcil? \ [*and that was (using different languages in the activity), it made it more difficult/ or easier?*]
A: més fàcil [*easier*]
T: més fàcil? \ [*easier?*]
G: fàcil [*easy*]
T: sí, / tothom ho troba més fàcil? \ [*yes, / everyone finds it easier?*]
G: sí [*yes*]
T: i després de fer això / que hem fet? \ [*and after doing that / what did we do?*]
JAU: pues jo no, em faig un embolic [*I didn't, I got confused*]
T: és més embolic si barregem [*it is confusing if we mix (languages)*]
I: (nods)
JAU: sí, pues a mi em faig un embolic [*yes, I got confused*]
T: per què embolic? [*why confused?*]
JAU: perquè entre que l'anglès, el castellà, el català, ara anglès, ara català, ara castellà, jo [*because between English, Spanish, Catalan, now English, now Catalan, now Spanish, I*]
T: però t'agrada / o no? \ [*but do you like it / or don't you?*]
JAU: síiiii [*yes*]
T: sí? / és embolicat però t'agrada? \ [*yes ? / is it confusing but you like it ?*]
JAU: sí [*yes*]

- Perception of learning (of English) taking place

T: i heu après alguna altra cosa / o no, \ què creieu? [*and did you learn anything else / or didn't you, \ what do you think?*]
AG: no ho sé [*I don't know*]
J: dir els noms de les coses en anglès, en català i en castellà [*to say the names of things in English, in Catalan and in Spanish*]
N: (laughs)
T: ho havíeu fet mai això a les classes d'anglès? [*had you ever done this in English lessons?*]
D: sí [*yes*]
Ss: no, no, no [*no, no, no*]
D: ah no [*ah no*]
T: i us agrada? [*and do you like it?*]
Ss: síiiii (very convincing) [*yes*]
T: i creieu que s'aprèn més anglès o menys anglès fent-ho així? [*and do you think you learn more English or less English doing it like this?*]
N: més (very convincing) [*more*]
Ss: més [*more*]

Moreover, students' development of language awareness has been identified in comments regarding the explicit or implicit multilingual nature of activities and in comments regarding language characteristics, such as:

JU: però ara era més difícil perquè també hi havia en castellà i [*but now it was more difficult because there was in Spanish and*]
 T: si l'altre dia només ho vam fer en anglès i en català, oi?! [*yes the other day we only did it in English and in Catalan, right ?*]
 B: I era molt més fàcil, bastant més fàcil [*and it was a lot easier, quite easier*]
 T: En castellà és més difícil, / per què? [*In Spanish it is more difficult, / why?*]
 B: bueno, no sé [*well, I don't know*]
 JU: és que has de dir més coses, has de pensar... [*you have to say more things, you have to think...*]
 T: has de pensar més, no? [*you have to think more, right ?*]
 L: hmm, perquè en castellà tens les zetes, les ces [*hmm, because in Spanish you have the Z, the C*]

Finally, selective coding was undertaken when more specific and interconnected categories could be described, as when keywords such as *know, learn, communicate or fun, have fun* were seen to occur in great numbers and were therefore considered significant.

3.3.1. Hypotheses and research questions

The hypotheses and research questions underlying this study relate to the belief that the use of PBCS in the English classroom can have positive consequences on the children's English oral comprehension and vocabulary acquisition and production, as well as on the children's motivation, and on the classroom atmosphere.

The hypotheses, which have been analysed quantitatively, are the following:

1. The use of PBCS will favour oral comprehension in English
2. The use of PBCS will favour English vocabulary acquisition and production

The research questions, which have been researched qualitatively, are the following:

3. Will the use of PBCS favour students' motivation for learning?
4. Will the use of PBCS favour classroom atmosphere?

Bringing more languages into the AL classroom, then, was hypothesised to favour the learning process at the cognitive level (hypotheses 1 & 2). Moreover, the effects of this intervention were explored at the socioaffective level (research questions 3 & 4).

3.3.2 Instruments

As mentioned, several instruments have been used in this research. On the one hand, the instruments that have been used to obtain quantitative data are the language tests (both pre-test and post-test) that all children have done before and after each one of the two units that have been covered.

On the other hand, the instruments that have been used to obtain qualitative data are the activity surveys, which the children in the treatment group filled in after each lesson where plurilingual activities had been used; a motivation survey, which was answered by all the children –treatment and control groups– at the beginning and at the end of the term; and group interviews that were recorded after each lesson where plurilingual activities had been used.

Further instruments that have been used to allow for gathering as much information as possible about the teaching process are the recording of some of the activities carried out in class and a teacher’s diary. Activity worksheets done by the children (in the treatment group and in the control groups) have also been revised and kept.

The following table indicates why these instruments have been used and which have been used with the treatment and the control groups:

Instruments	Quantitative	Qualitative
Treatment group (25)	Language tests	Activity survey Recorded group interview Motivation survey
Control groups (75)	Language tests	Motivation survey

Table 5. Instruments used in the research.

Other instruments	
Treatment group (25)	Teacher's diary Children's worksheets Recorded lessons
Control groups (75)	Teacher's diary Children's worksheets

Table 6. Other instruments used in the research.

3.3.2.1. Language test

To test language acquisition, a written test (Roberts, 2003) was carried out by the students both before (pre-test) and after each unit (post-test). The test for unit 1 had three exercises and each one was worth 6 points, so the highest score that could be obtained was 18. Answers were considered correct even if they included spelling mistakes, as writing and spelling are not major aims with children in this age group. The first exercise was a listening and discriminating activity; the second activity tested written vocabulary recognition and matching; and the third was a writing activity.

The test for unit 2 also included three exercises: the first was worth 6 points, the second 5 and the third, 6, so the highest score that could be obtained was 17. As well as in the prior test, answers were considered correct even if they included spelling mistakes. The first exercise was a listening and discriminating activity; the second activity tested understanding of a short text including the key vocabulary; and the third was a fill-in-the-blanks activity.

3.3.2.2. Activity survey

A survey was submitted to the children in the treatment group every time they had several languages involved in a lesson. The survey was in Catalan and was designed to be appealing and easy to answer by 7/8-year-olds. It included the following questions (see Appendix 8):

1. Did you like the activity?
2. What did you like the most?
3. What did you like the least?
4. Did anything surprise you?
5. Would you like to do it again?
6. Would you do anything differently?
7. What did you learn?

Students were asked to answer yes or no and, when possible, to explain why. It is important to note that, probably given their age and the fact that it was not a task they were used to doing, it was difficult for some children to actually pinpoint the reason why they had liked or disliked a particular activity. Therefore, the use of such an instrument should be revised for further research as giving children the chance to think about and talk about this type of questions among themselves before asking them to answer such a survey individually would have very probably helped them. Examples can be found in Appendix 8.

3.3.2.3. Recorded group interview

After each lesson where PBCS was used, an interview with a small group of children (between 4 and 6) from the treatment group was video-recorded. The interview was conducted in Catalan as it was the language children and researcher shared, as well as the school language. Moreover, children could not be expected to give their answers in English. Regarding the interview as such, it always began by the teacher asking the children to describe what they had done in class. If necessary, the teacher asked for greater detail. Next, she always asked them whether they had enjoyed the activities and the lesson. After making sure that these two aspects were recorded, the teacher allowed the children to speak about the activities quite freely. All the interviews were transcribed and analysed by applying a codification system created *ad hoc*. The transcriptions are included in Appendix 9.

3.3.2.4. Motivation survey

A survey was submitted to the children –both in the treatment and in the control groups– at the beginning (pre-test) and at the end of the term (post-test) in order to find out more information regarding motivational aspects. This survey was also in Catalan (see 3.3.2.3.) and designed to be appealing and easy to answer. It included the following questions (see Appendix 10):

1. Do you like learning English? Why?
2. What do you like the most about learning English? Why?
3. What do you like the least about learning English? Why?
4. How do you prefer to work in class? Alone? With a partner? In groups?
5. Did anything surprise you this term? What?

As mentioned above in relation to the activity survey, answering questions (2) and (3) was difficult for some children, as it was difficult for them to distinguish between liking something and liking it the most, etc. Probably the revision of such an instrument should also include some sort of practice or training prior to the actual use of the survey. Examples can be found in Appendix 10.

3.3.2.5. Complementary instruments: teacher's diary, children's worksheets, recorded lessons

In the first place, and for as long as the research lasted, the teacher/researcher wrote down all the aspects that seemed worth recording. These mainly related to methodological aspects (i.e. how the activity had developed and how the children had organised themselves) and it included noteworthy comments made by the children and overheard by the teacher which could be linked to their socioaffective reactions. As they were spontaneous, these comments reflected quite honestly the students' opinions on the activities themselves, on the fact that several languages were involved, and so on.

In the second place, the children were video recorded while they were doing the plurilingual activities. Care was taken to do so especially in the activities involving

chants or presentations in front of the others, i.e. “Trilingual Chant”, “What have you got in your restaurant?”, “Move your body”, and so on. These recordings have been used to see more accurately how children responded to the activities.

Finally, the activity worksheets (which will be shown in the description of the didactic proposals in chapter 4) were copied and collected. In unit 1, worksheets have been used for the following activities: grid, class survey, trilingual chant and “what have you got in your restaurant?”. In unit 2, worksheets have been used for the following activities: trilingual word search and chants. All the worksheets were revised by the teacher and returned to the students; copies were kept.

These worksheets have been a valuable instrument as they show the results produced by children and can be assessed in terms of correct answers, but also in terms of mistakes made, types of mistakes, and even self-corrections.

Observation of classroom activities is related to the observation of those language activities that were carried out orally or by using resources other than worksheets. Observing the difficulties the children had when carrying them out was also useful in terms of understanding how language awareness was developing. A thorough analysis of these difficulties and the reasons that may have caused them can be found in section 3.4.2.5.

3.4. Results and discussion

The description of the results below is presented in terms of results related to cognitive aspects (that is, hypotheses 1 and 2) and results related to socioaffective aspects (that is, research questions 3 and 4). Within these aspects, the results are further presented in terms of instruments and specific outcome observed. Finally, the results are discussed in each one of the sections and a global analysis and conclusions are developed in section 3.4.

I have chosen to present the description and discussion of results as pointed out above to help understanding and because I believe that what makes this study interesting is the sum of the results obtained by using instruments of different nature.

3.4.1. Cognitive aspect: language acquisition

As mentioned before, the instruments used to test language acquisition were the language pre-test and post-test. Contrastive statistical analyses (Anova and Mann-Whitney) were carried out both between groups and within groups. Differences equal or below 0.05 were rejected and not considered statistically relevant, as this is the generally accepted standard, denoting an estimated probability of about 5% of this difference being due to chance alone.

Before analysing the data in detail, some aspects –shown in figure 8 below- are worth mentioning:

1. First, group mean totals improve considerably when comparing pre-test and post-test marks. This means that the learning process was successful for all the children involved.
2. Second, group mean totals improve both for the treatment and the control groups, and for the two didactic proposals involved.
3. Third, both the pre-test and the post-test marks for unit 1 are higher than those for unit 2, especially so in the case of the treatment group for unit 2.

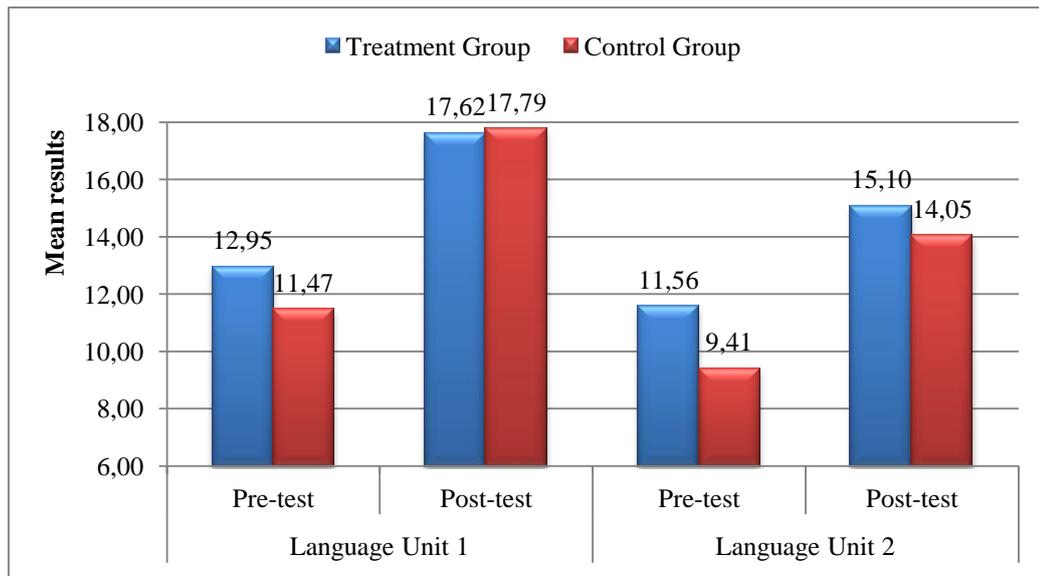


Figure 8. Group mean totals (per group, per unit)

Concerning the pre-test, mean totals for the treatment group are higher than mean totals for the control groups (1.48 points higher for unit 1 and 2.15 for unit 2). As shown below, this difference is not statistically relevant for unit 1 as the criterion followed is to reject all differences equal or below 0.05 [$F(1, 85) = 2.48, p = 0.119$]. Therefore, it can be said that the initial level of all groups is statistically similar enough for unit 1 to make the comparison possible¹⁹. However, this is not the case for unit 2, where the difference in the mean totals is statistically relevant and the initial level is higher for the treatment group [$F(1, 87) = 4.5, p = 0.030$]. It is important to keep this in mind when analysing the results in the post-test.

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Mean results (pre-test unit 1)	Between groups	35.022	1	35.022	2.474	.119
	Within groups	1203.392	85	14.158		
	Total	1238.414	86			

¹⁹ Anova test to compare mean totals, assuming normal distribution.

Mean results (pre-test unit 2)	Between groups	79.292	1	79.292	4.866	.030
	Within groups	1417.607	87	16.294		
	Total	1496.899	88			

Figure 9. Anova results for pre-test.

A t-test was then used to determine whether the difference in mean results between the treatment group and the control groups in the pre-test and in the post-test could be considered meaningful. As regards the difference in the post-test (treatment group versus control groups), the statistical analysis shows that all groups have improved. Despite the initial difference in favour of the treatment group for unit 2, the difference in improvement is not statistically relevant in either of the two units (unit 1, $F(1, 85) = 1.6$, $p = 0.208$; unit 2, $F(1, 92) = 2.1$, $p = 0.150$). Thus, there are no significant differences in learning when comparing the treatment group with the control groups, as shown below:

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Mean results (post-test unit 1)	Between groups	.454	1	.454	1.609	.208
	Within groups	23.983	85	.282		
	Total	24.437	86			
Mean results (post-test unit 2)	Between groups	18.821	1	18.821	2.107	.150
	Within groups	821.605	92	8.930		
	Total	840.426	93			

Figure 10. Anova results for post-test.

In conclusion, overall test results do not seem to corroborate hypotheses 1 and 2 above (namely, The use of PBCS will favour oral comprehension in English, and The use of PBCS will favour English vocabulary acquisition and production). Even though the learning process was successful for all the children involved, those in the treatment group did not reach statistically relevant higher levels than the children in the control groups regarding these two aspects.

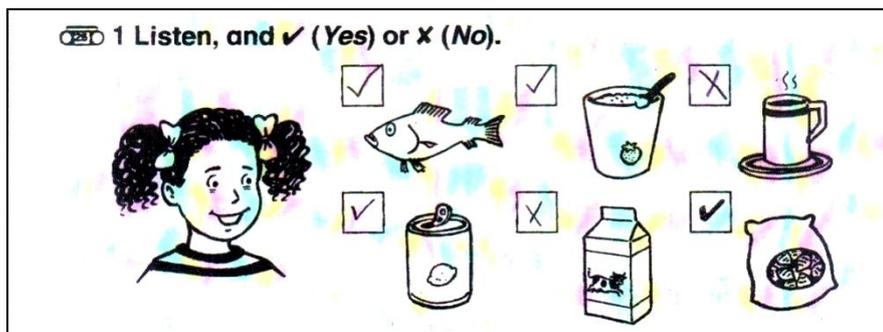
After addressing overall test results, it is necessary to look at the results obtained by the children in each of the three activities they were asked to carry out in each test, as each one of the activities focused on a different language skill.

3.4.1.1. Language test for unit 1: 'I'm hungry'

The first exercise in this test was a listening and discriminating activity; the second activity tested written vocabulary recognition and matching; and the third was a writing activity. Therefore, the first exercise can shed light on hypothesis 1:

1. The use of the PBCS will favour listening comprehension in English

Regarding exercise 1, namely:



The analysis of the results indicates that the initial differences between treatment and control groups are not relevant, nor are the differences for each one of the four groups involved. Regarding the post-test, all groups improve considerably and the mean results for all of them are practically the highest they could get, so it can be stated that the contents were well acquired by all.

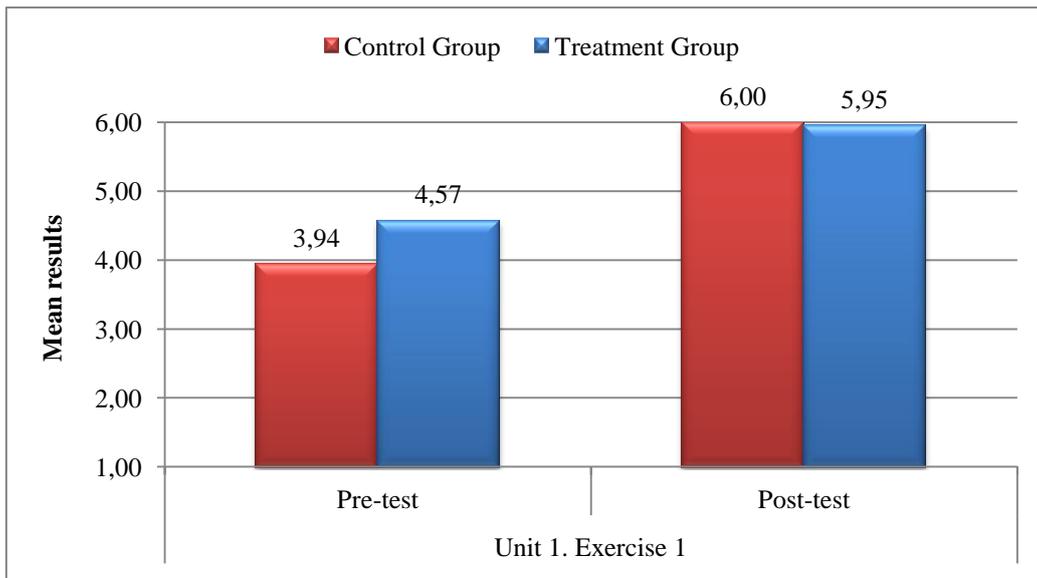


Figure 11. Results for exercise 1, unit 1 (control group and treatment group)

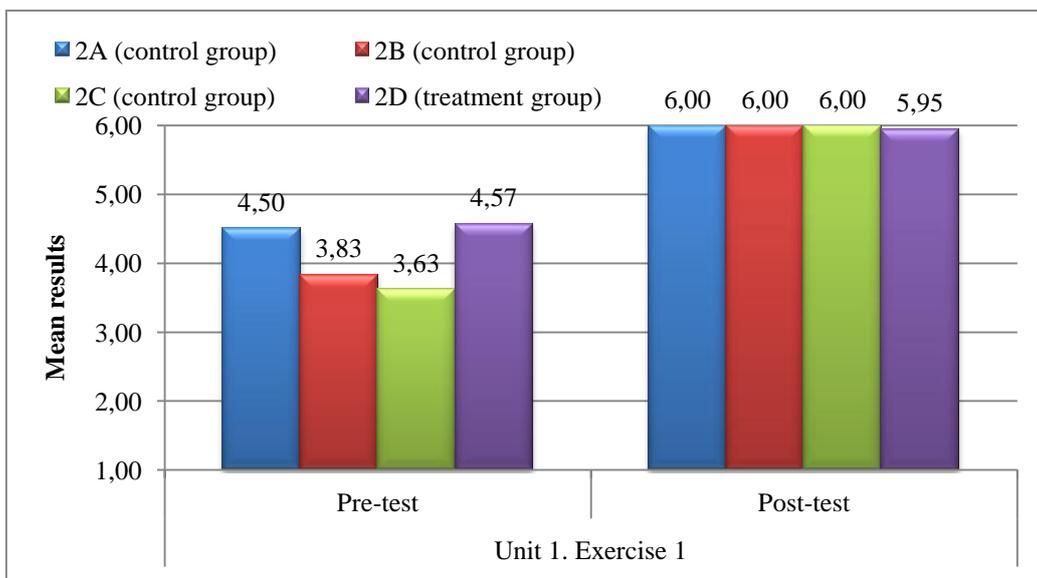


Figure 12. Results for exercise 1, unit 1 (per class)²⁰

Therefore, it can be said that the results do not corroborate hypothesis 1 (The use of the PBCS will favour listening comprehension in English) in the sense that all groups involved (treatment and control groups) improve their oral comprehension and obtain very similar results in their post-tests. It is important to note that the group given the treatment does not learn less than the others, either. That is, the use of PBCS does not seem to especially favour oral comprehension but it is not detrimental. Furthermore,

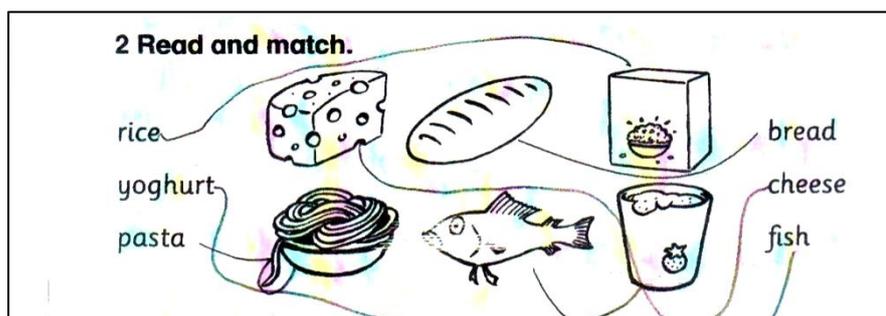
²⁰ As the children were in their second year of Primary Education, the groups respond to the labels 2A, 2B, 2C (control groups) and 2D (treatment group).

other positive outcomes were observed regarding the development of language awareness and which are addressed in section 3.2.2.: socio-affective and metacognitive aspects.

The second and the third exercises in the test can shed light on hypothesis 2:

2. The use of the PBCS will favour English vocabulary acquisition and production.

Exercise 2, namely:



The analysis of the results for exercise 2 indicates that the initial differences between treatment and control groups are not relevant, nor are the differences for each one of the four groups involved. The mean results for exercise 2 are similar to those obtained in exercise 1, and slightly higher than those obtained in exercise 3. Regarding the post-test, all groups improve considerably and the mean results for all of them are practically the highest they could get, so it can be stated that the contents were well acquired by all.

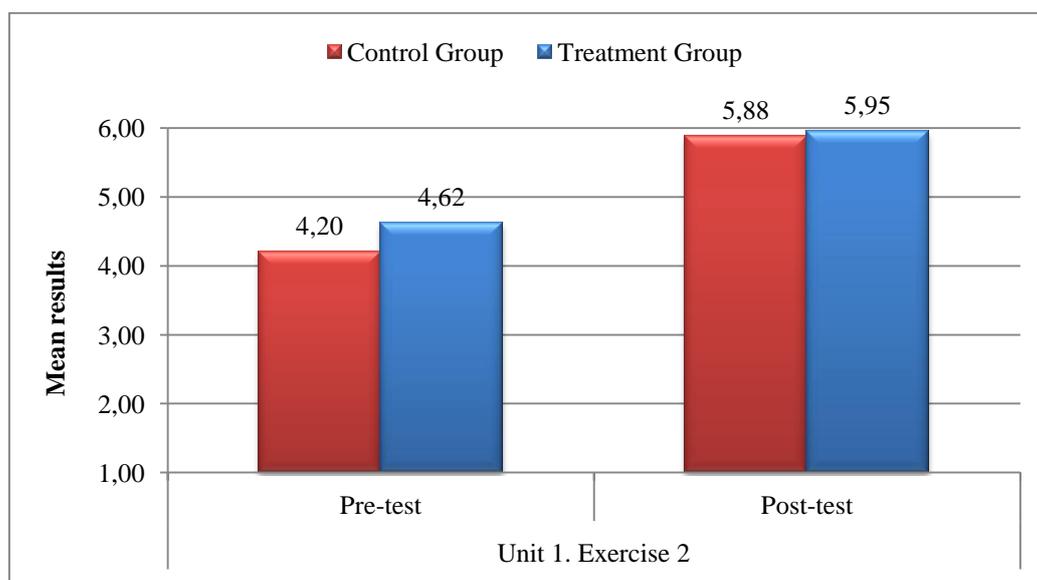


Figure 13. Results for exercise 2, unit 1 (control group and treatment group)

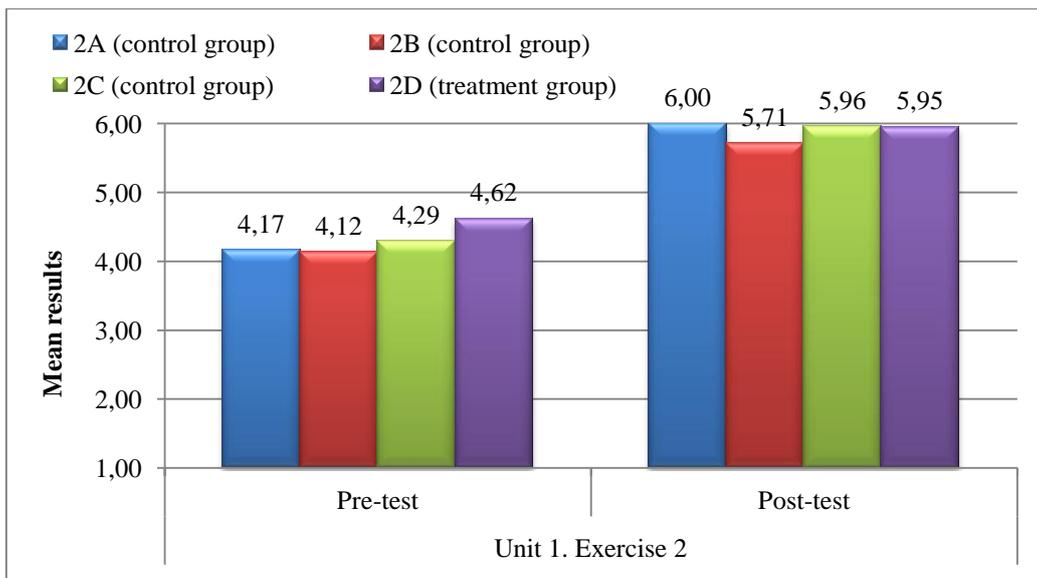
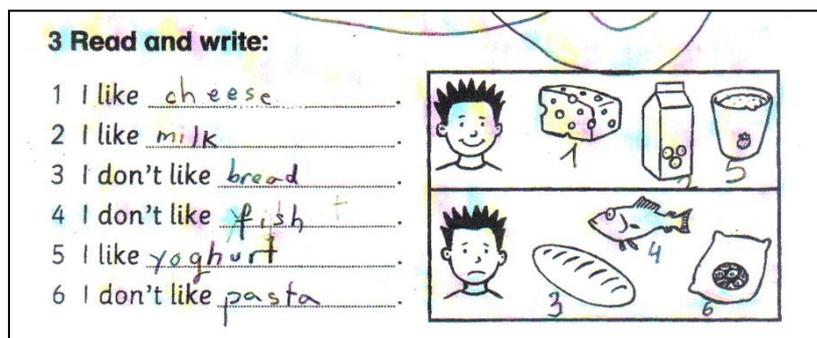


Figure 14. Results for exercise 2, unit 1 (per class)

Exercise 3, namely:



The analysis of the results for exercise 3 indicates that the initial differences between treatment and control groups are not relevant, nor are relevant the differences for each one of the four groups involved. The mean results for exercise 3 are lower than those obtained for the other two.

Regarding the post-test, all groups improve considerably and the mean results obtained by the treatment group are slightly lower than those obtained by the control groups, even though this difference cannot be considered statistically relevant.

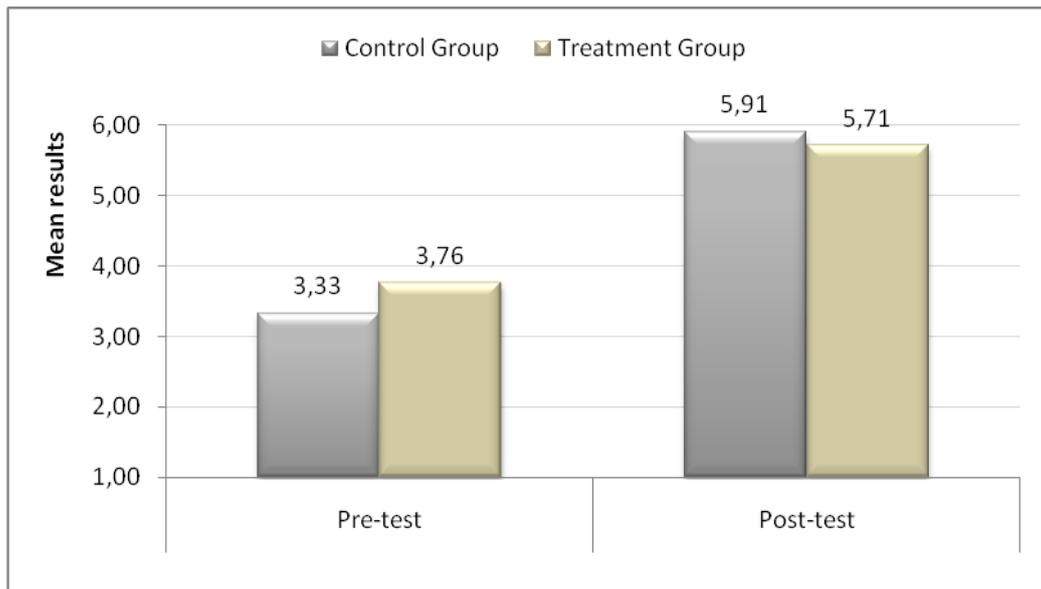


Figure 15. Results for exercise 3, unit 1 (control group and treatment group)

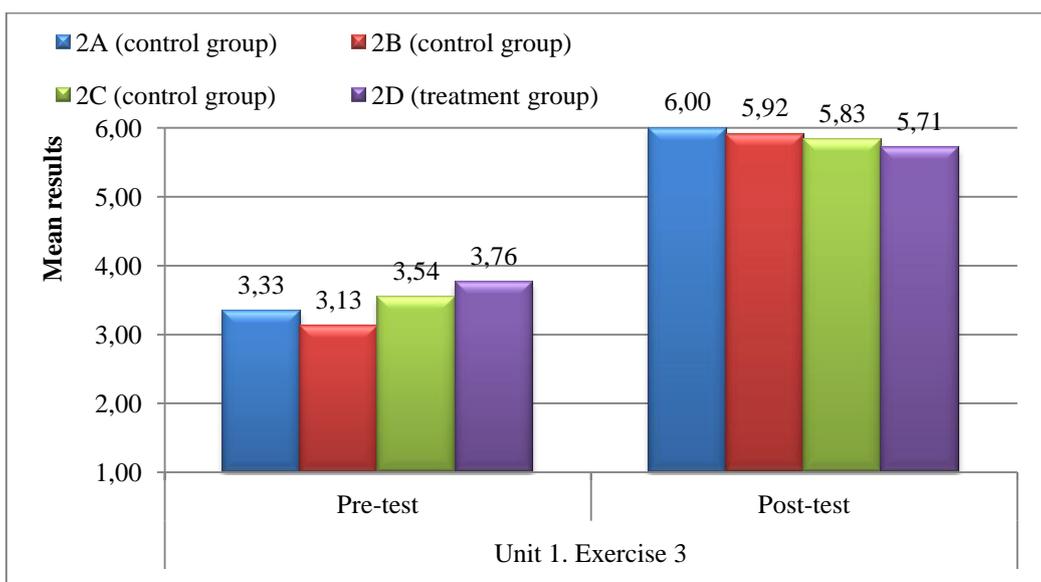


Figure 16. Results for exercise 3, unit 1 (per class)

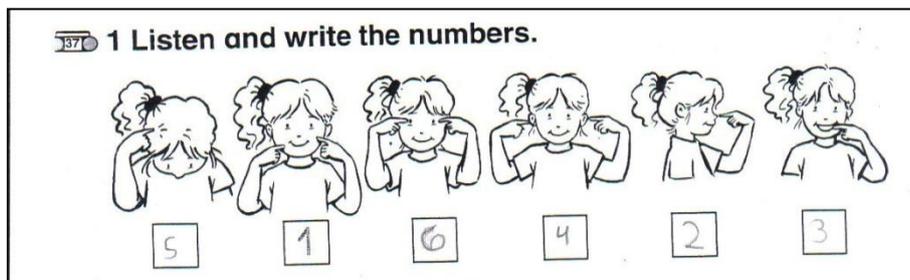
Therefore, it can be said that the results do not corroborate hypothesis 2 (The use of PBCS will favour English vocabulary acquisition and production) in the sense that all groups involved (treatment and control groups) improve their English vocabulary acquisition and production. It is important to note that although the group given the treatment obtains slightly lower marks in exercise three, the difference is not statistically relevant. In this sense, it can be said that all groups have acquired the contents reasonably well.

3.4.1.2. Language test for unit 2: 'Happy faces!'

In this test, the first exercise was a listening and discriminating activity; the second activity tested understanding of a short text including the key vocabulary; and the third was a fill-in-the-blanks activity. Therefore, the first exercise can shed light on hypothesis 1:

1. The use of PBCS will favour listening comprehension in English

Exercise 1, namely:



The analysis of the results indicates that the initial differences between treatment and control groups are not relevant. When compared with the other two exercises in this test, the results for exercise 1 are significantly higher.

Regarding the post-test, all groups improve considerably: the treatment group improves, albeit not significantly, and the control groups improve significantly. The mean results for all of them are practically the highest they could get, so it can be stated that the contents were well acquired by all.

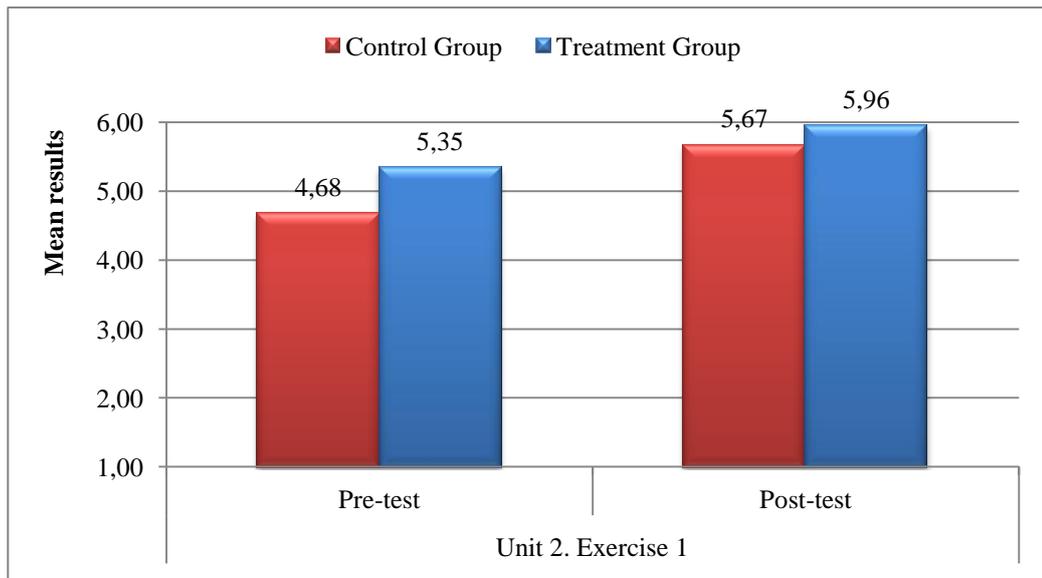


Figure 17. Results for exercise 1, unit 2 (control group and treatment group)

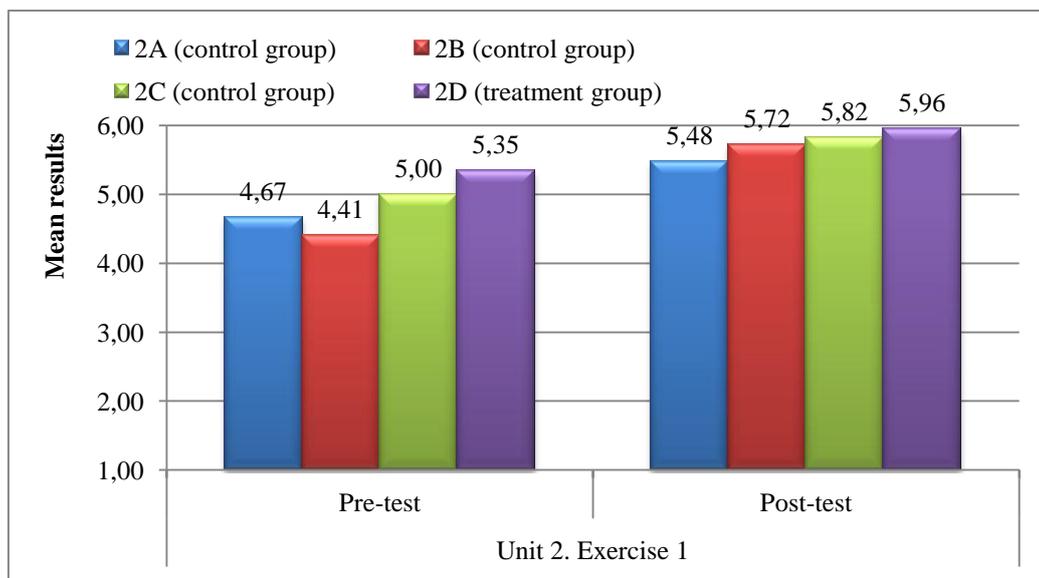


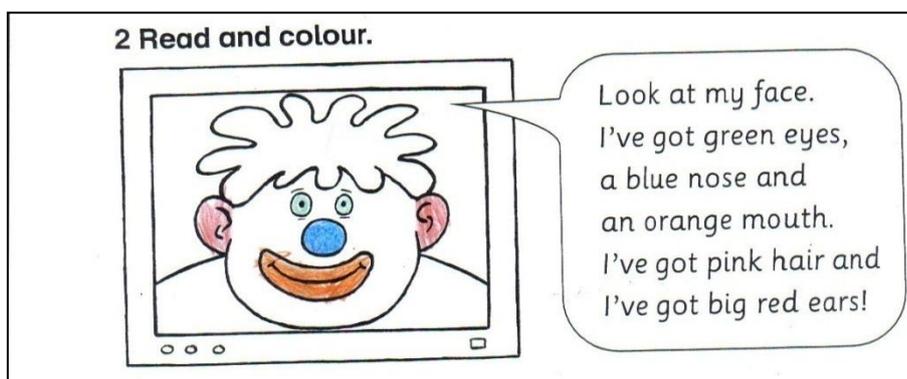
Figure 18. Results for exercise 1, unit 2 (per class)

Therefore, it can be said that the results do not corroborate hypothesis 1 (The use of PBCS will favour listening comprehension in English) in the sense that all groups involved (treatment and control groups) improve their oral comprehension. It is important to note that the group given the treatment does not learn less than the others, either.

The second and the third exercises in the test can shed light on hypothesis 2:

2. The use of the PBCS will favour English vocabulary acquisition and production.

Exercise 2, namely:



The analysis of the results for exercise 2 indicates that the initial differences between treatment and control groups are close to being statistically relevant: the treatment group obtains higher marks. The mean results for exercise 2 are lower to those obtained in exercises 1 and 3.

Regarding the post-test, all groups improve considerably, especially so the control groups (which begin with a lower mean mark), and the final mean mark is similar for both the treatment and the control groups. The mean marks for exercise 2 are quite low, so it can be stated that the contents were not completely acquired by any of the groups.

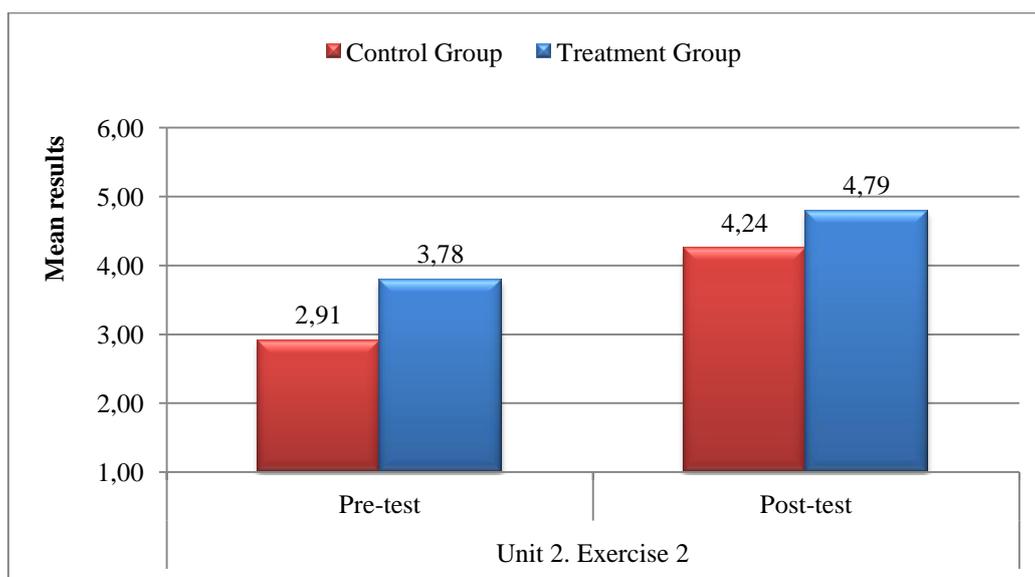


Figure 19. Results for exercise 2, unit 2 (control group and treatment group)

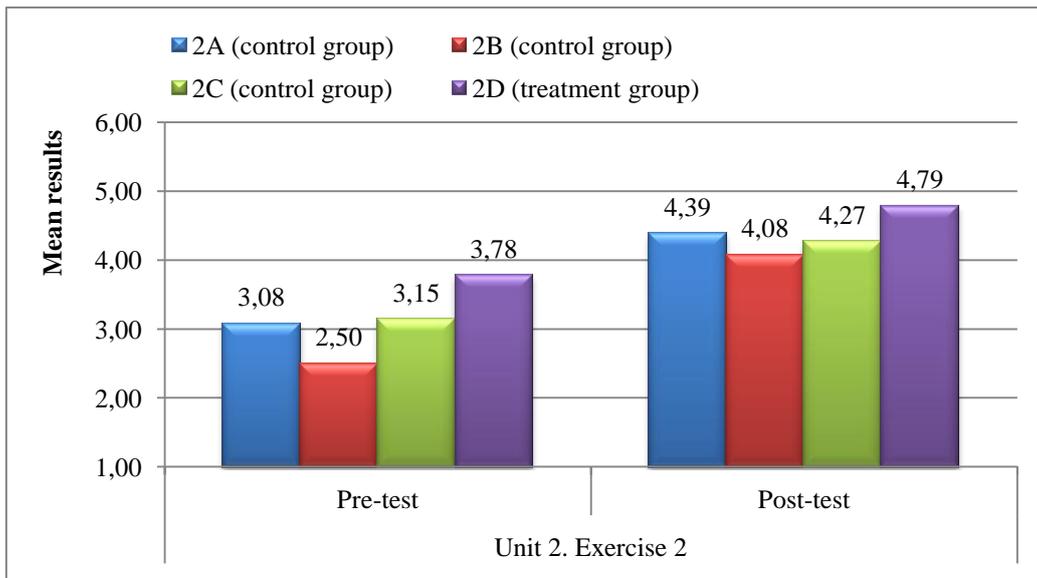
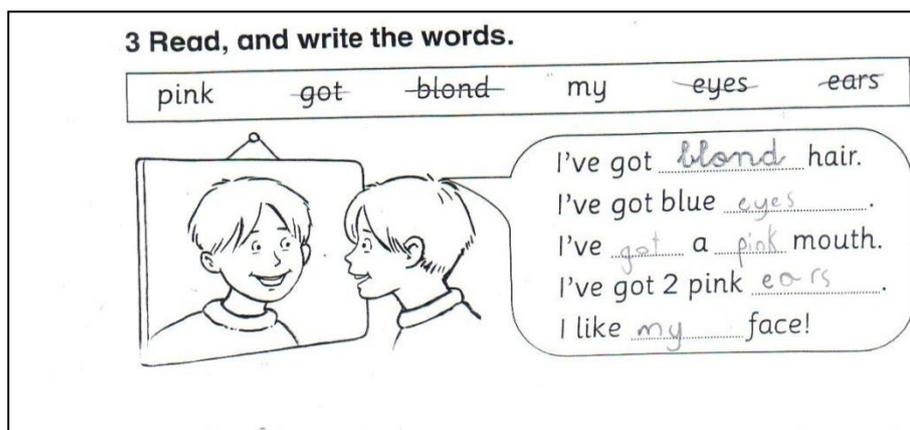


Figure 20. Results for exercise 2, unit 2 (per class)

Regarding exercise 3, namely:



The analysis of the results for exercise 3 indicates that the initial differences between treatment and control groups are not relevant, nor are relevant the differences for each one of the four groups involved. The mean results for exercise 3 are lower than those obtained for the other two.

Regarding the post-test, all groups improve considerably and the mean results obtained by the treatment group are higher than those obtained by the control groups, even though this difference cannot be considered statistically relevant.

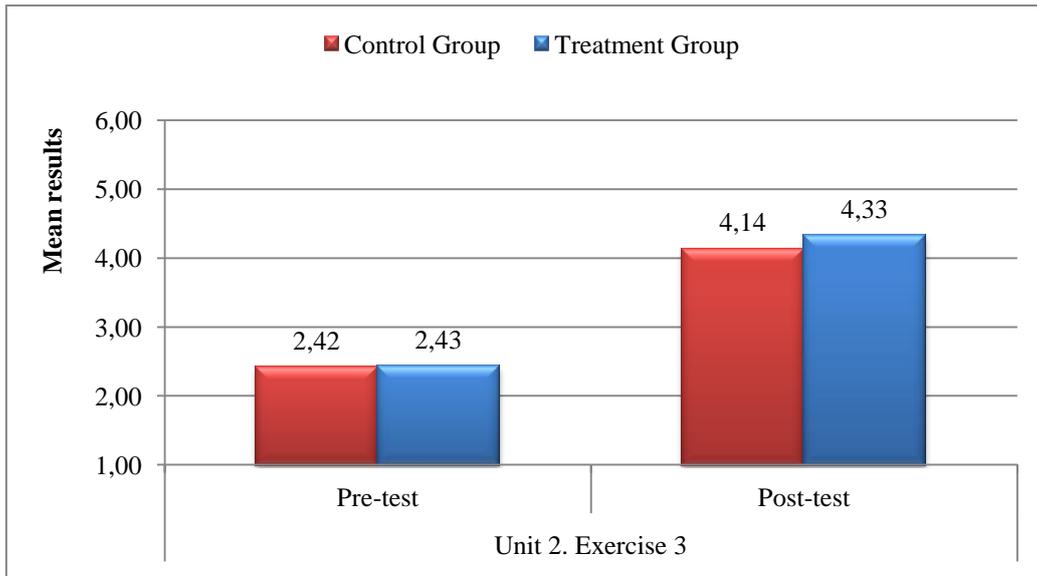


Figure 21. Results for exercise 3, unit 2 (control group and treatment group)

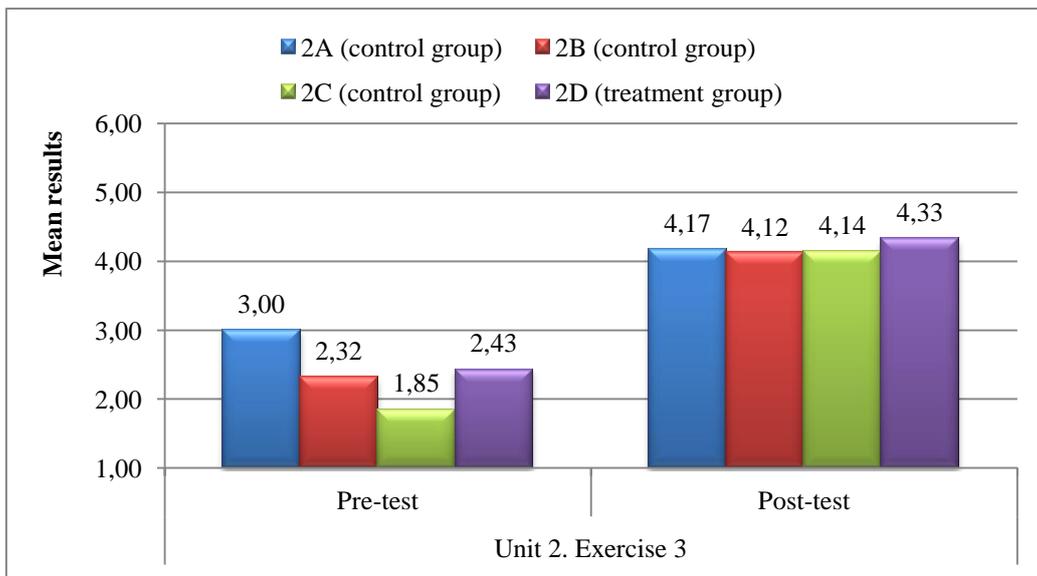


Figure 22. Results for exercise 3, unit 2 (per class)

Therefore, it can be said that the results do not corroborate hypothesis 2 (The use of PBCS will favour English vocabulary acquisition and production) in the sense that all groups involved (treatment and control groups) improve their English vocabulary acquisition and production. It is important to note that although the group given the treatment obtains slightly higher marks in exercise three, the difference is not statistically relevant.

3.4.1.3. Data triangulation: test results and other variables

Information was gathered about the participants concerning three main variables: 1) the language/s used at home; 2) the children's alleged favourite subject; and 3) the extracurricular activities they took (see the details in section 4.2.1. above). These variables were analysed together with the test results to see whether they could have any influence on the final outcome.

Regarding languages used at home, 87 were considered valid cases for study (64 children use Catalan at home; 23 use both Catalan and Spanish at home). The remaining 13 cases would include using only Spanish (4 cases), using other languages (2 cases) or having insufficient information (7 cases). Regarding this variable in connection with the two tests, the analysis shows that the results do not seem to be significantly influenced by the language/s used at home.

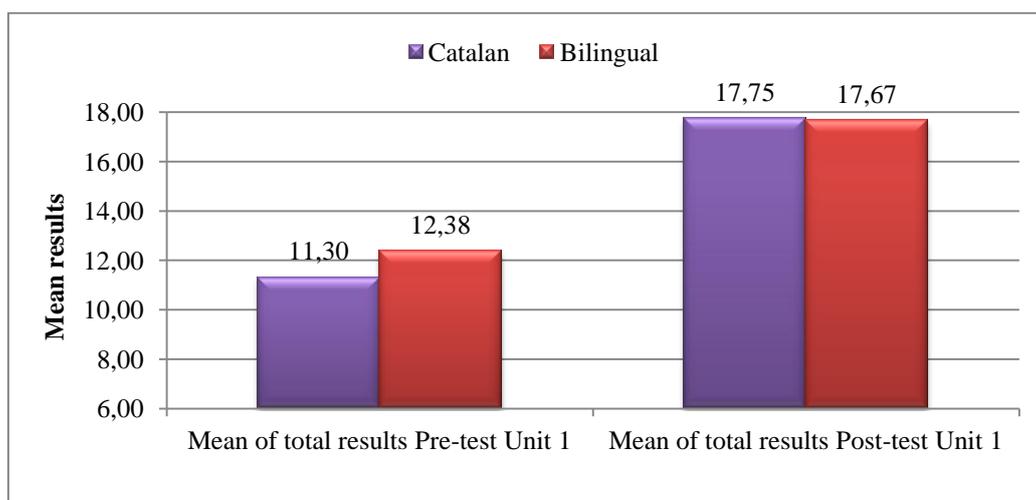


Figure 23. Language/s used at home and mean results for unit 1 (pre and post-test)

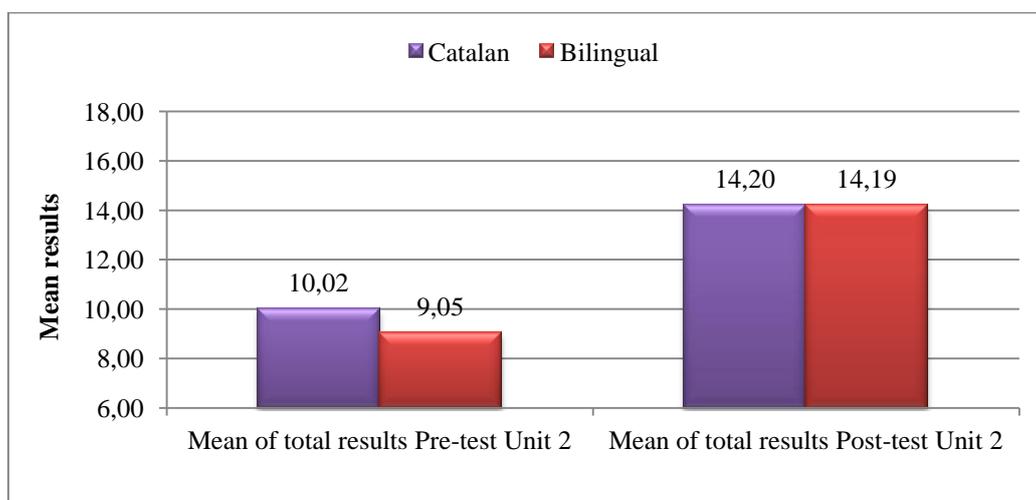


Figure 24. Language/s used at home and mean results for unit 2 (pre and post-test)

At this point, however, it is interesting to note how the percentage of bilingual homes in the treatment group is significantly higher than in the control groups (45.5% and 22.1%, respectively). This is a variable that was not taken into account initially as the treatment group was chosen for purely practical reasons. However, once this has been found, it has become an aspect that should be researched further as it could be potentially influential on the process of development of language awareness.

Regarding children's alleged favourite subject, 85 were considered valid cases for study (33 children said their favourite subject was English or English and some other; 52 said their favourite subject was something other than English). The remaining being cases with insufficient information. Regarding this variable in connection with the two tests, the analysis shows that the results do not seem to be significantly influenced by the children's favourite subject.

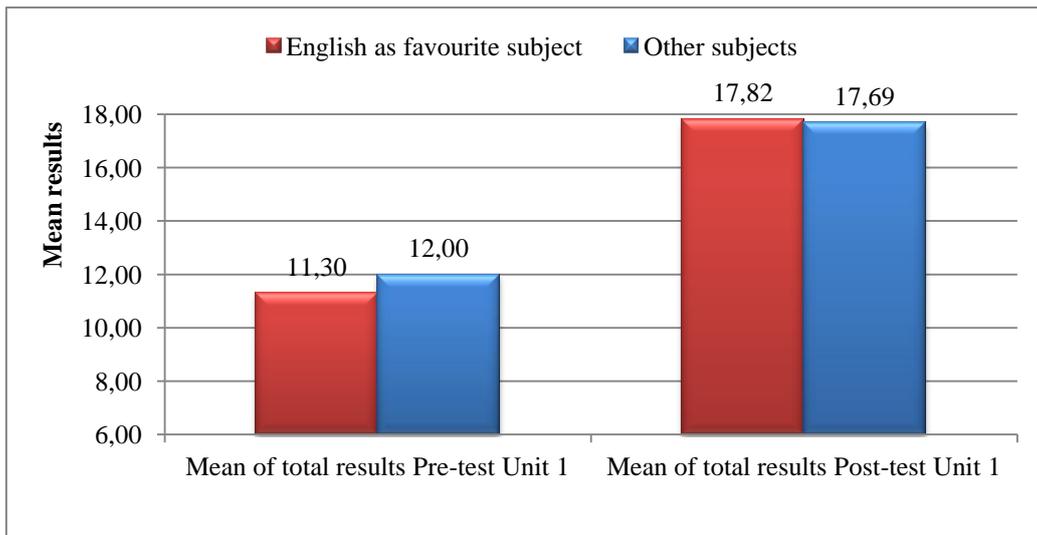


Figure 25. Favourite subject and mean results for unit 1 (pre and post-test)

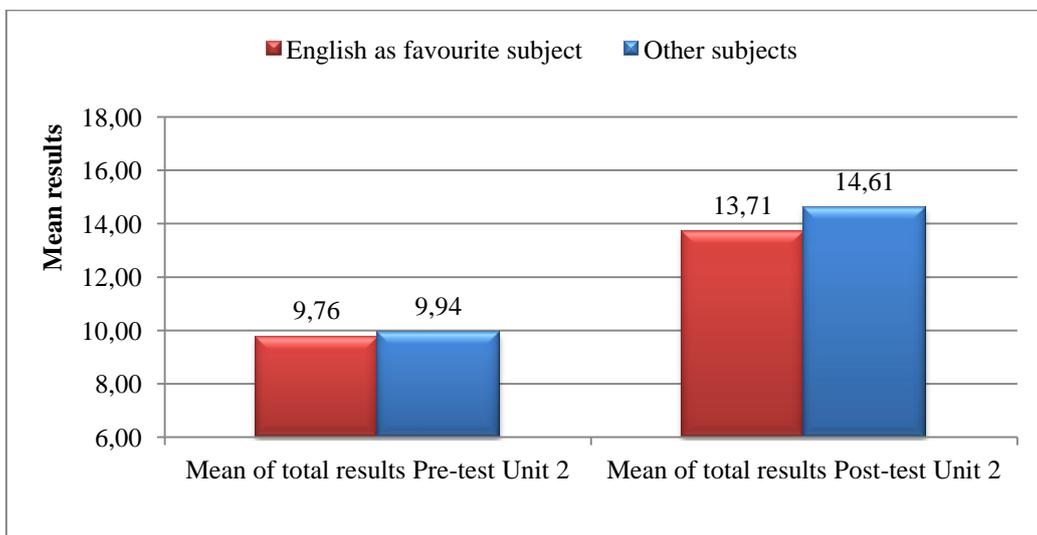


Figure 26. Favourite subject and mean results for unit 2 (pre and post-test)

Regarding children’s extracurricular activity/ies, 87 were considered valid cases for study (16 children said they studied English or English and some other; 17 said they studied something other than English; and 54 reported to do none). The remaining being cases with insufficient information. Regarding this variable in connection with the two tests, the analysis shows that the results are significantly affected by the extracurricular activity done by the children: those who take English, or English and something else, begin with a statistically relevant higher level in each of the units. However, the results in the post-test do not show this significant difference as regards the test for unit 1 (where most children reach the highest possible mark) and they do show this significant difference as regards the test for unit 2 (where all the children have

improved, but those doing English as an extracurricular activity clearly more so). A likely explanation for this difference may be related to the fact that test for unit 2 requires the children, on the one hand, to remember and understand some vocabulary that had not been explicitly taught in the unit (i.e. colours) and, on the other, to understand a short text and find the words to fill in the blanks. It is understandable that children who have more exposure to English and, therefore, who have had the chance to develop further these abilities, obtain better results in this exercise.

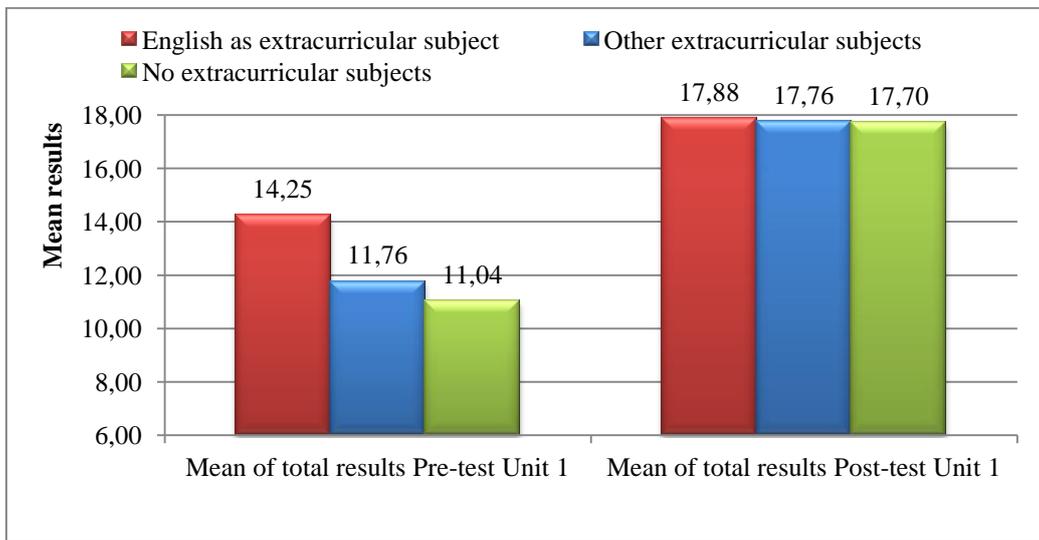


Figure 27. Extracurricular subject and mean results for unit 1 (pre and post-test)

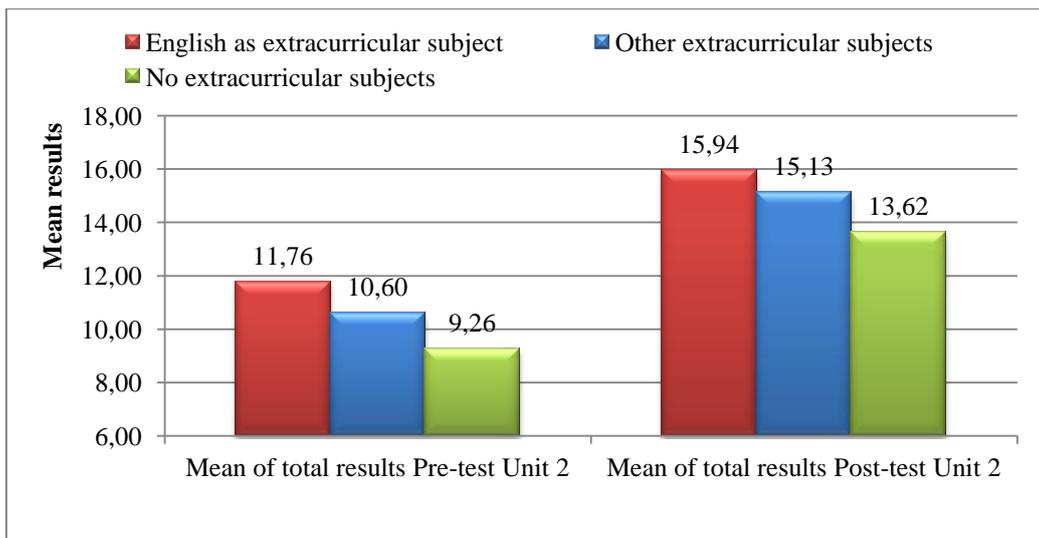


Figure 28. Extracurricular subject and mean results for unit 2 (pre and post-test)

In conclusion, whereas the variables language/s used at home and favourite subject do not seem to have an impact on the learning process, taking English as an extracurricular subject seems quite expectedly to do so. However, it is important to note that the number of children taking English as an extracurricular subject is balanced among all the groups so the differences among the groups cannot be related to the number of children taking English outside the school.

3.4.2. Socio-affective and metacognitive aspects

Socio-affective and metacognitive aspects are included in the answers to the research questions that were at the basis of the research, namely:

3. Will the use of PBCS favour students' motivation for learning?
4. Will the use of PBCS favour classroom atmosphere?

The qualitative data obtained to answers these questions from different sources:

1. The activity surveys children in the treatment group answered at the end of the plurilingual lessons,
2. The analysis of the transcriptions of the group interviews carried out with children in the treatment group after each plurilingual lesson,
3. The motivation survey the children in the treatment and control groups answered both at the beginning and at the end of the term,
4. Statements made by the students and observations made by the teacher recorded in the teacher's diary, and
5. Observations and analysis of children's work in worksheets and classroom activities.

3.4.2.1. Activity surveys

The analysis of the children's answers to the questions in the activity surveys showed that the answers can shed light on two different aspects: first, children's level of

motivation; and, second, an unexpected outcome related to children’s development of *language awareness*. These are analysed through their answers to the following questions in the survey:

Motivation	<p>Did you like the activity? Why?</p> <p>What did you like the most?</p> <p>What did you like the least?</p> <p>Would you like to do it again?</p> <p>Would you do anything different?</p>
Language awareness	<p>What did you learn?</p> <p>Did anything surprise you?</p>

Table 7. Motivation and language awareness in the motivation surveys.

Furthermore, when analysing the reasons why they enjoyed the activity, the aspects that are mentioned in their answers can be categorized as follows:

- group or pair work,
- learning and practising English,
- learning (in general),
- use of languages,
- element of fun.

Similarly, the reasons they mention when answering what they liked the most or the least are related to the following:

- (not) being called to the board to do the activity in front of the classmates,
- use of languages,
- use of a worksheet,
- element of fun,
- learning English.

Next, detailed data regarding children’s answers to each one of the activity surveys is presented.

All the answers given by the children both in the treatment and the control groups to the questions in the Activity Survey are collected in Excel tables in Appendix 11.

3.4.2.1.1. Motivation as perceived in the activity surveys

Activity survey 1: grid and colour cards game

Questions	Yes	No	Other answers
Did you like the activity?	21	2	-
Would you like to do it again?	17	5	1 (don't mind)
Would you do anything different?	3	19	

Table 8. Activity survey 1

When looking at the answers to the question “Why did you like the activity?” the children’s reasons are distributed as follows:

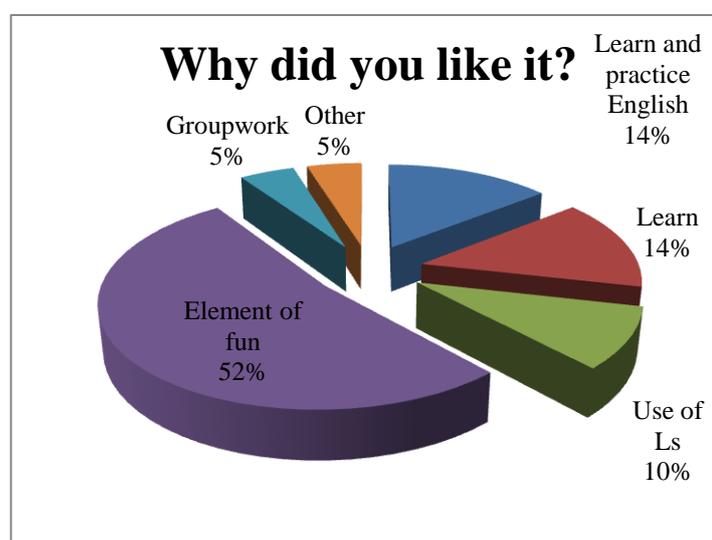


Figure 29. Why did you like it? (activity survey 1)

When asked what they liked the most and the least, the answers are related to:

Question	Answers			
	Element of fun	Use of Ls	Learn English	Other
What did you like the most?	2	5	4	12

Table 9. Activity survey 1: What did you like the most?

Question	Answers			
	Use of Ls	Not participating	Worksheet	Other
What did you like the least?	3	3	4	13

Table 10. Activity survey 1: What did you like the least?

Finally, when asked whether they would do anything different, one of the affirmative answers is related to doing it all in only one language.

Activity survey 2: survey

Questions	Yes	No	Other answers
Did you like the activity?	23	1	1
Would you like to do it again?	24	1	-
Would you do anything different?	1	24	

Table 11. Activity survey 2

When looking at the answers to the question “Why did you like the activity?”, their reasons are distributed as follows:

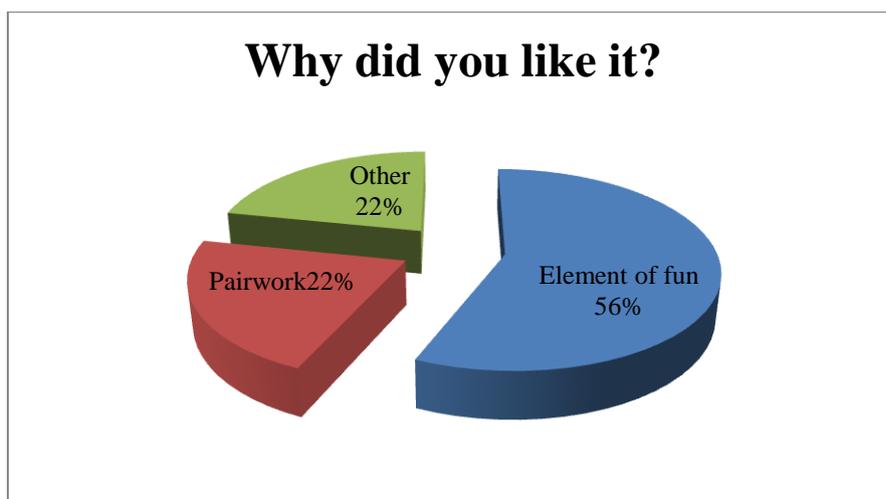


Figure 30. Why did you like it? (activity survey 2)

When asked what they liked the most and the least, the answers are:

Question	Answers		
	Interview	Element of fun	Other
What did you like the most?	22	1	1

Table 12. Activity survey 2: What did you like the most?

Question	Answers			
	Use of Ls	Not being called to the board	Worksheet	Other
What did you like the least?	1	2	9	13

Table 13. Activity survey 2: What did you like the least?

Activity survey 3: chant

Questions	Yes	No	Other answers
Did you like the activity?	21	1	3
Would you like to do it again?	22	2	1
Would you do anything different?	2	21	1 (don't know)

Table 14. Activity survey 3

When looking at the answers to the question “Why did you like the activity?”, they are distributed as follows:

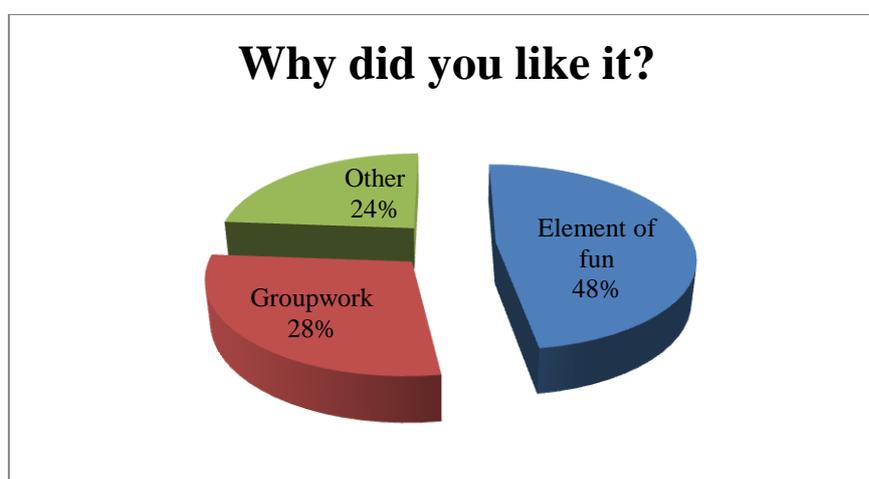


Figure 31. Why did you like it? (activity survey 3)

When asked what they liked the most and the least, the answers are:

Question	Answers		
	Singing	Group work	Other
What did you like the most?	15	2	8

Table 15. Activity survey 3: What did you like the most?

Question	Answers		
	Use of Ls	Like everything	Other
What did you like the least?	1	16	8

Table 16. Activity survey 3: What did you like the least?

When analysing the answers to “would you do anything different?”, one of the two affirmative answers is related to writing down all the vocabulary only in English instead of doing it in the three languages.

Activity survey 4: menu

Questions	Yes	No	Other answers
Did you like the activity?	21	2	1
Would you like to do it again?	21	3	-
Would you do anything different?	3	21	

Table 17. Activity survey 4

When looking at the answers to the question “Why did you like the activity?”, they are distributed as follows:

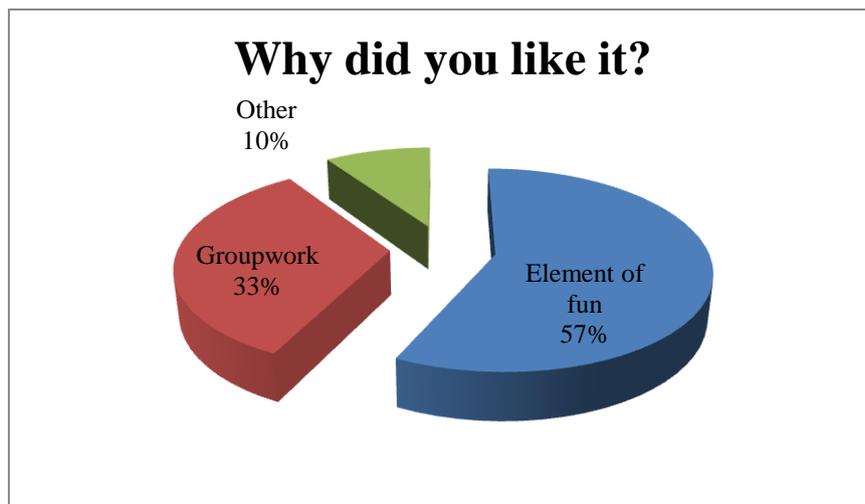


Figure 32. Why did you like it? (activity survey 4)

When asked what they liked the most and the least, the answers are:

Question	Answers			
	Group work	Doing the menu	Restaurant	Other
What did you like the most?	4	11	2	7

Table 18. Activity survey 4: What did you like the most?

Question	Answers		
	Liked everything	Worksheet	Other
What did you like the least?	19	1	4

Table 19. Activity survey 4: What did you like the least?

Activity survey 5: trilingual word search

Questions	Yes	No	Other answers
Did you like the activity?	21	-	-
Would you like to do it again?	19	1	1
Would you do anything different?	2	19	

Table 20. Activity survey 5

When looking at the answers to the question “Why did you like the activity?”, they are distributed as follows:

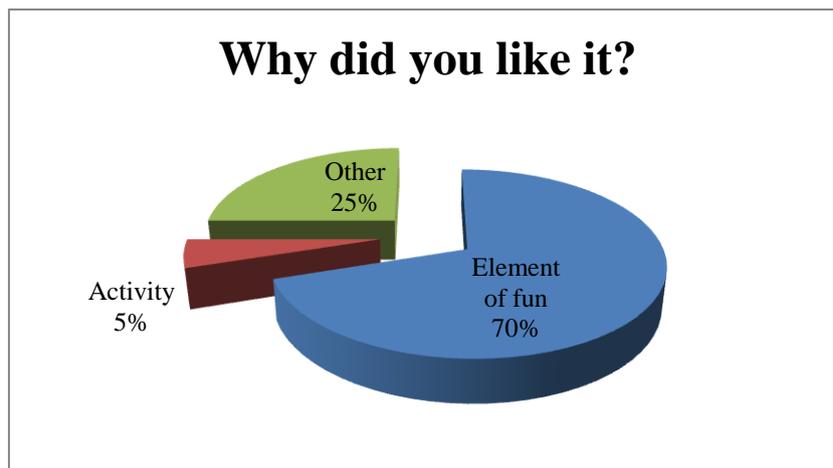


Figure 33. Why did you like it? (activity survey 5)

When asked what they liked the most and the least, the answers are:

Question	Answers			
	Everything	Activity	Using the board	Other
What did you like the most?	5	10	3	3 ²¹

Table 21. Activity survey 5: What did you like the most?

Question	Answers	
	Liked everything	Other
What did you like the least?	17	4

Table 22. Activity survey 5: What did you like the least?

Activity survey 6: trilingual chants

Questions	Yes	No	Other answers
Did you like the activity?	25	-	-
Would you like to do it again?	20	3	2
Would you do anything different?	3	22	

Table 23. Activity survey 6

²¹ Two of the answers here are worth highlighting because they may be related to other relevant issues, such as enjoying collaborative tasks and cognitive difficulties: “Compartir-la” (sharing it), “buscar paraules perquè era una mica difícil” (looking for words because it was a little bit difficult).

When looking at the answers to the question “Why did you like the activity?”, they are distributed as follows:

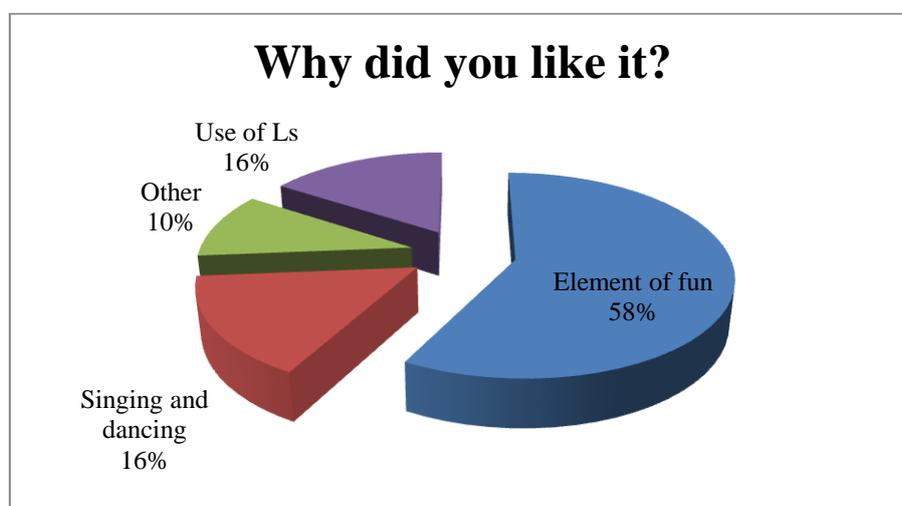


Figure 34. Why did you like it? (activity survey 6)

When asked what they liked the most and the least, the answers are:

Question	Answers		
	Everything	Singing and dancing	Other
What did you like the most?	7	13	5

Table 24. Activity survey 6: What did you like the most?

Question	Answers	
	Liked everything	Other
What did you like the least?	18	7 ²²

Table 25. Activity survey 6: What did you like the least?

As shown in the tables above, when asked whether they liked the activities, most of the answers were very positive in all cases, and the reasons mentioned by the children are mostly connected to the idea of having fun, working in pairs or in groups, and also learning. Regarding the use of different languages, it is not mentioned by the children on many occasions and, when it is, it is mostly seen as a positive aspect. All in all, it seems that bringing other languages into the lesson is well accepted, even enjoyed, by most of the children, although, at the same time, they do not seem to make a big issue

²² One of these answers is “singing in Catalan and Spanish and English”.

out of it. In conclusion, and based on these answers, the use of PBCS may be viewed as a motivational aspect that children take as a natural element in their learning process.

The list below summarises the aspects that have repeatedly mentioned by the students and which have been considered relevant in terms of learning motivation:

- collaboration: pair work, group work
- learning: learning in general, learning and practising English
- element of fun
- use of languages
- specific activities: interview, singing, dancing, doing the menu, using the board

3.4.2.1.2. Language Awareness as perceived in the activity surveys

Comments including relevant ideas regarding the development of language awareness in the treatment group can be made after analysing the children’s answers to the questions “What did you learn?” and “Did anything surprise you?”.

What did you learn?	Answers				
	English	Other Ls	L (not specified)	Nothing	Other
Survey 1	9	1 ²³	5	4	4 ²⁴
Survey 2	3	-	2	10	10
Survey 3	1	1	3	9	10
Survey 4	5	-	2	11	6
Survey 5	6	-	2	5	10 ²⁵
Survey 6	6	2	3	3	12

Table 26. What did you learn?

²³ This answer is “l’anglès i el català junts” (English and Catalan together).

²⁴ Two answers are relevant here: “a fer memòria” (to memorize) and “he après a dir les coses més ràpid” (I’ve learnt to say things faster).

²⁵ One of these three answers is worth noting: “a treballar en equip” (to work in teams). It is relevant because the use of several languages in the classroom as has been done with PBCS implies collaborative work.

Did anything surprise you?	Answers	
	Yes	No
Survey 1	6	17
Survey 2	6	19
Survey 3	3	20
Survey 4	4	20
Survey 5	2	19
Survey 6	3	21

Table 27. Did anything surprise you?

When looking globally at the data collected in the six activity surveys and summarised in the figure below, the results are clear: despite the fact that other languages were brought into the classroom, most children felt that they were learning English (32% of the answers) compared to those that mentioned learning English or other languages (6%). This supports the statement that using PBCS in the classroom does not change the perceived role of English as *the* language being taught.

Another percentage that seems worth mentioning here is the 29% for “nothing”. I feel this answer can be attributed to the fact that these children have not been trained, have never been asked, to reflect upon their own learning processes so it is difficult for them to actually realise whether learning took place and what it consisted of. It must be taken into account that these children are 7 and 8 year-olds and, following Piaget’s developmental stages, they are just between the pre-operational and the concrete operational stages, where abstract thinking is not yet developed.

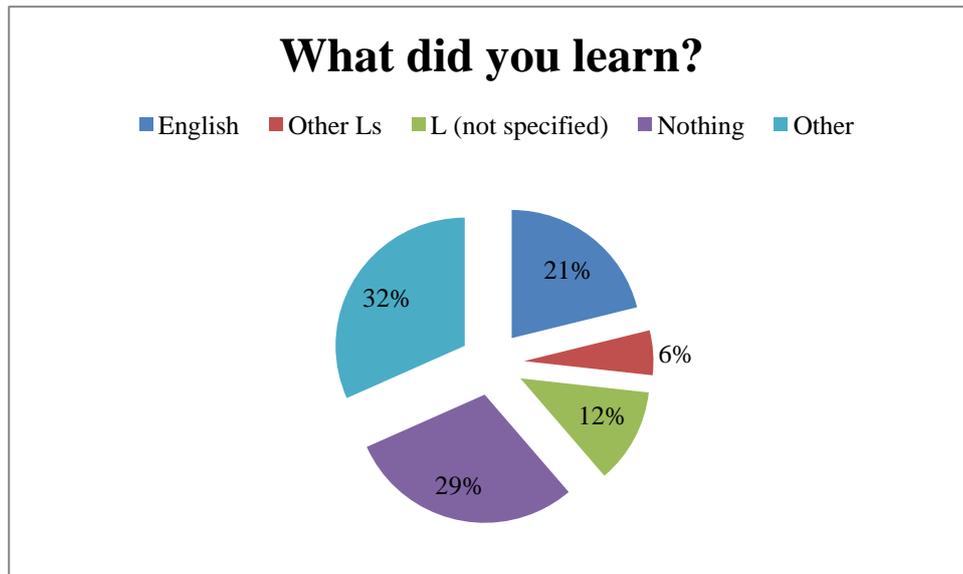


Figure 35. What did you learn?

Finally, regarding children’s answers to the question “Did anything surprise you?”, which was included to assess whether children realised or were puzzled by the fact of using several languages in their lessons, the vast majority of answers was negative (i.e. nothing surprised them) and only 3 in 24 affirmative answers (i.e. something surprised them) had to do with the multilingual nature of the activities, which tentatively confirms once again that this was experienced as a natural state of affairs.

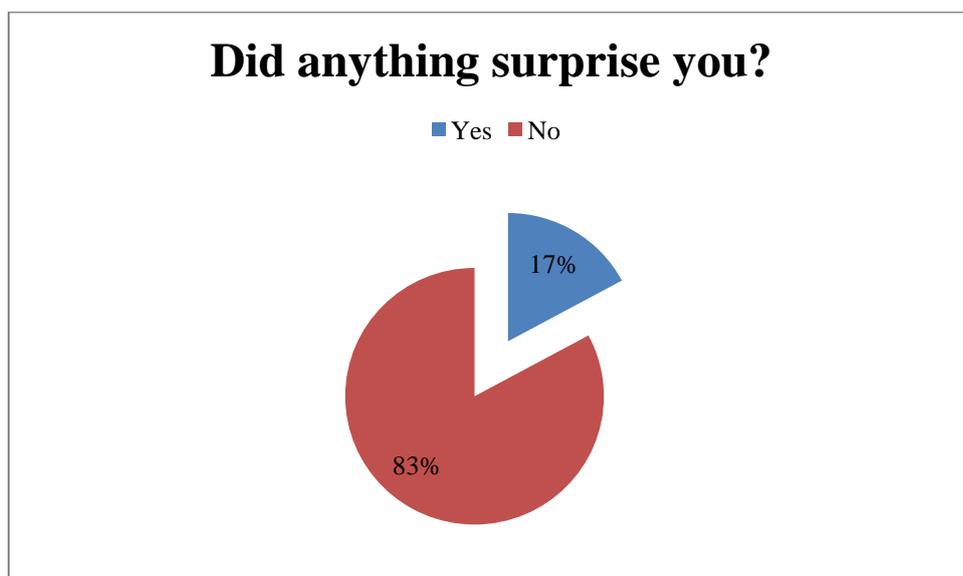


Figure 36. Did anything surprise you?

3.4.2.2. Recorded group interviews

Following Grounded Theory, each video-recording (taken as hermeneutic unit) was transcribed and categories and subcategories identified in the text. It is important to note that the transcription was done by the researcher, so the transcribing process provided for a first opportunity to focus on the text and to begin noticing key ideas. The results of putting together this first pre-analysis and categorisation resulted in identifying the relevant topics that the children talked about. On some occasions, these ideas were found in the answers to the teacher/researcher's questions, whilst at other times they were expressed by the children quite spontaneously and unexpectedly. In both cases, the fact that this happened was taken as a piece of evidence that creating an opportunity for students to share their opinions on a lesson that had been carried out shortly before could be revealing both for the teacher and the researcher.

Furthermore, this can also be taken as proof that young learners do have a lot to say about their own learning process and that allowing them to do so may enhance their general thinking skills and ability to communicate.

The following table shows how motivation and language awareness were analysed through the ideas developed by the children in the interviews:

Research topics	Children's topics
Motivation	Enjoyment of the activity Perception of increased cognitive difficulty Perception of learning (of English) taking place
Language awareness	Explicit or implicit reference to multilingual nature of activities Explicit comment of metalinguistic nature

Table 28. Motivation and language awareness in the group interviews

Their comments regarding their perception of increased cognitive difficulty in some activities and of their learning taking place are used as indicators of motivation because that is how it is generally expressed by the students, that is, in positive terms.

The transcriptions of the group interviews can be found in Appendix 9. What follows is the analysis of the relevant parts, which have been translated into English by the teacher/researcher.

Group interview 1

The teacher/researcher asked the children whether they had enjoyed the class and they responded very positively, although they could not really pinpoint why it was so:

- T²⁶: and what did you like the most, let's see
- AC: I/ liked the weather and when what we did with the colours with the \... (eating sandwich)
- T: with the cards?
- AC: yes
- AL: me/ too\
- T: and you, E?
- E: I liked/ the cards\, the most
- T: and you, A?
- AL: I, like AC, everything

And, when asked whether they would like to do something similar some other day:

- T: let's see, did anything surprise you? E/ no\, AC/ no, \ AL no and M says when you were video recorded. Would you like to do a similar activity [some other day?]
- Ss: yees!
- BL: [oh, sure!
- T: Why? And why?
- AC: we've loved it, {this activity}
- E: I've loved it
- T: why?
- BL: because I like to write/
- M: because it's cool
- AC: Yes, I've loved it

It is also important to note how, when asked what they learnt in that session, all the children say they learnt English or more English (no reference is made to the use of

²⁶ T stands for *teacher*, Ss for *students* and the students are referred to by their initials.

Catalan nor is any reference made to the idea that they may be learning less English if Catalan is introduced):

- T: What did you learn, A?
- AC: me too
- AL: ah yes
- T: let's see A
- AC: xxx
- T: now it's A's turn (making a hand signal to AC)
- AL: more English
- T: you learnt more English?\
- AL: xxx I don't know why because I already knew...
- T: and you, let's see
- E: to write, no, to write well, no, I learnt/ the names, the names of foods, well, of some foods, to write them well/ and put them and | say them well and I learnt them
- T: and you [AC
- AC: xxx
- T: the same as E. And you M, what did you learn? What do you think you learnt?
- M: well, English/
- AL: {like me }
- T: and you BL? What did you learn?
- BL: to say the names well | to say well the foods in English
- E: like me\
- AL: like E\

Comparing these answers in the recorded group interview with the written answer in the Activity survey is interesting. Whereas most children answered “nothing” in the individual Activity survey (which I link to their lack of experience in thinking about their own learning, that is, their lack of experience as self-reflective learners), their answer to this question in the group interviews is richer. This is probably due to two main reasons: on the one hand, they may feel more comfortable speaking about their own opinions than writing about them (as when dealing with opinions, we are dealing with subjectivity and this might be difficult to write about for children in this age-group) and, on the other, discussing in groups means that they help and learn from each other.

Moreover, despite the fact that they do not mention the presence of Catalan in the activities, when asked more specifically about it, they say that it was very good:

- T: but, listen, what we did today with taking the cards and one was in English and the other in Catalan, what do you think about that?
- AL: it was very good
- AC: I have enjoyed it a lot
- E: it was really cool
- T: why?
- Ss: xxx
- T: it was/ confusing?\ was it fun/ to get confused?\
- E: and it was also funny because... Catalan, Spanish, Catalan, no
- AC: Catalan and English, there was no Spanish
- E: xxx and well, English Catalan, Catalan English
- B: (hand up)
- BL: I xxx liked to learn “milk” because I have some stickers and the {cow} is called *milk* because it is in English

Group interview 2

When asked whether they had enjoyed the lesson, children’s answers were also very positive:

- T: well now you are here for a while with me because, even though you have already written some things, you can now tell me a bit more about what you thought of the class/ of today\ and what you liked/ and what you disliked\... but now we need to think a bit more...
- JU: ah, so we have the best day
- T: what did you say?
- JU: we have the best day
- T: why?
- B: [because she says that
- JU: because today was a lot of fun
- T: yes? What did you like the most?
- JU: ah, the survey
- T: the survey? And what we did before/, the games?\
- B: they were also fun
- JU: also

And later on, they made a more explicit reference to the games involving several languages:

- T: and the games we played before where we had to say in Catalan, in English [xxx did you like that?
- B: that was also fun
- Ss: yes

The conversation went on and the teacher wanted to find out whether they saw any connection between an activity being fun and being difficult. They also talked about different letters with similar sounds in Spanish:

- T: and why did you like that [the games with cards], is it difficult? Or is it easy?
- L: easy
- Ss: easy
- T: but...
- JU: but now it was more difficult because there was also Spanish and
- T: yes, the other day we only used English and Catalan, right?/
- B: and it was easier, quite a lot easier
- T: In Spanish it is more difficult,/ why?\
 - B: Well, I don't know
- JU: you have to say more things, you need to think
- T: you need to think more, right?
- L: hmm, because in Spanish you have Zs, and Cs
- T: It changes a bit... |

They make an interesting reflection regarding the learning process, where one student explicitly says that while learning English they are also learning Spanish and Catalan:

- T: And do you think this [the plurilingual activities] helps you learn more/ or not?\
 - B: yes
- JU: well yes
- T: why?
- JU: because while you learn English you also learn some Spanish and Catalan xxx
- T: and do you like this?
- B: and you remember xxx
- T: you remember what, what do you mean?
- B: the, the things, if you don't remember something of these foods at the end you remember
- T: ok, and do you think you are learning now or not?
- B: yes

- T: yes?
- B: yes

The conversation moves on to a discussion regarding the use of accents in Spanish, the fact that there are no accents in English, and a variety of comments regarding the nature of English:

- JU: xxx written accents then
- L: yes
- T: sure but this is in Catalan and Spanish, in English there are no written accents
- JU: ah
- B: yes, fortunately, fortunately there are no written accents because otherwise
- L: yes because in Catalan [xxx
- B: xxx
- T: Oh, yes? Weird why?
- B: I don't know
- T: do you think that the spelling is weird/ in English?
- L: yes
- T: why?
- L: because you never write how it sounds, sometimes you don't
- T: no, you write one way and [you say it differently, right?
- JU: for example 'happy' yes because it's very xxx (pointing at the word on the shelf)
- T: yes but for example it has two Ps
- JU: hmm
- T: of course, you don't say two Ps
- L: nor two As
- B: if it was one P, but it's two
- L: and two Fs and two Es, [xxx in Catalan we don't have two Fs
- JU: like 'coffee'
- Ss: no, right
- B: there are two Ss
- X: xxx
- L: right, two Ss and two Ls and two [Rs
- JU: we are working on the digraphs

In this interview, children also introduce the idea of having used translation in the English class, which they see as helpful for the learning process and they even talk about a new language that may be introduced in the lessons:

- T: (...) things that we had never done,/ have you found things that we had\ never done?/
- B: yes, [the survey
- JU: translating
- B: and the survey
- JU: translating and the survey we had never done
- T: and translating, you said?
- JU: translating, yes... but with Spanish
- B: well in Spanish, [we had never done this
- T: xxx
- L: no
- T: and do you think we should do it more often in the English class, translating?/
- Ss: mmmm
- B: I don't know
- T: or maybe we shouldn't, only, only in English, always in English and without translating
- B: I think that translating is more fun and...
- T: more [fun?
- B: you learn
- T: do you learn more or less?
- JU: and as well as [doing English you do xxx at the same time
- AD: the same
- T: yes, maybe you can do more than one thing at the same time, right?/ Maybe?/
- JU: yes
- B: and also it is more fun because you have more languages and you need to think more/
- T: so maybe we could include even more languages when you are a bit older
- JU: French!

Another aspect worth mentioning here is the students' use of the term *translation*, as it had never been used in class. Moreover, they seem to relate it to activities which are fun and demanding.

Group interview 3

Children begin by saying that mixing languages makes the activity easier and, as the discussion goes on, they end up saying that it may be more confusing, although it is also more fun. Here the link between (adequate) cognitive difficulty, feeling of learning and having fun can be made:

- T: and what else?/ Did I say all the time coffee, cheese, water, or what/ did I say?\
- G: you said it in Catalan and in Spanish also\
- T: and this was, did it make it more difficult/ or easier?\
- A: easier
- T: easier?/\
- G: easy
- T: yes,/ everybody found it easier?\
- G: yes
- T: and after this,/ what did we do?\
- JAU: I don't, I get confused
- T: it is more confusing if we mix
- I: (nods)
- JAU: yes, I get confused
- T: why confused?
- JAU: because now English, Catalan, Spanish, now English, now Catalan, now Spanish, I
- T: but do you like it/ or not?\
- JAU: yes!
- T: yes?/ It's confusing but you like it?/\
- JAU: yes

- T: look, | and did you like it better when it was only English/ or when we mixed?\
- Ss: when we mixed
- T: yes?/\
- G: because it was more xxx and there were children getting confused

They also relate the use of different languages to learning and their feeling is that they learn the same:

- T: in English and then in Catalan and then in Spanish, what do you think about / \that?
- Ss: good, good
- A: cool
- T: had we ever done / this\ before, mixing languages, in our English classes / or not?\
- Ss: no (shaking heads)
- T: we didn't do it in first year primary, I think, did we?
- Ss: no
- T: and what do you think? Do you like to do it like this from time to time?
- Ss: yes
- T: Do you think you learn more or not?
- G: it's really cool
- A: yes
- T: do you learn more / or not,\ what do you think, let's see, or the same?
- G: well I xxx
- A: the same

Group interview 4

When talking about the chant, one of the students gave the following answer, showing clearly her phonological awareness.

- AG: Fine, well, except E, he made a mistake and instead of *tea* he said *tè* [in Catalan]

Many studies have shown the potential link between bilingualism and phonological and word awareness skills – the fact that these skills are implicated in early literacy means that the role that bilingualism plays in enhancing literacy development in early childhood needs to be taken into account (Bee Chin & Wigglesworth, 2007). This is relevant because it had not been mentioned by the teacher neither in the classroom nor outside:

Later on in the same conversation, the children were asked about their feelings regarding the activities where several languages are at play:

- T: and have you learnt anything else/ or not\ what do you think?
- AG: I don't know

- J: to say the names of things in English, in Catalan and in Spanish
- N: (laughs)
- T: Had you done anything like this before in the English lessons?
- D: yes
- Ss: No, no, no (shaking heads)
- D: ah no
- T: And do you like it?
- All: Yes! (smiling)
- T: Do you think you learn more or less English doing it like this?
- S1: More!
- Ss: More! (smiling)

Group interview 5

This interview took place after the session where the children played the multilingual matching game, and here they relate enjoying the game with the fact that it was difficult:

- T: and [today I would like to ask you about the game we had time to play today, \ the matching game with the four languages/
- (...)
- N: it was really cool!

- T: and how do you like it best, \ in pairs / or in groups of four?
- P/N: groups of four
- T: why?
- N: mmm, because | it is more fun
- P: yes
- T: because it is more difficult / or because it is more | what?
- P: because it is [more difficult
- N: difficult and
- N: and also because, well, because it is more difficult
- (...)
- T: and one with the three languages simultaneously, had you played like this /before?\
- JN: never
- T: and what do you think? Do you like / this?\
- Ss: yes
- T: had you ever done this in English class?
- JN: and

- Ss: no
- JN: one was Catalan, / Spanish, /
- C: {English}
- N: English, English and the picture
- T: and would you like to do it again some other day, [to play again?
- Ss: yes, yes, yes (enthusiastic)
- T: yes?
- Ss: mmm (nodding)

Next, they continue talking about the other multilingual activities that have been done in the English class and about the learning process they have experienced and the degree of difficulty they see related to them:

- T: and these activities we are doing these days, we are translating the songs and these things we are doing, do you like them \ or not?/
- Ss: yes
- T: yes? Do you think you \ have learnt?/
- Ss: yes
- T: and what have you learnt, let's see, what have you learnt / Joan?\
- JN: | the song
- T: Oh sure
- C: I have learnt the words
- T: the words? Which / words?\
- C: all, to completely understand how you say, how you pronounce them | (shrugs shoulders)
- T: and N, /what have you learnt?\
- N: of the song?/
- T: no, in general/
- N: ah
- P: me, the song
- N: I didn't know that we could do such fun things at the school
- (...)
- T: and going from English into Catalan and Spanish, is this difficult or easy for you
- N: no, easy
- Ss: easy
- T: and does it help learn more English/ or not?\
- Ss: yes
- T: why?
- N: (raises hand)
- T: why N?

- N: em, well, because Catalan you already know and English too, well, English you don't know and you learn and at the same time you learn/ Spanish\
- T: sure? You learn a bit of everything at the same time / right?\
- JN: look, now I am learning Spanish because I can't speak Spanish
- (...)
- T: and C, which differences do you see?
- C: we speak in Catalan, in Spanish, In English, the three languages
- T: mmm (nods) [xxx
- JN: because in English class we can also spe, speak Spanish and Catalan/
- T: and is this good / or bad?\
- P/J/C: good
- T: yes? \
- Ss: yes
- T: and you, which differences do you see N?
- N: we didn't do so many games before and we also speak Spanish, Catalan more, more
- T: (nods)
- N: more, ah, more languages
- (...)
- T: and do you think you are learning more now / or before?\
- Ss: now
- C: me because sometimes we know words in English but we don't know what they mean
- T: (nods)
- C: and like this we know them and if we say them in Catalan after we know better what they mean
- T: ah, very good
- (...)
- N: in second year Primary, in second we learn more because in first year Primary I felt it was very easy
- T: very easy, now it is more / difficult\

Group interview 6

Regarding the plurilingual menu, the following conversation took place:

- T: Was it difficult to translate your, your, your \ dessert? Or did you know/ right away?\
- Ss: (shake heads)
- A: We said right away / icecream\
- T: Was it different/ or similar in Catalan, in English and in Spanish?\ How was it / in English, your dessert?\

- G: Icecream, ai [exclamation in Catalan] no, lemon icecream
- T: And in / Catalan?\
- Ss: Gelat/ de llimona\
- T: And in Spanish?
- Ss: Helado/ de limón\
- T: And so is this different / or alike?
- Ss: Well...
- G: In Catalan and in Spanish they are quite similar
- T: Yes, and in English /what happens? There is something / strange / happening in English, what / happens?/
- I: In English it's quite different (nodding)
- T: Why?\ How is it / different?\ J
- J: (rises hand) Because instead of (indicating changing position with hand movements) saying icecream and afterwards lemonade, they say lemonade of icecream
- T: We change the order, the order changes
- J: yes
- G: Yes, in English the order changes
- T: The order changes in many things in English

This is a good example of how, by preparing an adequate language activity that visibly includes the L1 and giving the children the chance to talk about it, the teacher can help them think about and compare some structural features of the languages, which is not the sort of work that is usually done in the AL classroom with children of this age. In other words, the teacher is encouraging and supporting comparison in a systematic way, which is fruitful for the learning process (Cummins, 2005, 2008).

Later on, when talking about having translated the menu as we imagined that it would be for tourists, they add:

- T: well, and did you like having to do it in the three languages because it was for tourists or would you have preferred doing it in English | because it's English class or...\
- G: I would have preferred doing it also in French and in Italian
- T: You would like to do it in French and Italian as well
- G: yes
- T: and why?
- G: well, because they are two languages that are cool to speak
- T: sure
- G: especially Italian, because they speak with an intonation

- T: do you like it very much?
- G: yes
- T: and do you like \ learning languages?/
- G: (nods)
- T: yes? Will you study more / when you are \ older?/
- G: of course I will

Group interview 7

In this lesson, they prepared their trilingual word search and had to solve one done by a classmate. When asked which words had been more difficult to find in the word search, the students gave different answers, and one student established a difference between Catalan and Spanish, on the one hand, and English, on the other, and felt English was the most difficult because she doesn't know much:

- T: what was more difficult to find, the words in English,/ in Catalan/ or in Spanish?\
- MA: for [me everything
- C: in English
- M: for me
- T: the words in English have been the most difficult?
- C: well
- P: for me in Catalan
- M: for me in English
- T: why? Why is this? I don't understand
- M: I don't know,/ it was hard,\ as I don't know much English/
- T: right
- Ss: xxx
- C: well, for me it was all the same, in English more because as I don't know yet how all the words are spelt, sometimes I get confused because I think the spelling is different and then I get confused

Group interview 8

In this interview, a child made a very explicit comment regarding the fact that he felt he had learnt the words better because we had used them in different languages:

- E: I, I have learnt | the parts of the body better
- T: why better?
- E: Em, because sometimes, I had already learnt them xxx
- T: And why did you learn them better today? Because we revised them again?/
- E: Yes, well, we have seen them, we have ... in Catalan in Spanish in English and...
- T: And you learn better like this, you?/
- E: Yes, don't know, to say them well at least

Group interview 9

During this session, there was an argument among some children when they had to choose the language they would sing the chant in and this led them to question why they would have to sing in a language other than English in the English class. The children who had this argument were chosen for the group interview and the following conversation took place:

- T: but translating, translating does not mean that we don't learn English, / does it?\
- N: of course not
- T: or does it?/
- C: no because maybe you can learn more because if, you may know words in English/ but not know the meaning and for example you go some place where you have to speak English/ and you speak but you say things, you know they are in English/ but you don't know what they mean\
- T: and so/ what does this mean?\
- C: if we say it in English and also in Catalan we can learn what they mean
- T: ok
- C: if we don't know

Later on, they continue talking about the activity and, once again, having fun with an activity is related to it being confusing –cognitively challenging– because several languages are used simultaneously:

- T: why [fun?
- C: and when we had to say it each one, in, in the language we had chosen, mmm, I got confused
- P: so did I, I said
- MA: [xxx

- N: I said it in English, after in Spanish/ and then in Catalan\
- MA: [me, in Spanish and in English
- C: xxx I got confused
- T: is it more difficult if we do it with the three languages?
- P: yes, a lot
- C: not for me, but if we do it simultaneously saying words one in Catalan, one in *español* {one in English, I get confused}
- (...)
- T: but did you like it,/ or didn't you?\
- Ss: yes
- C: and I also got confused because as we rehearsed the song in English/ and I was used to saying it in English/
- T: right
- C: it felt strange to say it in Catalan and I got confused

The last comment made by C can have two possible explanations. On the one hand, it is true that, before undertaking this research, these children were used to immersion-like lessons where English was the only language used and, therefore, it was still confusing for them to have the chance to switch between languages. On the other hand, C might be experiencing the added difficulty that a multilingual activity entails and is labelling it as confusion.

The following grid summarises the findings made by analysing the transcriptions of the recorded group interviews (GI), specifically regarding the excerpts presented above. There is also a connection made between the finding and the aspect it can have an impact on, that is, motivation and classroom atmosphere (as socioaffective aspects) and development of language awareness (as a cognitive aspect). These can be clearly related to the hypotheses and research questions of this study and this relationship is made at the end of this section:

GI	Finding	Impact on
GI 1, 2, 3	Enjoyment of the plurilingual activities	Motivation and classroom atmosphere
GI 1,	Perception of learning English	Motivation

5, 8, 9		
GI 2, 3, 5, 9	Perception of increased cognitive difficulty (i.e., it is more fun, you need to think more)	Motivation
GI 2, 4, 6	Compare structural features of the languages	Development of language awareness
GI 2, 4, 5	Perception of learning English and other languages	Motivation, development of language awareness

Table 29. Group interviews: findings

Taking all the excerpts presented above and in relation to motivational and awareness aspects, as well as on classroom atmosphere, the following statements can help answer the first research question, that is, “Will the use of PBCS favour students’ motivation for learning?”

1. The children in the treatment group have enjoyed the activities, which has a direct positive impact on their motivation level. This is important as motivation has been defined as a key factor in ALA.
2. The children do not always relate plurilingual activities with activities that are more challenging or cognitively difficult, yet they talk on a few occasions about *getting confused* by the simultaneous use of several languages and about this being fun, which has, once again, a direct positive impact on their motivation level.
3. Many children feel that they have learnt, that the learning process has been successful, and only some of them add the idea that they have learnt English as well as Catalan and Spanish, related to the idea that learning an AL can also help improve one’s L1/s.
4. On some occasions –mostly when answering a question made by the teacher/researcher– the children comment implicitly on the plurilingual activities, always positively, and only on a few occasions they are very explicit about what they had done, i.e. translate, switch (in the student’s words: say a word in a language, and then in another language);

5. Some children started making comments of a metalinguistic nature regarding English and Catalan and Spanish, i.e. commenting on English spelling, digraphs in Catalan, differences in pronunciation, etc.
6. Some children also stated that translating vocabulary is helpful to make sure they understand well and to remember more easily thus pointing out translating as an effective tool for learning.

As regards the second research question, that is, “Will the use of PBCS favour classroom atmosphere?” the following statements can be included:

1. It is difficult for them to see or pinpoint any methodological difference between the lessons during this term and their lessons in the past and on very few occasions do they mention the presence of several languages; they also believe that this term has been more fun as in, for instance, “what surprised me the most is that, well, we worked but we didn’t work, well, we played but we worked, you know? And this was confusing, it was confusing” (JU). This was a general feeling and it may be said to have a direct impact on classroom atmosphere.

In conclusion, the information collected through the group interviews may be used to advance a positive answer to the research questions regarding motivation and classroom atmosphere, namely:

3. Will the use of the PBCS favour students’ motivation for learning?
4. Will the use of the PBCS favour classroom atmosphere?

These answers, however, need to be completed by looking at the data collected through the motivation surveys, which is the aim of the next section.

3.4.2.3. Motivation surveys

Further relevant results were found when looking at qualitative data produced by children in their written motivation surveys. In this case, as the motivation survey was answered by all the children taking part in the study (100 students), that is, treatment

and control groups, information has been gathered in the two groups and compared²⁷. Children answered this survey at the beginning of the term (pre-test) and at the end (post-test) and the questions included in it can be related to the aspects researched through research questions, and to the development of language awareness, which has arisen while conducting the research. These aspects can be related to the questions as follows:

Motivation	Do you like learning English? Why do you like learning English? What do you like the most about learning English? Why? What do you like the least about learning English? Why?
Classroom atmosphere	How do you prefer to work in class? Alone? With a partner? In groups? Did anything surprise you this term? What?
(Language) awareness	Why (do you like learning English)? Did anything surprise you this term? What?

Table 30. Motivation, classroom atmosphere and (language) awareness in the motivation surveys

All the answers given by the children both in the treatment and the control groups to the questions in the Motivation Survey are collected in Appendix 12.

3.4.2.3.1. Motivation as perceived in the motivation surveys

As regards motivation, both treatment and control groups seem to be very motivated to learn English and they state so both in their pre-test and in their post-test. The actual figures are summarised below:

²⁷ A complete record of all answers is included in Appendix 11.

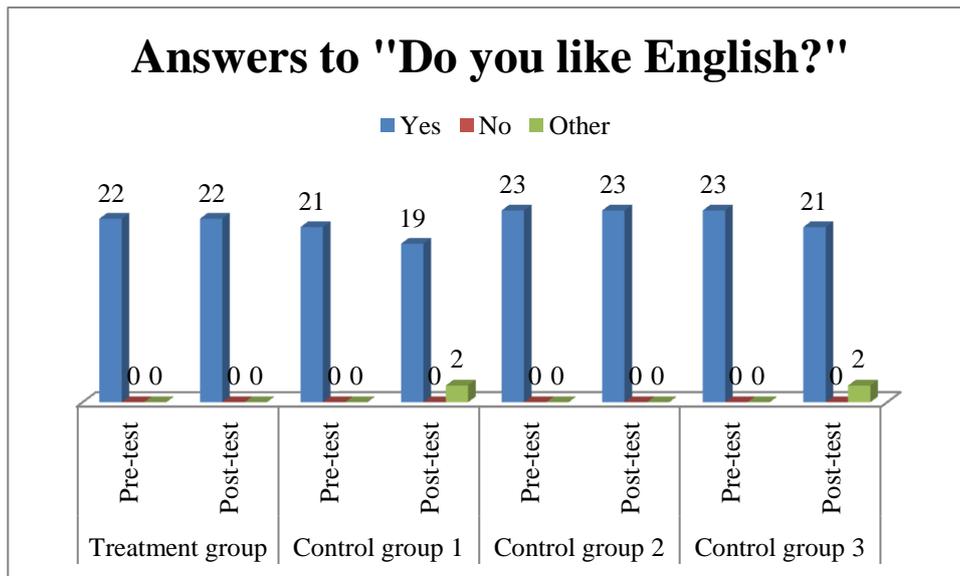


Figure 37. Do you like English?

The statistical analysis shows that there is no relevant difference when comparing groups. This is the case both when comparing control groups with treatment groups, also when comparing each individual control group with the treatment group. Table 31 below shows the results for the three control groups. As the criterion is to reject all differences equal or below 0.05, the result ($p = 0.182$) is not significant.

Related samples t-test^a

	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
LikeENG_pre - LikeENG_post	66	.182

Table 31. Control groups' answers to "Do you like English?"

In fact, the answers to the question "Do you like English?" cannot even be analyzed for the treatment group as the standard error mean is 0.

Related samples t-test statistics

	Mean	N	Std. deviation	Std. Error Mean
LikeENG_pre	1.00 ^a	23	.000	.000
LikeENG_post	1.00 ^a	23	.000	.000

Table 32. Treatment group's answers to "Do you like English?"

Regarding the answers to the question *Why do you like English?*, the answers given by the treatment group and which are relevant to motivation are the following:

Treatment group	
Pre-test	Post-test
Seeing theatre plays	Doing games and stories
I like to play with cards of animals, school objects	Enjoying learning because it is really fun
I like to do worksheets because they are fun	Everything but what I like the most is the worksheets, and the classroom survey
You learn things	I like everything we do, and also the games and stories
Doing the mini theatre plays from the book because it is cool	-
When we cut and stick	Doing games because they are really fun
Rudolph's theatre play because it was really fun	Games and songs and drama in English because I have fun
The activities because we do theatre plays, there are characters	The activities because they are fun , the one I preferred was when we asked the food they liked
When she [the teacher] writes riddles on the board because I like them	The activities because they are fun
Rudolph because I enjoyed it	The activities because I have fun with them, the class survey the most
Games and when we do stories because I enjoy them	Doing games and learning at the same time and also learning is more fun when you are enjoying yourself
Spike's worksheet	When we learned <i>tea, limmada, coffi</i> , etc.
Doing games in English because it is more fun than doing worksheets	When we do games because I am a girl and I have more fun with games more than an adult
Because we learn when we work on colours, numbers, etc.	The activities, stories and so on because it is fun
Yes because we do a lot of activities	The song where we had to write the words
Because she [the teacher] hid the numbers and we had to guess them	I like it a lot when we do games because they are fun
The masks in the book	Because we do drama in English
The activities because we play	The activities because we play
When we had to guess the animal	Learning because learning is very good
I like it because we do games	The word search
Theatre plays because it is fun	Singing because it is cool and more in English and

	the activities
Doing the Christmas cards because it is an engineer task	Everything but what I like the most in English are the songs because we do them in groups
When we do plays at the board because it is great fun	I like to sing in English a lot because it is really cool!

Table 33. Treatment group's answers to "What did you like the most?"

The idea of having *fun* or doing *fun* activities in the classroom is mentioned quite a few times by the children in the treatment group both in the pre-test and in the post-test. Other answers, despite not using the word *fun*, also relate to this idea (i.e. children write they like or enjoy the lessons or that some of the activities are cool). The distribution according to pre and post-test is the following:



Figure 38. Use of *fun/having fun* by the treatment group

When looking at the answers given by the control groups (which can be found in Appendix 12), their use of *fun/having fun* is distributed as shown below:

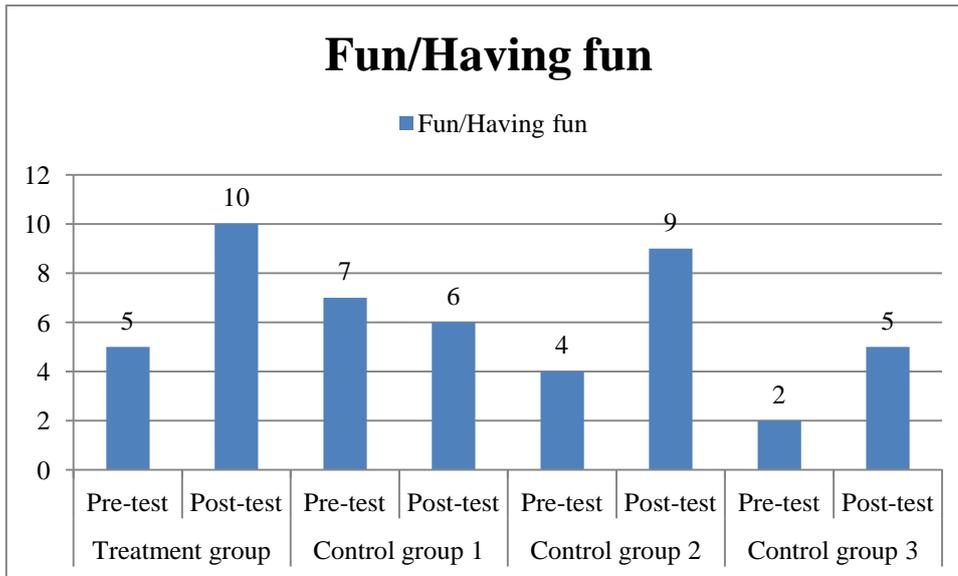


Figure 39. Use of fun/having fun by all groups

Statistic analysis of these figures shows that there is no significant difference when comparing control groups with treatment groups, also when comparing each individual control group with the treatment group. The tables below show the results for the three control groups and the treatment group. As the criterion is to reject all differences equal or below 0.05, the result ($p = 0.095$) is not significant.

Related samples t-test^a

	Df.	Sig. (2-tailed)
AnsFUN_pre AnsFUN_post	66	.095

Table 34. Control groups' use of *fun/having fun*

Related samples t-test^a

	Df.	Sig. (2-tailed)
AnsFUN_pre AnsFUN_post	22	.328

Table 35. Treatment group's use of *fun/having fun*

Regarding what they like the least, children's answers are mostly related to doing worksheets (either the motivation survey or class worksheets) and when they explain why, they tend to say that doing worksheets is boring. This is so both in the pre and the

post-tests. One of the children’s answers in the post-test, namely “Worksheets because we do them alone and I like to work in groups” can also be used to explain why they may have enjoyed (as described in the previous section) the activities carried out during the research: one important reason may be related to the fact that most of the plurilingual activities required or promoted collaboration and this is something that children in this age-group seem to appreciate.

Treatment group	
Pre-test	Post-test
When we do worksheets	I like it all except for when the class is over because I enjoy class very much
What I like the least is at the end of the class the chant	Nothing, but the least is singing. I don’t like to sing.
Listening to the radio because it is annoying	Nothings, these worksheets . And also when I don’t know the answer to a question, I get nervous.
Doing worksheets because they are boring	These worksheets because they are boring
The first thing we do in class	Nothing because everything is fun
Doing worksheets in the textbook because they are boring	The pairs we’ve matched on the board because they are boring.
Doing word searches because I can’t find anything	This question in the worksheet because I don’t know what to answer
Worksheets because they are boring	When they explain what we already know because it doesn’t make sense
When Cristina gets angry because I know we could have done it better	When you get angry
Boring worksheets because I know we could do something better	The worksheet I am doing now because it is boring
When we are told off because we cannot learn then	Being alone when I am punished because if it’s cool, it is a pity
What I like the least is difficult worksheets	Nothing
Sometimes when we do worksheets in the textbook	The word search because it is boring
Rudolph’s worksheet	The word search because it is really boring
When we are told off because we have a bad time	When you cross out a stop because if you cross out the three stops, the class is over
I don’t like worksheets because they are boring	Nothing
The papers they give us because we always do the same	When Cristina gets angry because we have the feeling that we are wasting time
Stickers because they break very easily	Worksheets because we do them alone and I like to work in groups
The end of class because English is over	This worksheet makes me nervous

Table 36. Treatment group’s answers to “What did you like the least?”

The answers given by the children in the control groups (see Appendix 12) when asked what they like the least are very similar to those given by the treatment group: most of them are related to doing worksheets, using the book and making the teacher angry. It is also interesting to note how some of the children in the control groups say that they don’t like some activities because they find them difficult or they can’t understand

(these can be found both in their pre and post-tests). Interestingly, this is an idea that is not mentioned at all by the children in the treatment group in the post-test and which may be related to the scaffolding provided by the plurilingual activities carried out in the classroom. The following grid is a selection of answers given by the children in the control groups.

Control groups	
Pre-test	Post-test
CONTROL GROUP 1	
When you get angry	Nothing I find it all fun
When Cristina gets angry	When the three stops are crossed because the class is finished
Nothing because everything is fun	Nothing because everything is fun
It is a bit difficult to write in English	When I am punished because everything is fun
The class is too short	The stop because I don't like the class to finish
Doing worksheets is a bit boring	Working because it is a bit boring
You speak different than you write	The three stops are crossed because the class is finished
CONTROL GROUP 2	
When I want to go to the board	The surveys in Catalan because we are doing English
When we do worksheets	To work
Worksheets because they are difficult	That the class is finished because English is finished
When you write words are very different from when you say them	That some numbers are very similar, for example 13 and 30
The months of the year because they are very difficult to learn	Exams because they are very difficult
When we write the names of objects	Nothing, everything is fun
I don't know much English	Colours and objects because they are very difficult to learn
CONTROL GROUP 3	
When we do difficult worksheets because I don't understand them	When we do difficult tasks because I don't understand but then you help me and I understand
Working because I don't like to work	Worksheets because they are boring
When I get it wrong	When I am punished
When we use the book	When we do things that I don't know how to do
Doing a number dictation	The activity book
Nothing	Worksheets because they are very hard
When we use the book	When we are punished

Table 37. Selection of answers to “What did you like the least?” in the Control Groups

3.4.2.3.2. Classroom atmosphere as perceived in the motivation surveys

When looking at *what* surprised them, the following answers in the post-test can be related to classroom atmosphere and, specifically, they are answers where children in the treatment group relate working, playing and learning:

- “Having such a good time”
- “We work while we play”
- “We play while we learn and we also speak in three languages, Catalan, Spanish and English”
- “Cristina is a very good teacher and we learn a lot playing games”

Another question that was included in the motivation survey concerned children’s preference for working alone or with a classmate, namely, “How do you prefer to work in class? Alone? With a partner? In groups?”. This aspect is important when thinking of classroom atmosphere, as children tend to prefer collaborative tasks.

One of the characteristics of the plurilingual activities the children in the treatment group were involved in is that most of them required collaboration and group work. This was designed by the teacher because the activities required it and it was experienced by the students as an enjoyable and motivating factor. When looking at the answers they gave in their motivation surveys regarding their work preference in class, the overwhelming majority of students state that they prefer to work with a classmate or in groups rather than alone. In the treatment group, some of the answers they give to justify this preference in the pre-test and the post-test are the following:

1. Pre-test
 - a. [I prefer to work in groups] because it is more fun and you don’t feel bad
 - b. [I prefer to work in groups] because you can talk to others
 - c. [I prefer to work in groups] because I don’t like to be alone
 - d. [I prefer to work in groups] because we can do more things
 - e. [I prefer to work in groups] because I can concentrate better

2. Post-test
 - a. [I prefer to work in groups] because I learn more
 - b. [I prefer to work in groups] because others can help me
 - c. [I prefer to work in groups] because it more fun
 - d. [I prefer to work in groups] because we can help each other

The differences between the treatment group and the control groups are not relevant concerning this aspect, as all the children were used to working in groups and carrying out activities where they had to collaborate. Actually, this may be one of the reasons why the great majority of participants in the research answered affirmatively in their motivation surveys when they were asked whether they liked English. Their English lessons, compared with some of the other subjects they had, provided children with more opportunities to work in groups.

3.4.2.3.3. (Language) awareness as perceived in the motivation surveys

When analysing the children’s answers to the second part of the first question in the motivation survey (i.e. Do you like English? Why do you like English?), the children’s recurrent use of words such as *learn*, *know*, *communicate* seemed especially relevant to their (language) awareness and thus the use of PBCS could be said to have favoured it. Some of the children in the other groups also used these words, but in smaller numbers, as shown in the following table:

Groups	Answers including <i>learn</i> , <i>know</i> , <i>communicate</i>	
	Pre-test	Post-test
Control group 1	3	5
Control group 2	4	8
Control group 3	3	2
Treatment group	6	14

Table 38. Use of *learn*, *know*, *communicate* in the motivation surveys

The actual answers provided by the children are the following:

Treatment group	
Why (pre-test)	Why (post-test)
I can understand the others	I have fun and I learn
We do fun things	It’s a language that is spoken in many countries
We do many activities and we learn a beautiful language	We learn playing games and it is spoken in many peoples in the world
When I go to another country I will understand	When I go to another country I will be able to speak and to communicate
I could speak with another person	I will get to know all the languages
We learn another language and I have fun	I learn another language that many people can speak and so I will be able to communicate
We do fun activities	We do fun activities
It’s another language that I don’t know	It’s cool and I learn

If I go to a country where they speak English I will be able to speak with others	I have fun and I learn English
We learn a new language and I also have fun	It's a new language and we can learn a lot
We play games with Cristina	I like a lot learning English
I'm going to Boston and I can answer some English person	It's cool and if I go to America I will know more
I think that with English I will be able to speak to many people	We learn by playing and we write the date in English
Songs	We learn many words in English
We play games in class	We can learn in another language
We do fun things	We do fun activities
When I go places I will be able to speak	Like this I can travel
A lot of fun	It's really cool
It's cool to learn languages	I learn a lot
I learn words and also the theatre plays	It's very important to learn languages
It's another language that can be learnt easily	It's a language that is spoken all around the world
We do a lot of crafts	If I work somewhere where they speak English I will be able to speak

Table 39. Treatment group's answers to "Why do you like English?"

The answers given by the children in the control groups (pre and post-test) are presented next:

Control group 1	
Why (pre-test)	Why (post-test)
I like learning English	I learn another language
Fun	I learn another language
It's another language	It's another language
Travelling	Travelling
Fun	-
I enjoy myself	Fun
You learn	Fun
Games, I like the language	I learn another language
-	Drama
Fun	Fun, I learn another language
Fun	Good teacher
In case I change ²⁸	Fun, travelling
Travelling	Travelling
Mice ²⁹	I learn
Fun	Fun
We learn	-
Travelling	Fun
Cool activities	Cool activities
Fun	Games
I like the language	-
I will go to England	Great fun, travelling

Table 40. Control group 1 answers to "Why do you like English?"

²⁸ The child may be talking about changing house, moving to another country.

²⁹ The child is referring to the main characters in the textbook.

Control group 2	
Why (pre-test)	Why (post-test)
We do fun activities	We make minibooks
I like how English is spoken	We do activities and doing English is very important
We do cool things	I like to learn new things
It's fun	It's fun
It's surprising how to do things	It's great fun and it will help us when we grow up
When we listen to music in English	It's fun
I enjoy myself	It's great fun
I like the book	We do games from the book
-	We do a lot of activities
We do fun things	The children in the class do silly things
Learning things	Learning things in English
When I grow up I'll be able to go to the US	When I grow up I'll be able to go to places where they speak English
I'll be able to travel around the world	I'll be able to travel to many places
I learn different languages and I like this	I learn a new language
It's interesting and it can be really cool	It's important and you learn a lot and it's fun
It's a language that almost everyone knows	It's a language that is learned in many places in the world
There are very strange words	It's really cool
It's great fun	I can learn
I enjoy myself	I enjoy myself
-	I learn
It's a language that is spoken in other places and if someday I go to a country where they speak English I'll be able to speak it	They teach us many things
I learn to say words	Learning is fun
You can learn a lot	I can learn many things in English
It's great fun	It's great fun

Table 41. Control group 2 answers to "Why do you like English?"

Control group 3	
Why (pre-test)	Why (post-test)
-	We do games
It's great fun	I have fun and I'll be able to understand people who know English
We do fun activities	We do fun activities
It's great fun	It's great fun and we learn many things
You learn many things	I have fun
We learn many things	We do fun things
We do fun things	We do fun things
We do cool activities	It's a language quite difficult for me
-	When I grow up I'll speak English as in the US
I have fun	If you go to another country, I'll be able to speak
We do fun things	I learn many things
We do drama	If there is someone I don't know and he's English, I talk to him
I learn new things	We do fun things
We do things from the book	We do activities
It's great fun	It's great fun
I enjoy some things and some I don't	Sometimes my uncle and aunt ask me things in English and I sometimes speak with an English person

We cut with scissors and we use the English book	-
We do stories	It's great fun
It's fun	It's fun
It's great fun	It's great fun
We do things that I love	We do things that I like a lot
I have fun	We do fun things
I want to go to London	-

Table 42. Control group 3 answers to “Why do you like English?”

The figure below shows the use of the verbs *learn*, *know*, *communicate* –which have been taken as verbs that may indicate the beginning of the development of language and learning awareness– by all the groups that have taken part in the study, and comparing their answers in the pre-test with those in the post-test.

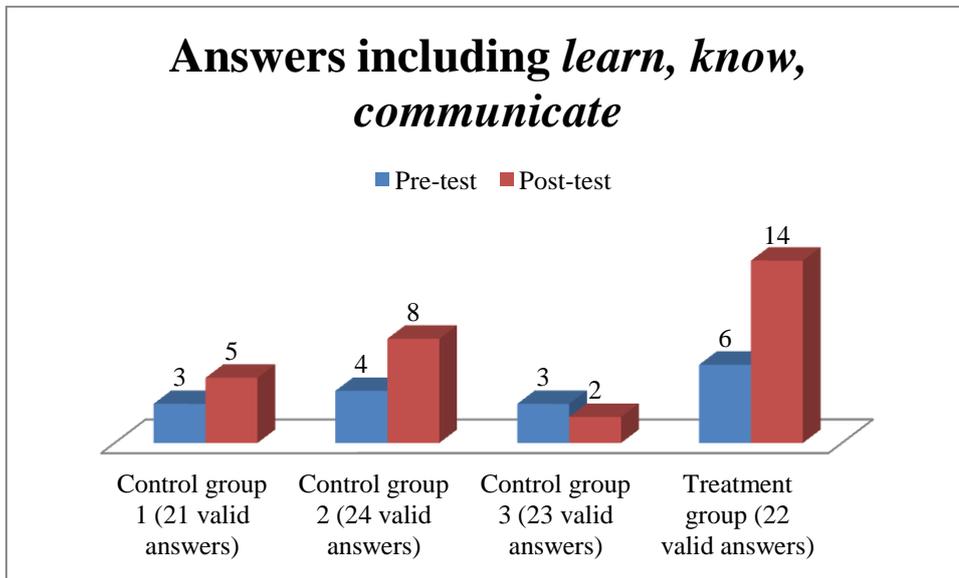


Figure 40. Use of verbs *learn*, *know*, *communicate* by all groups (pre-test and post-test)

Statistical analysis of these figures shows that there is significant difference when comparing control groups with treatment groups, as well as when comparing each individual control group with the treatment group. The table below shows the results for the three control groups. As the criterion is to reject all differences equal or below 0.05, the result ($p = 0.058$) is not significant for the control groups, but it is significant (0.008) for the treatment group.

Related samples t-test

	Df.	Sig. (2-tailed)
AnsLEARN_pre AnsLEARN_post	66	.199

Table 43. Control groups' use of *learn/know/communicate*

Related samples t-test

	Df.	Sig. (2-tailed)
AnsLEARN_pre AnsLEARN_post	22	.008

Table 44. Treatment group's use of *learn/know/communicate*

Another question that was asked in their motivation test and which can shed light on the awareness development issue was “Did anything surprise you this term? What?”. When answering this question, the treatment group gave the following answers:

Treatment group			
Pre-test		Post-test	
Yes	No	Yes	No
5	18	19	4

Table 45. Treatment group's answers to “Did anything surprise you this term?”

When looking at *what* surprised them, the following answers can be related to language awareness development as they are reflections made by the children on the nature of English and show their awareness of the fact that several languages have been used in the classroom:

Treatment group	
Pre-test	Post-test
I find it surprising that all the days of the week finish in <i>day</i>	English spelling is weird
	We play and we learn and we spoke in three languages Catalan, Spanish and English
	English is widely used, sometimes Cristina speaks in

	Catalan and Spanish
	There is a comma in the date in English
	Cristina speaks Catalan
	The theatre plays and the date because they don't say <i>març</i> [in Catalan], they say <i>March</i> .
	Not much, but something like for example the English spelling is weird

Table 46. Treatment group's answer to "What (surprised you this term)?"

First, regarding the post-test answers presented above, it is interesting to see how some include a reflection regarding the nature of English. As has been mentioned before, this sort of reflection had never been explicitly encouraged or talked about in class, yet they had seen the date in English on their whiteboards for over a year before they made these comments regarding the use of the comma, the endings of the days of the week or the spelling of March. Second, some answers mention the fact that languages other than English have been used in the classroom, which is definitely the novelty that has been introduced and yet it is only mentioned by three children.

The answers given by the control groups that may be related to the same aspects are very few and they are included in the table below:

	Pre-test	Post-test
Control group 1	-	-
Control group 2	Today (9 January) Cristina uses more Catalan.	-
Control group 3		Cristina is speaking in Catalan.

Table 47. Control groups answers' to "What (surprised you this term)?"

The following two sections are devoted to describing observations made by using research instruments such as the teacher's diary, the video-recording of some lessons and the correction and analysis of the children's worksheets. The observations presented below are of a qualitative and more subjective nature and they reinforce the findings already described.

3.4.2.4. Complementary instruments: teacher's diary, children's worksheets, recorded lessons

3.4.2.4.1. Teacher's diary

After and during each lesson involving plurilingual activities, the teacher/researcher wrote down all the aspects that seemed worth recording. These are well supported by the video-recordings that were done during some of the activities. They are mostly helpful to assess the motivation level of the students, noticeable both in the statements they make (while talking to each other or to the teacher) and also when seeing them as they participate in the activities.

During some of the sessions, comments were made by the children (overheard and noted by the teacher) and they were mostly related to the fact that the dynamics of the activity had been fun for them. By exploring the term *fun* a little bit more deeply, they associated fun with challenging and innovative. In this sense, the use of several languages in an activity was clearly both.

Most other comments in the teacher's diary were related to whether the aims set for each session had been achieved, and to changes that could be made regarding management strategies and the presentation of the contents.

3.4.2.4.2. Worksheets and classroom activities

Worksheets and classroom activities in Didactic Proposal 1

The worksheets will be thoroughly described in chapter 4 but special emphasis will now be made on some aspects denoting the development of language awareness and/or the difficulties that children face in their MTs that are made visible when revising the worksheets. The second aspect is important because it shows how MTs can improve by working on the AL in a way that allows for contrast and analysis.

Vocabulary presentation, grid, colour card game: spelling, comparison

Unit 1 begins with a set of activities where children experience working with several languages in the English class for the first time. They are mainly activities the aim of which is to present and use the main vocabulary in the unit. Going deeper, the teacher aims at setting the pace for a new way of working in the English class, but without making an issue out of it. Catalan is introduced in a natural and fun way and without incorporating any type of didactic reasoning or explanation which might eventually influence children's opinions or answers. The result is very positive and as natural as using two or three languages is for bi- or trilingual speakers. A girl's comment is overheard in session 1 and noted on the teacher's diary ("què xulo, avui!": *It was cool, today! [the lesson]*), which seems to indicate that the response is so far positive.

Regarding the contents covered in unit 1 and the language practised in it (see chapter 4), some linguistic elements that pose difficulties or generate comments or discussion among children in this activity are the following:

1. similarities among languages (*pasta* is the same in the two languages),
2. differences among languages (*yoghurt* and *iogurt* sound very much alike and yet the spelling is different, which leads to difficulties that show on the worksheets),
3. work on the AL that sheds light on a difficulty many learners have in Catalan, such as the spelling of *formatge* [cheese], which is discussed next.

In the children's grids, there are as many variations of the word as *formatja*, *furmaha*, *furmatxa*, *furmaga*, *furmatge*, *formatje*, *formatgue*, *fomatxa*. All these words are solutions the children have attempted when trying to write down a word that they can say and understand orally but have not consolidated yet in Catalan and expose difficulties generated by the fact that, in Catalan, the sound [u:] may be spelled as [o] or as [u] and also the sound [dʒ] may be spelled as [tg] or [tj] and is phonetically close to the sound [ʃ], which is spelled as [tx]. There is also a further difficulty related to the letters [g] and [gu] and [j] and their use depending on the vowels that follow them. All in all, this is a good example of how such an activity can be eye opening for the language teacher and for the children themselves as, by doing an activity in the AL, they become aware of a difficulty they have in Catalan.

Chant: codeswitching, prosody, rhythm, spelling, comparison, connection between spoken and written codes

As the unit progresses, more complex plurilingual activities are carried out. Interesting observations can be made regarding the chant children had to write and sing in unit 1. Obviously, the children saw this as one more language activity. To the researcher, however, their final activity was at least as interesting and relevant as the observation of their working process, the noting down of comments that were made by the children as they worked and afterwards and, last but not least, the self-corrections that were visible on their worksheets. They faced difficulties when codeswitching between some words and one recurrent problem was the omission of the article in the Catalan and Spanish texts, even though they said it when they were practising the chant. In some groups, a child would realise the mistake and tell the others; in some others, the teacher would ask them to repeat the sentence again while following the written line with a finger. This made the children realise there was a word missing.

After writing it down, children were asked to stand in groups in front of their classmates and sing their trilingual chants (in session 3). It is interesting to note how the rhythm that the English version of the chant had on the CD was spontaneously imitated by the children when singing the chant in Catalan and Spanish. It is positive here as it helps memorisation and makes children feel more secure when reading (Crystal, 2005; Kolsawalla, 1999), although this is an aspect that could be worked on in a later moment and linked to prosodic and rhythmical characteristics that may differ in the three languages.

After the class, one of the students addressed the teacher and says “Cristina, Cristina, a mi m’agradaria fer cada dia això” (*Cristina, I would like to do this every day*). Clearly, this is another good sign from the motivational and socioaffective point of view.

Taking two of the chants as an example –the transcription of which is presented below– several comments can be made:

Example 1	Example 2
I don't like coffee	I don't like fish

I don't like tea	I don't like coffee
I like rice	I like pasta
Rice for me	Pasta for me
No m'agrada el café	No m'agrada [...] formatge
No m'agrada el té	No m'agrada [...] tèa
M'agrada l'arros	M'agrada [...] llet
Arros per mi	Llet per mi
No me gusta el café	No me gusta [...] yogurt
No me gusta el té	No me gusta [...] limonada
Me gusta el arroz	Me gusta la pasta
Arroz para mi	Pasta para mi

Table 48. Samples of chants

In these worksheets, the teacher/researcher can observe self-corrections and mistakes, which indicate where the children might have had difficulties and where they found the way to overcome them while doing the activity. As was explained in section xxx above, one recurrent problem that was the omission of the article in the Catalan and Spanish texts (as can be seen in example 2 above), even though they said it when they were reading it aloud. In some groups, a child would realise the mistake and tell the others; in some others, the teacher would ask them to repeat the sentence again while following the written line with a finger. This made the children realise there was a word missing.

The former is a good example of the pedagogical framework that was applied and of the sort of teacher participation that was promoted in the classroom: the teacher as a guide, as a helper, rather than the teacher who explicitly informs the children about what to do. The reasoning behind this was based on the idea that “the period between 2 and 7 years of age is a time during which children’s knowledge about language and about the language(s) they hear around them develops rapidly and, to a very large extent, without instruction or intention” (Nicholas & Lightbown, 2008: 39) so, in a setting that is not naturalistic, the teacher chose to guide children towards discovery, rather than to instruct them.

Regarding the mistakes, they seem to indicate a certain amount of confusion regarding the spelling of words that are very similar in either two or the three languages (i.e. *tea*, *té*, *tè* or *arroz*, *arròs*), which is completely understandable given the fact that these

children cannot have fully acquired the written form of all these words yet, as they are in the process of developing literacy in these languages. However, it is good to realise what the level of confusion is in order to tackle it adequately in the classroom.

Also, one of the children produces the following sentence in Spanish: “arroz por mí”. He should be using “arroz para mí”, but his confusion indicates how the difference between the Spanish prepositions *por* and *para* has not been consolidated yet, and probably it is also negatively influenced by the prepositions in Catalan, *per* and *per a* thus producing a calque. When the child says it wrong, the children in the group realise and some laugh. The difference between *por/para* and *per/per a*, and their relationship with *for* is another contrastive element that could have been discussed further, although the teacher chooses not to do it at the time.

What have you got in your restaurant?: comparison, translation,

Yet another example in unit 1 is an activity carried out in session 4 and called “What have you got in your restaurant? Writing a plurilingual menu” (see chapter 3 and Appendix 4). It is worth highlighting how their translations involve at least two difficulties that did actually arise and were talked about among themselves and also with the teacher. The first has to do with word order³⁰ and it can actually be seen in the corrections the children made in the first example, where in Catalan and Spanish they talk about *gelat de llimona* and *helado de limón*, respectively; and, before they stopped to think about it, they were about to translate it into English as *Icecream Lemon*. The second difficulty has to do with the English word *fish*, which in Spanish can be translated as *pescado* (the fish you eat, has been fished) and *pez* (the fish that is alive, has not been fished). The choice was not clear to everyone³¹ and so the children did talk about which was the right word and why, which also favoured collaborative work and L1 awareness and improvement.

³⁰ Word order is one of the areas that has been identified as being more sensitive to transfer in early ages: “Young children learning a second language can draw on specific features of their first language to achieve particular purposes. One feature that children sometimes carry into the L2 is the dominant word order of their L1”. (Nicholas & Lightbown, 2008: 40)

³¹ A further difficulty has to do with the fact that, in Catalan, as in English, there is also only one word to refer to these two concepts: *peix*.

Vocabulary presentation: spelling, word order, polysemy, word (non) equivalence, comparison

When working in session 1 and dealing with the vocabulary, the children faced some difficulties in their MTs, for instance:

- Is *ojo* spelled with J or G?
- Is *boca* spelled with B or V?
- Is *hair* ‘cabello’ or ‘pelo’?
- Is *face* ‘cara’ or ‘cabeza’?

Why these questions arise is understandable: on the one hand, the pair J/G and B/V often create various difficulties to children who are in the process of acquiring spelling rules, such as the participants in the research; on the other hand, it is true that, depending on the context, *hair* can have two possible translations in Spanish. Although exactly the same possibilities can occur in Catalan, it seems logical that children have more doubts about the translation into Spanish as it is the second school language, even though it may be the home language for some (see section 3.1.1). It is interesting, however, to see the sort of metalinguistic information that might be at the basis of such a question: when translating *hair*, they wondered what the best Spanish and Catalan equivalents might be (i.e. *pelo* or *cabello*?, *pèl* or *cabells*?).

The reason why the equivalents were not obvious for some children will be explained next. According to the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, *hair* can be defined as:

- 1 [countable] a fine threadlike growth from the skin of a person or animal
- 2 [uncountable] a mass of these growths, esp. on the head of human beings

According to the *Diccionari de la llengua catalana* (Catalan Dictionary), *cabell* relates to what human beings have on their heads and it can be used to refer to *one* hair and to its total amount. Regarding *pèl*, it is firstly defined as each one of the long fine things like thread that grow on the skin of most mammals and, secondly, as the total amount of matter that covers the body of an animal or part of the body of a human being.

According to the *Diccionario de la Lengua Española* (Spanish Dictionary), *cabello* relates to each one of the hairs that grows on the head of human beings and also to its total amount. Regarding *pelo*, it is firstly defined as each one of the long fine things like thread that grow on the skin of most mammals and some other types of animals; secondly, as the total amount of those threads; and, finally, as the hair on the head of a human being.

So, whereas *cabell* in Catalan or *cabello* in Spanish only relate to what grows on people's heads, *pèl* in Catalan or *pelo* in Spanish may relate both to the matter that grows on the body of some animals and of human beings and also to what grows on people's heads. Furthermore, and although *pèl* can be used to refer to what grows on people's heads, it is more common to use the term *cabell* in Catalan with this meaning; whilst the opposite seems to be true for Spanish (at least in Catalonia): although *cabello* can be used to refer to what grows on people's heads, *pelo* seems to be more commonly used.

Regarding their doubt as to what the best translation for *face* might be (i.e. *cara* or *cabeza*), what is happening here is that they are taking two Spanish words whose meaning is quite close (in English, the first would be *face* and the second *head*) and this meaning is not clarified by the flashcard used as visual support (the one pointed at by the teacher in the photograph below):



Figure 41. Glossary on the board

Had the teacher not done an activity of this sort, she might not have realised that the Spanish and/or Catalan equivalent of *face* was not clear to the children, or that the visual support use was not clear enough. It is interesting to add that a similar sort of discussion could take place in a French-speaking context (*cheveux, poil*) and an Italian-speaking context (*capello, pelo*), for instance. This would be a good example, therefore, of an occasion that would allow for more languages to be brought into the discussion thus making the experience more enriching. Ideally, such a discussion could be promoted by the teacher should there be any child in the group whose mother tongue was one of these. The language teacher should be aware of this aspect and create opportunities for the children's MTs to be used and referred to in class.

As they were involved in collaborative work, the students solved most of their difficulties by helping each other. Once their doubts were solved, all the cards were kept by the teacher to be used in the following activity. It is important to note, yet again, how creating the opportunity for such an activity, where the vocabulary is presented in English, allows for questions to arise concerning the children's MTs. Obviously the students did not go –and were not asked to go– so far when thinking of and talking about what the best translation was for *hair* or *face* as has been discussed above, for instance, but somehow all this metalinguistic information was highlighted during the discussion.

Glossary: equivalence

Observing the children as they stand up when it is their turn, some interesting comments can be made: on one occasion, a child with the card in Catalan hesitates as to which its column might be, moving the card from the Spanish column to the Catalan column until he finally decides. On another occasion, a child realises when standing in front of the board that the Catalan and Spanish translation of *mouth* is the same, i.e. *boca*, and thus can be placed under both headings. Yet on another occasion, a child wrongly places *hair* when the word needed is *ear*, and she is corrected by the classmates and the teacher. These observations are interesting because they make visible the exact moment when these three children have realised something –have *acquired* it– which might be obvious to the teacher, something that has been repeated quite a few times before reaching this point, but had not been learned yet.

Trilingual word search: spelling, comparison

Regarding the trilingual word search in unit 2, more difficulties could be observed and solved, especially regarding spelling, i.e. how many boxes for the Spanish letter *LL*? Asking themselves this question made them realize that the letter *LL* is not in the English alphabet, whereas it is in the Catalan and the Spanish ones. Again this is an example of how creating these activities allows for questions of a contrastive, (meta)linguistic, nature to arise. One more difficulty related to spelling occurred as it was not clear to some students whether the Catalan word for *ear* was *orella* or *urella* (as can be seen in the word search shown below). This is due to the fact that the two initial vowels in these words sound alike in Catalan: /u:/. Again, this is a difficulty that the researcher feels could only be observed –and therefore talked about and solved– by asking the children to do an activity of this sort. The truth is that they had seen the words *orella* many times before and, yet, the spelling had not been consolidated.

Similarly, they had difficulties with the Spanish word for *ear*, that is, *oreja*. Some students were not sure whether the word was *oreja* or *orega*. The reason for this is the fact that the letter *G* sounds like /h/ in Spanish when preceding the vowels *E* and *I*, and sounds like /g/ when preceding *A*, *O* or *U*. As the rule was not clear to the students, the doubt arose. By creating the opportunity for such a doubt to arise and solving it, these activities become good examples of how the students' L1s can be improved through the AL.

Trilingual chants: comparison,

Yet another observation can be made related to the chants the children sang in unit 2. The students noticed fact that, whereas in English there are two different words for *fingers* and *toes*, both in Catalan and Spanish there is only one, namely, *dits* and *dedos*. This led to a discussion of how these words can be ambiguous and of how, if the context is not enough to clarify it, they need to be followed by the expressions *de les mans/dels peus*, *de las manos/de los pies* (of hands/of feet). This is, therefore, another example of how further notions of a linguistic nature (i.e. ambiguity, context, specification) entered the classroom thus fostering metalinguistic discussion, language awareness and, all in all, plurilingual competence.

This chapter has been devoted to presenting the study and its results. As far as the results obtained in the context of this study are concerned, the use of PBCS in the AL classroom cannot be said to help improve language acquisition, as was hypothesised. However, it can be said to play a role in the improvement of other aspects: that is, language awareness, motivation and classroom atmosphere.

The development of language awareness is an unexpected positive outcome that is coherent with one of the more general aims of the research, which was to turn the AL classroom into a bilingualized space of learning where we are “teaching for transfer” (Cummins, 2008). The development of language awareness in terms of reflection upon the languages involved, comparisons among them, etc. is the sort of transfer that occurs naturally in bilingual speakers. It seems that bringing PBCS into the classroom can pave the way for this to happen in a formal context as well.

Regarding learner motivation and improvement of classroom atmosphere, these can be considered positive outcomes as well as they are essential ingredients of any successful learning process: motivation as key for learning (Dörnyei, 2005) and a relaxed and comfortable atmosphere to support learners (Auerbach, 1993; Levine, 2003; Littlewood & Yu, 2011).

4. Pedagogically-Based Codeswitching: Didactic Proposal

As already mentioned, the study that is described in this thesis is in line with research carried out on the uses of the L1 in the classroom in recent years (see section 2.1.3) and it responds to the main variables that play a role in ALT today (see section 1.3). Furthermore, it accords with the new perspective towards languages and language teaching defined in the *CEFRL* (Council of Europe, 2001) and in the Catalan Primary School Curriculum (Departament d'Educació, 2009), which is an important fact as they are the basic framework for language teachers.

Some of the aims included in the aforementioned documents that are relevant to this study deal with issues such as placing the aim of language teaching on the progressive command of languages, focusing on the development of the plurilingual and intercultural competences as well as the communicative competence, and realising that language learning *per se* is positive for the development of all the languages that shape students' dominant language constellation and multilinguality (see sections 1.1.1.8 and 1.1.1.9).

I agree with the aspects above as, all in all, we are talking about placing the language teaching focus on language command, language awareness, plurilingualism, mediation and interaction. It is clear that taking this new perspective into the classroom goes beyond teaching language as a communication tool and involves more than the linguistic skills. However, it is also clear that new didactic proposals are required (Jessner, 1999; Noguerol, n.d.) and classroom-based research, specifically related to how the different languages learners have available can be effectively used in the teaching process, is needed (G. Cook, 2010; V. Cook, 2001; Crawford, 2004; Cummins, 2005, 2008; Jessner, 1999; Hall & Cook, 2012; Liu et al., 2004; Macaro 1992, 2001, 2003, 2005; Meiring & Norman 2002; Stern 1992; Turnbull 2001; Turnbull & Arnett 2002; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain 2009).

It has been argued in this thesis that a feature of these new didactic proposals and object of classroom-based research may be related to finding an informed way of using the children's MTs in the AL classroom, that is, of creating opportunities to switch codes or to translanguage (García, 2009) while carrying out activities. This can be done, at least,

in two different ways: first, by using translation as a pedagogical tool, as advocated in TOLC by González Davies (2012a, 2012b) and in TILT by G. Cook (2010); second, by using CS also as a pedagogical tool, namely, PBCS (Corcoll, 2011).

As described earlier, PBCS is a pedagogical mode of CS designed by the AL teacher as an aid for language learning: the teacher promotes it for purely pedagogic reasons and it gives the students the chance to confront and compare their languages and, therefore, to spontaneously engage in metalinguistic reflection and discussion. The aim is to create opportunities for the students to use their languages in class by creating new and informed routes to go from language to language, that is, by giving the students the chance to translanguage. This is done without changing the main classroom language – i.e. English– and thus at the same time provides the students with the immersion-like context they require for learning as English is used for most of the time.

The underlying idea is that learners in the age-group of the participants in the study (7-8 year-olds) would still benefit greatly from an immersion-like context where they can make the most of contextual clues (i.e. non-verbal communication or visual support) while they also begin to be ready to move further in their concept development abilities and to transfer knowledge from and to the languages they know (Skinner, 1985). In other words, the informed use of PBCS is a didactic strategy to promote the acquisition of the AL and the development of language awareness in the language classroom, besides favouring motivation and a positive classroom working atmosphere.

In relation with the Additional Language Teaching Continuum presented above (see section 2.3) these students would be in the second stage of the continuum (i.e. young learners) though only at the very initial step, which means that they would benefit both from AL exposure with the support of non-verbal communication and visuals, and from the introduction of controlled PBCS promoted by the teacher.

The main aim of this chapter is to describe in detail the didactic path that was followed in this research. To do so, the activities will be described: their sequence, the group organization required, the plurilingual and metacognitive aims related to each one of them. Some of the relevant linguistic outcomes concerning language awareness that were observed have been described in section 3.4.2.4.2, when discussing the results.

Moreover, further analysis of children's results and other data has been the focus of chapter 3, The Study.

Regarding group organization, it is interesting to note that, even though different types of group organization were used throughout the research –providing for variety in the way of working–, it is also true that most of the activities involved group work of some sort. This is an important aspect because it seems to be key in helping achieve the socioaffective aims that were set for the study (i.e. encourage motivation and improve classroom atmosphere). It may help in several ways: first, it helps the plurilingual element develop as oral communication becomes a must; second, it promotes collaboration; third, it is enjoyed by most of the students, as is reflected in their written opinions and in the recorded group interviews; and, finally, it encourages participation as children feel more secure to participate in groups than individually and, thus, it improves classroom atmosphere and language acquisition. It can be argued, then, that using a plurilingual perspective in the AL class seems to be directly related to using collaborative work.

In order to introduce PBCS in the activities, the teacher followed a didactic sequence which was both known to the children and coherent within the teaching process. This sequence involves the following stages:

1. Presenting orally key language by using visual support (flashcards or pictures);
2. Contextualising key language through stories that were listened to and read aloud; and songs, that were read and listened to. This is when keywords are presented in longer, more meaningful, chunks of language;
3. Creating opportunities for the children to actively use the language, i.e. Acting out or expanding the stories, singing the songs, incorporating games that require collaboration and group work, and so on.

The pedagogical approach followed with all the students was socioconstructivist and humanistic, based on a communicative approach that promotes interaction and adapts to the learners' needs and interests, while viewing them as active participants in their learning process.

What was specifically designed for this research, however, were the activities that involved the three languages –English, Catalan and Spanish. These were designed for the first and the third stages above, as the second stage (contextualising key language) was completely developed in English. The activities were created by the teacher based on her teaching experience and the knowledge of the children, and also on authors such as Duff (1989), Deller and Rinvolucris (2002), González Davies (2004) and Mallof (2006), among others; and were carried out by the children in the treatment group (25 children), whilst the three control groups (25 children in each group) were taught the same contents, following the same sequence, but making no visible reference to their MTs, that is, using only English in the activities.

The children were using a textbook (Maidment & Roberts, 2003a) and most of the trilingual activities were based on activities suggested by the authors, although there were also activities introduced by the teacher that had been created by herself or were based on ideas taken from other sources.

During the research period, the children covered two units of the textbook: the first was devoted to food and drinks and the second to parts of the face (these correspond to units 3 and 4 in the textbook). Next, the sequence and rationale of the activities carried out by the treatment group will be described in detail. A brief description of the activities that were carried out by the control groups will be the focus of a later section.

Before moving on to the description, however, it is important to note that this proposal aims at being transferable, thus adaptable to any context and any group of children, whilst at the same time it is important to note that it was developed by the language teacher in order to adapt it to her students' –and school's– needs. This aspect is of utmost relevance, as it seems clear that any teacher who may be interested in using these ideas with his/her students will find it necessary to adapt parts of it.

A calendar showing when the plurilingual activities were introduced will clarify how the work was done with the children. The treatment group met from 8.45 to 9.45 on Monday and Tuesday, and the distribution of the activities of a plurilingual nature was as follows (some of the activities might have been started or introduced in one class and finished in the following):

2008	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
January		8 Pre-test u. 3	9	10	11
	14	15	16	17	18
	21 Session 1	22	23	24	25
	28 Session 2	29 Session 3	30	31	1
February	4	5	6	7	8
	11	12 Session 4	13	14	15
	18 Session 5 Post-test u. 3	19 Pre-test u. 4	20	21	22
	25 Session 1	26 Session 2	27	28	29
March	3 Session 3	4	5	6	7
	10 Session 4	11 Post-test u. 4	12	13	14

As can be seen in the calendar, lessons with activities involving the three languages (coloured) were combined with lessons where everything was carried out in English (not coloured). This is a clear example of how such a proposal can be incorporated in an immersion-like context and adapted to the usual way of teaching AL in our schools, at least for this age-group, except, obviously, for the research instruments being used.

It is also in accordance with the views on CS presented in the literature by authors who have conducted research on it, such as when Giauque & Ely state in that “CS is not a ‘method’ to be used throughout the entire year, but is a procedure leading to the stage

where the class is conducted entirely in the target language” (Giauque & Ely, 1990: 176). PBCS aims to be a helpful teaching strategy to be used in combination with other teaching strategies.

At the end of each lesson with plurilingual activities, the children in the treatment group answered the Activity Survey and, just after the lesson, a group of between 5 to 7 students participated in the recorded group interview. Moreover, the Motivation Survey (pre and post) and the Language Tests (pre and post) were done by all the participants. The children in the treatment group answered the survey and took the test as indicated in the calendar, that is, the Motivation Survey in the first class of the term and in the last, and the Language Tests before and after finishing the unit. The children in the control groups did exactly the same, only changing the days of the week depending on when they had English class.

4.1. Didactic proposal I: I’m hungry!

According to the didactic plan suggested in the textbook (Maidment & Roberts, 2003a), the contents that children were expected to learn when dealing with the topic of food and drinks were (Roberts, 2003: 5):

Main language	Additional language	Teacher language (recognition)
Fish	(in) the kitchen	Are you hungry?
Cheese	We’re helping Mum	Do I put the cheese in the fridge
Yoghurt	with the shopping	or in the cupboard?
Bread	Open the cupboard	Who is drinking lemonade?
Rice	/fridge	
Pasta	Put it away	
Here’s some (cheese)	Look on the table	
Do you like (cheese)?	I’m hungry too!	
Yes. No.	Have another turn!	
Coffee	My/your turn!	
Tea	Soup	

Lemonade		
Milk		
Water		
Orange juice		
I like/ don't like (lemonade)		

Table 49. Language contents for the unit on food and drink

The language contents above were taken into account and the activities and their sequencing were planned. Next, there is an overview of such planning for the treatment group. In this overview, the activities are related to the stage, and the plurilingual and metacognitive objectives are included. There is also an acronym to indicate the type of group organisation that was used, namely:

1. IW: individual work
2. CW: whole class work
3. PW: pair work
4. GW: group work

Stage	Activities	Group organization	Plurilingual aims	Metacognitive aims
-	Pre-test	IW	-	-
1	Vocabulary presentation (flashcards)	CW	Introduce word-to-word translation skills	Introduce basic awareness skills – make children translate, face translation difficulties and find differences and similarities among languages
	Grid	IW	Begin use of basic CS (single words)	Awareness and production skills (knowledge + use of language)
	Colour card game	GW	Switching codes	Switching codes rapidly – increasing cognitive difficulty
2	Listen to story and act out	CW + GW	-	-
	Listen to chant and sing	CW + GW	-	-
3	Trilingual chorus	CW	Develop basic translation skills (single words) in three languages	Phonetic awareness
	Class survey	PW	Continue use of basic CS (single words) in peer-to-peer communication	Awareness and production skills (knowledge + use of language)
	Trilingual flashcard game	CW + GW	Understanding, processing, and reacting to different codes in a short time span	Rapid non-verbal response to CS – increasing cognitive difficulty
	Chant	GW	Develop sentence/text translation skills	Awareness of more complex units of language and their expression in different languages
	What have you got in your restaurant?	GW	Develop more complex translation skills (noun phrases) with no sample.	Awareness of more complex units of language and their expression in different languages
	Multilingual matching game	PW	Consolidate learnt vocabulary translation.	Quickness in switching codes – increase processing speed
-	Post-test	IW	-	-

Table 50. Overview of the didactic sequence for unit 1 (treatment group)

4.1.1. Session 1

After doing the pre-test for this didactic proposal in a previous session, the activities began as follows.

Vocabulary presentation

The teacher introduces the topic (food and drink) and shows the picture cards, one by one, whilst saying the word in English. Next, the pictures and the word cards in English are placed on the board. The teacher takes this opportunity to ask the children the names of the pictures in Catalan. This is done as a class activity, where the question is not asked to individual children but to the group in general, and only those who wish to answer do so. The teacher then suggests including Spanish in the game in the following session, and as the children respond very positively, it is included. The aim is to open the door for the children's MTs (see section 3.2 for further information on children's home language/s) to come into the classroom in a natural and stress free way.

Grid

After having presented the vocabulary with the help of flashcards, children are given the worksheet in Appendix 1. They must fill it in individually. It is important to note that the picture is the starting point –as the visual support is especially helpful with this age-group (Flores & Corcoll, 2008; Skinner, 1985)–, and that this is followed by English – the language of reference in class– and Catalan –the school language. This is so because when several languages are used in the activities, the order will always be the same: English, Catalan and Spanish. This is to indicate that English is *the* language being taught, Catalan is the first school language, and Spanish is the second school language.

As in the previous activity, the teacher chooses to incorporate only Catalan here, as it is the first occasion on which these children are asked to think of language and do a written activity in these, plurilingual, terms.

Colour card game

After having completed the worksheet individually, a game is played in order to keep working on the vocabulary in the two languages. All the pictures and word cards in English are on the board, and the teacher stands in front of them with two cards of different colours: one blue card for English and one red card for Catalan. Children need to call out the name of the picture that is pointed at in the language that corresponds to the card. After the teacher has modelled the activity a few times (as modelling is used as a teaching strategy that helps the teacher give instructions clearly without having to resort to the children's MTs) (Flores & Corcoll, 2011), a child takes on the teacher's role and chooses one of the groups³² to call out the answers (as shown in the photograph below). This activity proves to be both fun –because it is cognitively demanding as the children need to think quickly about the language they need to use, but also possible³³– and difficult –as these children are not used to switching from one code to another in such a short time.



Figure 42. Colour card game

³² In this class, children sit around tables in groups of between 4 and 6. Each group is given a number.

³³ Thus following the Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky, 1978).

4.1.2. Session 2

Trilingual chorus

Before doing the class survey (which will be described below), the teacher leads three activities which aim at activating the vocabulary in English, Catalan and Spanish. In the first place, the teacher sticks the flashcards on the board and, as each one is stuck, asks the children the name in English, Catalan and Spanish. Next, two groups are formed and they stand in two lines facing each other. One child is responsible for showing one of the pictures to one of the groups. They must call out the name in English, Catalan and Spanish in chorus³⁴. If they do it well, they get one point. Each group does the same in turns. Finally, one of the groups gets the pictures and the other gets the word cards. One child calls out one food or drink and the children with the picture and the word card in English must stick their cards together on the board. After, they must say the word also in Catalan and in Spanish.



Figure 43. Trilingual chorus

³⁴ It is important to note that the linguistic production demanded by the teacher at this stage is still not individualised. This helps everyone in the group feel more confident to participate and it also helps improve classroom atmosphere.

Class survey

Once the vocabulary has been activated in the three languages, the teacher copies the survey on the board and models the activity with the children: the teacher asks three children whether they like a certain food or drink. Answers given are symbolised as ✓, X or ~, and verbalised as *yes*, *no* and *so-so*. Once the activity has been exemplified and everybody knows what they have to do, children are given their worksheets and they walk around the classroom asking each other. Before starting, however, they are reminded to try and use only English during the activity as this is a good opportunity for the children to engage in meaningful conversations in the AL and, at this point, this is valued by the teacher as a more important aim than having them codeswitch.



Figure 44. Class survey

The worksheet they use for the survey is shown in Appendix 2. In the treatment group, the children were asked to write the name of the food and drinks in the three languages, although they were only asking in English when doing the interview.

4.1.3. Session 3

Trilingual flashcard game

The children have listened to and read the following chant on their textbooks (Maidment & Roberts, 2003a: 19):

I don't like coffee
I don't like tea
I like lemonade
Lemonade for me!

Next, they are asked to stand in lines and make six groups. The first child in each line has a flashcard and word card representing that group, as in the picture below:



Figure 45. Trilingual flashcard game

The teacher calls out the names of the pictures in English or Catalan or Spanish and, when they hear their word, all the children in the group have to raise their hands. In the same position, children listen to the chant –only in English– and again they raise their picture and hands when they hear their word in the song.

Chant

Once the language and the music are familiar, the children are asked to work collaboratively in a translation and singing activity. Children have an adapted version of the chant in the three languages, with blanks to include food or drink, on the board:



Figure 46. Chant on the board

They have to copy the chant in the three languages and fill in the blanks with new foods or drinks that will also be translated accordingly. They know that, afterwards, they will sing the resulting three versions of the chant in front of their classmates. See Appendix 3 for all the chants.

4.1.4. Session 4

What have you got in your restaurant?

In this activity, students were shown a menu like the one below:

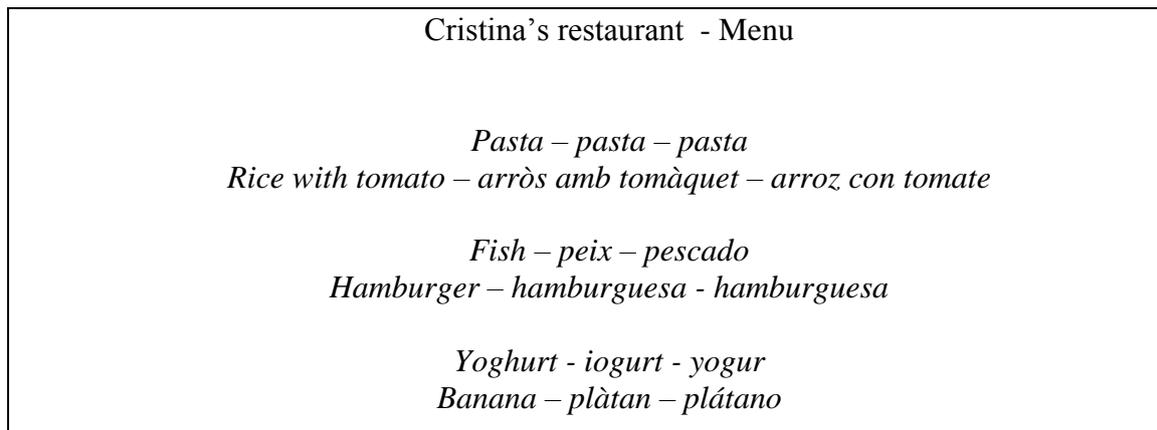


Figure 47. What have you got in your restaurant?

The teacher asked them why they thought the menu was written in three languages and, after a brief discussion, they decided it might be for tourists. The point of a discussion such as this one was making clear to the children that using different languages, translating, etc. responds to real communication needs we may all have.

Afterwards, they were asked to produce something similar on big cards and working in groups. Each group was responsible for one part of the menu: starter, main course, desert, and drink; and they had to decide what to offer in their restaurant, draw it and write it in the three languages. See Appendix 4 for the complete menu.

After doing their part of the menu, each group was asked to stick their picture in the corresponding place, as shown in the photograph below:

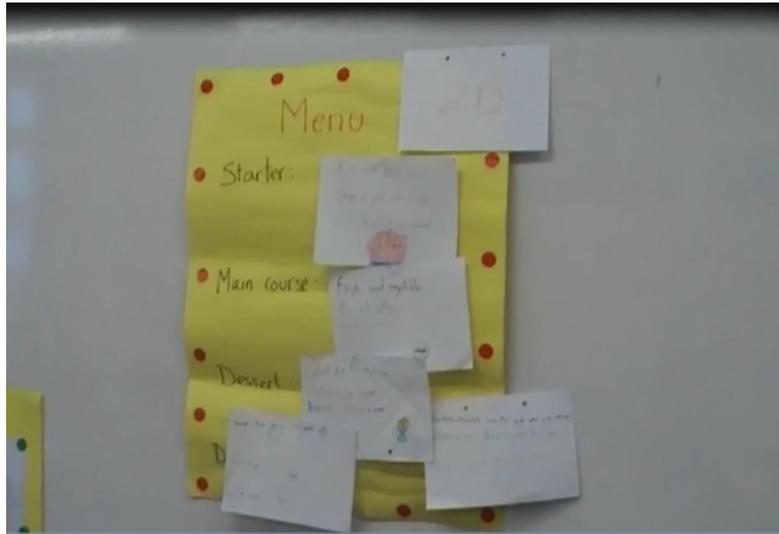


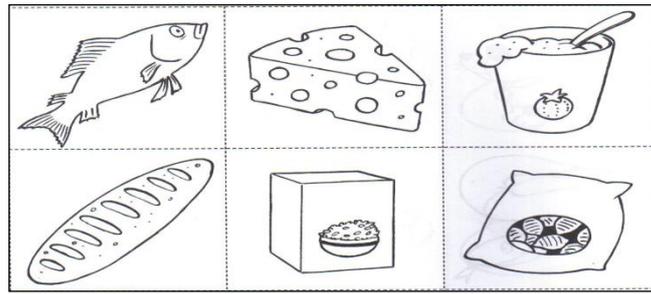
Figure 48. Menu on the board

As they stuck their photograph, they read their menu in the three languages: English, Catalan and Spanish.

4.1.5. Session 5

Multilingual matching game

Each pair of students was given a set of the cards as the one shown below, they cut out the pictures and the word cards and put them face down on their tables. In pairs, they had to turn cards and make groups of four. As they made groups, they had to read the words in the three languages.



Fish	Cheese	Yoghurt
Bread	Rice	Pasta
Peix	Formatge	Iogurt
Pà	Arròs	Pasta
Pescado	Queso	Yogur
Pan	Arroz	Pasta

Figure 49. Cards for the matching game.

When asked, children said that they found the activity quite difficult, but they all said they enjoyed it, too, as it was different to what they were used to. This comment may be said to be linking again adequate cognitive difficulty with having fun.

4.2. Didactic proposal II: Happy faces!

The second didactic proposal that was carried out dealt with parts of the face (and some parts of the body) by incorporating trilingual activities. As seen in the textbook (Maidment & Roberts, 2003a), the contents that children were expected to learn when dealing with the topic of parts of the body were (Roberts, 2003: 5):

Main language	Additional language	Teacher language (recognition)
Face hair eyes nose Ears mouth Look at my (face) I've got (a pink nose) A tail Big Teeth Brown black blond I've got (brown) hair I've got (blue) eyes Feet hands I've got spots on my (face)	Oh, can't you see? It's me!	Draw the (mouth/a big face) Have you got (big ears?) Touch your (nose) What colour hair/eyes have you got? How many children have got (blond hair)?

Table 51. Language contents for the unit on parts of the face

As in the previous example, these textbook contents were added to those that the teacher found interesting to include, and the activities and their sequencing were planned. Next, there is an overview of such planning for the treatment group (where the activities are related to the stage and the plurilingual and metacognitive objectives are included). The acronyms indicating group organization are also included.

Stage	Activities	Group organization	Plurilingual aims	Metacognitive aims
-	Pre-test	IW	-	-
1 oral presentation of key language	Vocabulary presentation (flashcards)	CW	Introduce word-to-word translation skills	Introduce basic awareness skills – make children face translation difficulties and find differences and similarities among languages; question their L1 knowledge
	Glossary	CW	Connecting words with images.	Matching word with its language.
	Trilingual word search	PW	Begin production single words CS	Awareness and production skills (knowledge + use of language)
2 contextualising key language	Listen to story and act out	CW + GW	-	-
	Listen to song and sing	CW + GW	-	-
3 active use of language	Listening: chant	CW	Guessing from context. Continue word-to-word translation skills.	Awareness of more complex units of language
	Move your body	CW	React non-verbally to instructions given in different languages.	Processing information in different languages.
	Trilingual chants (1)	GW	Develop sentence/text translation skills based on a sample given by teacher.	Awareness of more complex units of language
	Trilingual chants (2)	GW	Sing by CS.	Awareness of more complex units of language
-	Post-test	IW	-	-

Table 52. Overview of the didactic sequence for unit 2 (treatment group)

4.2.1. Session 1

After doing the pre-test for this didactic proposal in a previous session, the activities began as follows.

Vocabulary presentation

The teacher presents the vocabulary with the picture cards as usual. To practice the language, a game is played on the board: the teacher blindfolds two children that stand side by side facing the board. She gives them instructions (i.e. draw a big circle, draw a nose in the middle, etc.) so that they draw a face. Once the children are finished, they see their resulting faces.

Next, the teacher draws a circle on the board and puts the flashcards with parts of the face upside down as the children tell her. They uncover the cards and look at whether they are in the right position or not. This makes them laugh and gets the language activated again. Right cards are shown and wrong cards are left upside down. They try to correct the mistakes according to what they remember and the teacher takes the opportunity to ask for the translations in Catalan and Spanish. To finish, she gives pieces of paper to pairs of children where they write the words in Catalan or Spanish of one of the parts of the body. This task allowed the teacher to see some of the translation difficulties children encountered and how they solved them. It was interesting to see them engaged in a translation task, which is not something they were used to doing, at least openly, in the AL classroom. As discussed in chapters 1 and 2, many authors have noted the usefulness of translation as pedagogical tool, as Cook, G. 2002, 2007, 2010; Cummins 2005, 2008; González Davies 2004, 2007b, 2012a, 2012b; González Davies & Scott-Tennent 2009 or Owen, 2003.

4.2.2. Session 2

Glossary

The picture, the English word card and the cards done by the children in the previous activity are used in this session. The teacher begins by giving them all out to the students, one each, and presents an example of a four-card group on the board. Then the teacher explains that she will point to something on her face and the four children with cards relating to that part of the face must stand up and make the group on the board and place the cards in the following order: picture, English, Catalan, and Spanish. The teacher chooses to use body language in this activity so that the children need to think of all the words –in the three languages– by themselves. Once all the cards are placed on the board, children and teacher read them together –thus checking pronunciation again– to make sure that all the cards are correctly placed. By the end of the activity, which was presented to the students as a game by, for instance, asking them to increase the speed as more and more sets of cards were placed, they had the trilingual glossary on the board with cards that had been made by them, as can be seen in the photograph below, and through an activity that had allowed for collaboration and repetition of key vocabulary.

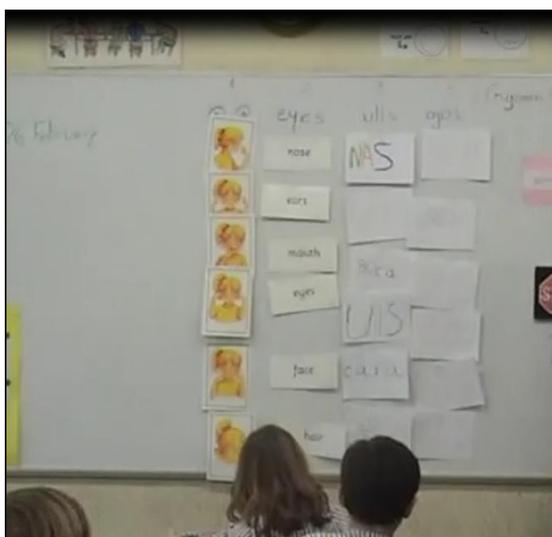


Figure 50. Trilingual glossary on the board

Trilingual word search

Another activity that was done during the stage of language presentation, but which demanded a more active use of the language on the part of the students, was the trilingual word search. For this activity, the glossary done previously was left on the board and the teacher drew a word search next to it to exemplify the task.

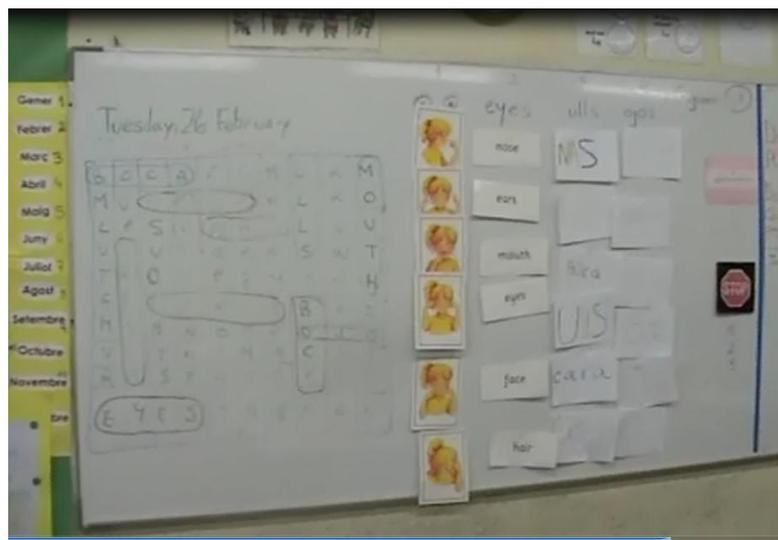


Figure 51. Glossary and word search

Then, the children were given a blank word search square that they had to prepare for a classmate to solve. This was motivating for them as they saw it as a vocabulary game, and relevant for the teacher as they were working on the key language again.

The procedure was the following: children were told to choose three parts of the body in English. They had to write these three words –and their corresponding translations in Catalan and Spanish– in the word search and fill in the rest of the squares with other letters, as in the photograph below.

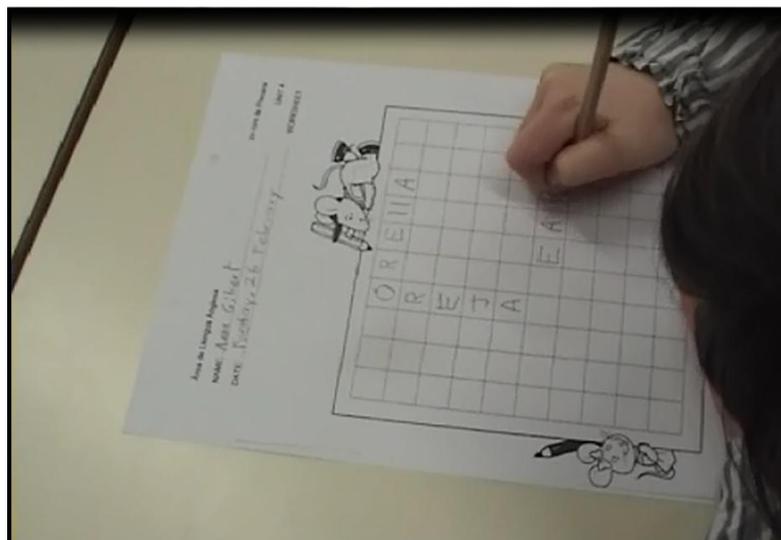


Figure 52. Word search

Once finished, pairs of children swapped their resulting word searches (see a sample in Appendix 5) and tried to solve them. When they found a word in any of the three languages, they had to find the translations and circle the three words. As happened in other activities, one of the students is overheard saying “és molt guai” (*This is cool*).

4.2.3. Session 3

Listening: chants

Regarding the third stage described above (that is, creating opportunities for the children to actively use the language, i.e. acting out or expanding the stories, singing the songs, incorporating games that require collaboration and group work), on this occasion children were asked to learn a song, sing it and act it out.

The starting point for this was to read the chants³⁵ (see the figure below) and have students guess which part of the body might be missing (taking the number –i.e. two or ten– as a clue). The part of the body they say is written on the board. Next, they listen to the chants and see whether their guesses were right or wrong. This part of the activity is

³⁵ The sources for the chants are Super Songs (2003) and Lobo & Subirà (1999), respectively.

ended by writing the correct words on each worksheet (see a sample of the students' work in Appendix 6).

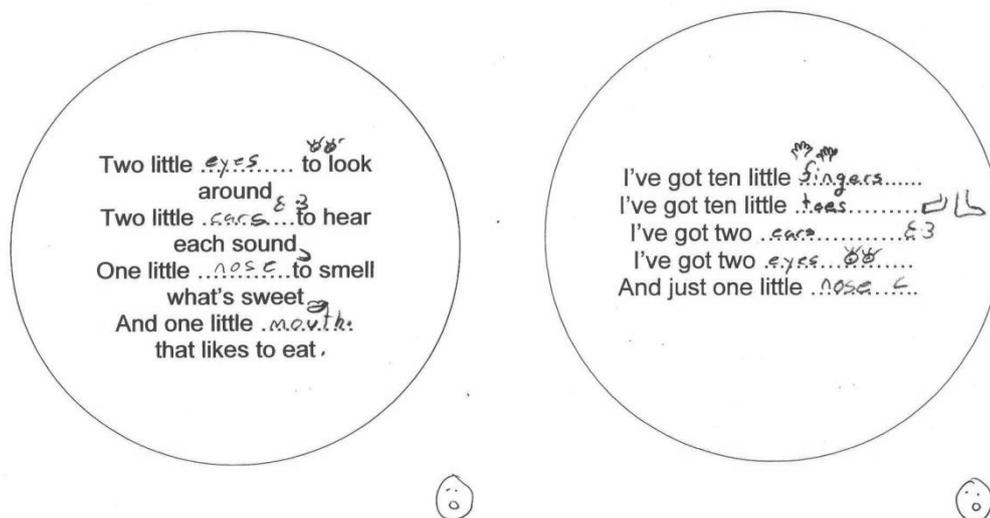


Figure 53. Chants

When they had identified all the words, the answers were corrected and the teacher asked for the translation of these words in Catalan and Spanish. This led to a more physical activity, described below.

Move your body!

Children were asked to stand along two walls of the classroom so that they could all see each other, and follow the instructions: first, the teacher would call out a part of the body in English, and they had to point to it on their bodies; once this was clear for everyone, she would call out a part of the body in any of the three languages and they had to do likewise; next, she played the chants and they had to sing and point again (thus linking language and movement, which helps make learning more memorable³⁶).

³⁶ This can be related to the Total Physical Response (TPR) method (Asher, 1977).



Figure 54. Move your body!

Trilingual chant (1)

Finally, still standing along the walls, they were asked to sing the chants whilst switching to the language called out by the teacher when saying the keywords and pointing to that part of the body. They do it first without the music and after with the music. This proved to be a fun activity, but also quite demanding as they had to codeswitch quite fast, and they also had to be careful to remember which language it was their turn to codeswitch to.

4.2.4. Session 4

Trilingual chant (2)

For this activity, children were sitting at their tables and each group chose one language, as seen in the picture below:

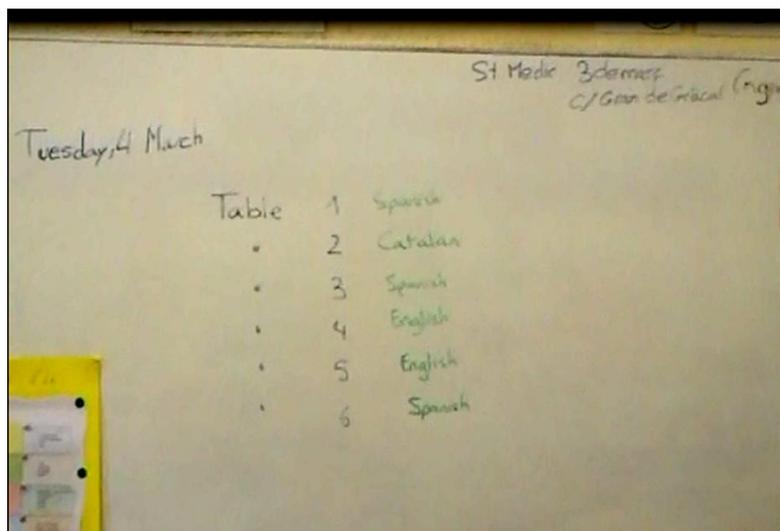


Figure 55. Language choice per group

First, children and teacher sing the chants together (which, by now, the children have memorised) and each group sings the keywords in the language that corresponds to their table. Next, they do the same thing without the teacher's help and with the music on. The activity is repeated switching the language for each group.

Clearly, the sequence of activities described above is only an example of how a teacher can deal with some of the language contents that are usual for this age-group by including other languages in the process. These two didactic proposals could be extended and new aims could be added. The point here is that this example allows to see, in both real and realistic terms, how such work can be done.

4.3. Programming units with the control groups

The control groups covered exactly the same AL contents but no reference was made to either Catalan or Spanish. Next, there is an overview of the two programming units with the control groups, which shows the sequencing of the activities, related to the stage, and including information regarding the sort of group organization used.

Stage	Activities
-	Pre-test [IW]
1 oral presentation of	Vocabulary presentation (flashcards) [CW]

key language	Grid: I like/I don't like columns [IW]
2 key language in context	Listen to story and act out
	Listen to chant and sing
3 active use of language	Matching game with flashcards [CW]
	Class survey [PW]
	Flashcard game [CW + GW]
	Chant [GW]
	Menu [GW]
	Matching game (picture, English) [PW]
-	Post-test [IW]

Table 53. Overview of the didactic sequence for unit 1 (control groups)

Stage	Activities
-	Pre-test [IW]
1 oral presentation of key language	Vocabulary presentation (flashcards) [CW]
	Glossary: picture and English [CW]
	Word search (only English) [PW]
2 contextualising key language	Listen to story and act out
	Listen to song and sing
3 active use of language	Listening: chant
	Move your body
	Chants [GW]
	Chants in groups [GW]
-	Post-test [IW]

Table 54. Overview of the didactic sequence for unit 2 (control groups)

Some examples of the worksheets done by children in the control groups are presented in Appendix 7. Specifically, there are samples of the following activities:

- Unit 1: grid (I like/I don't like), class survey, chant.
- Unit 2: word search, chants.

The description of the two didactic units presented above shows how PBCS can be introduced into the teaching process by creating and/or adapting teaching activities while,

at the same time, not changing the communicative and dynamic approach that is required when dealing with an AL with young learners. The fact that this is so makes PBCS an effective and powerful teaching strategy as it can be used in a wide variety of contexts, to deal with different language contents, with different groups of students, etc. whilst remaining useful for encouraging motivation, creating a positive classroom atmosphere and developing students' language awareness.

5. Conclusions and Further Research

The aim of this chapter is to offer some concluding remarks and to outline possible routes for further research whether by improving some aspects of the study presented here or by opening up new possibilities.

As argued in chapters 1 and 2, the theoretical standpoint taken here is related to literature and classroom-based research where arguments are given in favour of an informed use of the L1 in the classroom. These arguments support L1 use on the basis of tenets such as bilingualization, multicompetence, intercultural competence, and connectionism. In all cases, the aim is to see the AL classroom as a space where plurilingual communication skills are promoted and where (meta)cognitive and socioaffective abilities are developed.

While in accordance with the above views and drawing from them, the main contribution that is made here is related to the design and implementation of a specific pedagogical mode of CS which serves at least two purposes. On the one hand, it can be effectively and realistically used by teachers who teach the AL in a formal learning context and who need to adapt to issues such as contents that should be covered, number of hours available, number of students per class, etc. On the other hand, it can be presented as an *informed* use of the L1, as it is not used at random or spontaneously, but responds to a previous planning decided by the teacher when designing classroom activities. Finally, the Additional Language Teaching Continuum in which it is placed allows for a long-term understanding of the ALT process, in which the L1 is introduced progressively and in a way that responds to students' cognitive, communicative and socioaffective needs.

This being so, the research presented here was carried out with the belief that the English teacher in a Primary School should and could have a role that goes beyond teaching purely linguistic points. It is precisely in the AL classroom where children can face a reality that is plurilingual and that, therefore, is richer than a monolingual one: the AL classroom is, by definition, a plurilingual space. It is in this setting where they can be encouraged to work with the different languages they have available in order to enrich their learning process, taking into account that advancing in the knowledge of any language –be it their MT or an AL– is going to benefit the others. These children will eventually need to be plurilingual and pluricultural speakers because they will live in a

society that is increasingly so. They will need to be more and more multicompetent and the Primary School should begin to prepare them for the challenge of social and economic mobility in their future.

As described above, the hypotheses and research questions underlying this research are the following:

1. The use of PBCS will favour oral comprehension in English
2. The use of PBCS will favour English vocabulary acquisition and production
3. Will the use of PBCS favour students' motivation for learning?
4. Will the use of PBCS favour classroom atmosphere?

Regarding hypotheses 1 and 2, the results do not corroborate them, although it is important to say that even though the children's oral comprehension and vocabulary acquisition and production did not improve more in the treatment group than in the control groups, it did not diminish. All groups learnt during that time period. In other words, the use of the children's MTs in the English classroom did not seem to have a negative impact on their process of language acquisition, as tested by language tests done by all participants in the study.

Although this aspect needs to be researched further, a likely explanation could be related to the age of the students and to their level of proficiency, as well as to the fact that a longer exposure to plurilingual activities may be needed before more positive results concerning language acquisition begin to show.

PBCS, contextual clues such as non-verbal communication, visual support, and so on, were effectively used by the teacher to create an enriching and motivating learning space. Probably these students, due to their still basic language proficiency level, still benefited mostly from these strategies. This would explain why the learning process was successful in all the groups.

However, this should not be taken to mean that the use of PBCS did not serve any purpose: even if it did not seem to bring about positive cognitive results –related to

linguistic acquisition *per se*–, other types of benefits may be attributed to it, as described next. In this sense, it was observed during the research process that the use of PBCS in the plurilingual activities made it possible for the students to develop as language learners by acquiring new learning strategies. These strategies were related to engaging in contrastive analysis, using explicitly prior linguistic knowledge and identifying traits of their languages. Engaging in these activities made them more holistic language learners, and actually, more holistic learners.

Regarding research questions 3 and 4, they have been corroborated by the research. When answering questions or when talking about the activities done in class, the comments made by students were mostly positive: they enjoyed the activities and they felt that they had learnt from them.

As regards motivation, although the great majority of the students answered in the pre-Motivation Survey that they enjoyed English, the answer was also very positive when answering after the treatment. Moreover, when they were asked whether they would like to repeat the plurilingual activities (both in the Activity Surveys and the recorded group interviews), most of the answers were again affirmative. Finally, comments made by the students in the classroom also showed their enthusiasm. In this sense, the language classroom seemed to be a comfortable and motivating place for all of them, which is one of the most important conditions for successful learning.

As regards classroom atmosphere, observations can be made regarding the fact that they enjoyed group work and, as in the research group work required use of different languages, this also meant that children that tended not to participate so much when everything was carried out in English (because of shyness, insecurity or lack of knowledge) found more opportunities to participate and share their language abilities in the L1 with the classmates. In a way, everyone seemed to feel more at ease as children's participation was high and as all children –depending on the language/s they speak at home– found moments when they would feel safe and able to answer and speak for themselves. I believe this is a very positive outcome that should definitely be researched further.

In a nutshell, it can be said that the additional language classroom became a plurilingual setting where mediation, collaboration and personal engagement were promoted.

The last outcome to be discussed was not hypothesised when planning the research process and it has actually arisen from the analysis of the data themselves, following a Grounded Theory approach, as an unexpected outcome. This outcome is related to the development of language awareness or metalinguistic thought observed in the treatment group and it is probably the greatest benefit that has been obtained by the students in the treatment group. It may be argued that languages seem to gain a clearer status in the children's minds than they had when they were presented separately, and transference of knowledge and abilities is thus promoted. This development has been observed in various ways and it mainly manifested itself in some of the written answers in the Activity Surveys and in the children's conversations in the recorded group interviews, as well as in the children's worksheets and observation of classroom activities.

Language awareness development is an important finding as it cannot be forgotten that the participants were 7-8 year old children in a context of formal foreign language learning and they are not usually expected by teachers to be able to spontaneously establish comparisons between the languages they have at hand, which is something that research says about natural bilingual children. This finding is also important and innovative as not much classroom-based research concerning ALL has been carried out with this age-group to the moment, with the exception of publications such as Cenoz (2002) and Muñoz (2006).

Also of relevance is the discussion on the instruments used. I believe it is the sum of the different research instruments that have been used which has made the study meaningful and the novelty is the fact that this has been done with young learners. Thanks to the variety of sources of data collected, a clear picture about the children's learning and their feelings and perceptions about learning can be obtained.

First, language tests (pre-test and post-test) have been useful to see the progress made by the children as regards their language skills. This instrument has been key to compare results obtained by treatment and control groups.

Second, the analysis of the answers included in the Activity Surveys –answered by the children in the treatment group at the end of the plurilingual sessions– has helped to assess motivation levels and to discover the development of language awareness.

Third, the analysis of the transcriptions of the recorded group interviews has also shed light on the children’s motivation. They have also been a key element in order to corroborate the idea that children tend to equate a reachable degree of cognitive difficulty with enjoyment or fun. In their conversations, explicit mention of the use of different languages in the classroom was also made, together with some reflections upon the nature of English and other languages. The former aspect –that is, explicit mention of the use of different languages in the classroom– was not addressed as much as expected (as it was clearly *the* novelty introduced in the lessons with the treatment group) in their written answers. In fact, it was quite scarce, which can be taken to mean that children viewed it as a natural learning strategy.

Fourth, the analysis of the answers included in the motivation surveys –completed both by the treatment group and the control groups– has shed light on three different items, that is, motivation, classroom atmosphere and language awareness. The use of this instrument has been important because it has allowed the qualitative comparison of the answers given by treatment and control groups. The identification of key words that were used more often by the children in the treatment group in the post-test than in the pre-test, and also more often by this group than by the control groups, has been crucial in assessing the development of language awareness.

Fifth, the teacher’s diary and the recorded lessons have been useful to capture spontaneous comments made by children regarding their enjoyment of a particular activity and also their eagerness to participate in it.

Finally, the observation and analysis of the worksheets and classroom activities has possibly been the richest as it has allowed the teacher/researcher to focus on the learning process carried out by the students and to seek an explanation for the reasons behind their answers or attitudes. This analysis is especially interesting from a contrastive point of view (putting Catalan, Spanish and English side by side) and also taking into account how learning an AL can help children with their own MTs.

The aim of this thesis has been to find an effective way to use the L1 in an AL classroom with young learners where the focus is on form as well as on meaning, and in a sociolinguistic context in which the presence of English is limited. By doing so, communicative and learning strategies that are widely used by speakers in plurilingual contexts are promoted in a context where they may not occur spontaneously. The ultimate aim is to turn the traditional foreign language classroom into a plurilingual classroom and thus accept the fact that when we are teaching an AL, we are, to a greater or lesser extent, developing plurilingualism.

Furthermore, I believe it is interesting to establish bridges between SLT and FLT, and sociolinguistics, as there are linguistic phenomena that may be defined and assessed differently depending on where we observe them from. One of these phenomena is CS, which is viewed as a skilful and appropriate strategy in sociolinguistics, and yet has been viewed as an error and an evidence of lack of competence in SLA for a long time. It is generally true that whereas CS is accepted as a helpful communicative strategy in plurilingual speech, it is also frowned upon when suggestions are made to use it in the AL classroom. I believe there is nothing wrong in the use of CS *per se* but I argue that its effectiveness for learning lies in its pedagogical use. This is why I have made a pedagogically-based proposal to bring it into the language classroom.

As explained and exemplified thoroughly in the thesis, where teachers and researchers begin to accept the benefits of using the L1 in the language classrooms, this use is mostly related to aspects such as giving instructions, teaching grammar, etc. That is, L1 seems to have a message-oriented function and when teachers feel that students will not understand the message or they feel they can not make themselves understood, they switch to the L1. Even though I partially agree with this message-oriented function of L1, the role of PBCS in the classroom differs from this generalised view.

PBCS is linked to a medium-oriented function, rather than message-oriented. In the context of this research, it is not used to clarify or help understanding. Given the age of the students, their experience with English and the role of non-verbal communication and visual support in the classroom, this was not necessary. PBCS is rather used to create opportunities for the children to combine their languages, use them actively and,

therefore, empower them to grow as language learners. This is so because the mere presence of the languages in the activities makes them begin to think in linguistic terms, make comparisons, observe differences and establish hypotheses. PBCS moves the L1 to the centre of the AL classroom, away from peripheral uses, and it empowers use of L1. That is, by using PBCS, students are developing their language awareness.

PBCS is a novelty because, even though many authors are advocating the use of CS in the classroom (teacher CS and/or learner CS), they are talking about CS as a communicative strategy that is useful *when* teaching and maybe not so much *for* teaching. PBCS –and its use with young learners– is not an instance of a communicative strategy but it rather wishes to be a strategy *for* teaching, that is, to be used within the classroom activities and mainly by the children. This is not to deny that CS might be useful in an AL classroom for aspects such as socialising, undertaking collaborative tasks, etc. However, this is not the aim of PBCS.

A notion that may be helpful in establishing the difference between the use of CS *when* teaching and *for* teaching lays at the basis of the difference between the controlled PBCS and the spontaneous CS defined in section 2.2 and placed at different stages in the Language Teaching Continuum described in section 2.3.

As was done in the Introduction, conclusions regarding the use of PBCS in the language classroom with young learners may be also presented from different viewpoints: as a teacher, as a researcher, and as a teacher researcher.

As a teacher, the following aspects are worth highlighting:

1. In the first place, the use of PBCS helps students understand, so learning was perceived as less difficult and, yet, more motivating.
2. In the second place, the quality and depth of (meta)linguistic discussion (and, thus, of language awareness development) that the children are able to engage in depends greatly on the effectiveness of the activities that they carry out. This highlights how important it is that the activity design and planning is done by the language teacher

who knows the children, their interests and their linguistic background, and who can more easily see beyond superficial reactions thanks to this prior knowledge.

3. In the third place, the activities of a plurilingual nature are likely to be collaborative. This might be considered either a consequence or an effect, but it is in any case positive for the learning process and the classroom atmosphere. It also promotes mediation between languages and knowledge, which is, in its turn, another ability that plurilingual speakers should develop.
4. In the fourth place, even if they lack grammatical knowledge, children are able to identify structures or language uses that are not correct. In a sense, they can *notice* that something is wrong when, for instance, an article is missing in a Spanish noun phrase or the word order is not appropriate in an English noun phrase. This noticing can only be effectively developed in language contexts that are based on:
 - immersion,
 - communicative teaching, and
 - simultaneous use of different languages that is informed, rather than spontaneous, and that plays a specific role that the teacher can promote, as PBCS intends.
5. In the fifth place, it seems that bringing more languages to the classroom as part of the teaching and learning activities in an informed way improves classroom atmosphere because, on the one hand, it enhances the relationship between work and play (as working with three languages at the same time is more cognitively-demanding and, in consequence, more motivating for children), and, on the other, it helps release tension.
6. In the sixth place, it does not change the role of English as *the* language that is being taught as English remains the language used in the classroom most of the time, thus not diminishing greatly the amount of exposure to the AL. That is, English is still perceived by students as the main language of instruction.
7. In the seventh place, learning materials to include PBCS in ALL can be designed successfully for young learners and they can be easily adapted to cover the learning

contents Primary School students are supposed to acquire as indicated in the Curriculum for Primary Education.

8. In the eighth place, a higher exposure to English (here linked to extracurricular lessons) does influence performance significantly. In this sense, the teacher needs to be aware of whether some of his/her students are taking extracurricular English, and take this fact into account when planning the lessons.
9. Finally, this research intends to provide interesting outcomes to be dealt with in the context of teacher training, thus contributing to teacher development and innovation.

As a researcher, and thinking very specifically about the research process involving young learners, some considerations and aspects that need to be improved have to be taken into account for further research:

1. It has proven difficult for children to be very explicit in their answers (especially in their written answers) as to what they have learnt, enjoyed, and so on. This might be due to the fact that some of these answers required complex abstract thinking skills, which were maybe too demanding for some of the children, or it may also indicate that some sort of training is required before starting the research process as such.
2. However, a difference can be made when comparing participants' answers in their written surveys and in the group interviews, in the sense that they are generally much richer and meaningful in the latter. As has been mentioned before, this is probably due to the fact that they may feel more comfortable speaking about their own opinions than writing about them because they are still developing their writing skills and their ability for abstract thinking; and also the consequence of discussing in groups means that they help and learn from each other.
3. Furthermore, and as stated by many of the children when answering the question "what did you like the least?" in the motivation survey, many found it boring and/or difficult to answer the questions in the surveys. This clearly did not help the research process, although a clear effort had been made to meet the psychological characteristics of the group.

4. Even though I feel that the results obtained in this study are interesting and that this is so probably thanks to the different instruments used, I also feel that refining and improving some of the instruments used might be necessary for further research. I feel this refinement should focus on the design of the recorded group interview, together with the *training* concerning the written surveys mentioned above.
5. As a researcher, a further aim of this study has been to take active part in the search for effective ways to bring children's MTs into the language classroom and thus take a stand in the debate over the role of the MT when teaching ALs. PBCS would like to be a good example of such an effective way, both adequate for the needs of young learners and flexible enough to adapt to different learning contexts. It is important to add that PBCS wishes to be an answer for a specific moment in the course of learning a language, as has been described in the Additional Language Teaching Continuum presented in section 2.3.
6. Finally, the study corroborates the studies carried out during the 2000s on the benefits of plurilingualism and multicompetence in ALL.

As a teacher researcher, and although I believe that the advantages of being both the teacher and the researcher outnumbered the inconveniences, it is also true that it is an aspect that should be borne in mind for further research: even though it may be indispensable that the research carried out with children this age is conducted by someone they know well (as, in this case, their teacher) so that more information can be obtained from observation and from linking comments and attitudes to particular children, it may also be detrimental to the objectivity of the research. I believe, however, that this objectivity can be reached by gaining accuracy on the design and use of the research instruments and research process without losing the potential benefits that being a teacher can entail when action research is undertaken. Furthermore, following Allwright & Bailey (1991), both objectivity and subjectivity may be needed and have a role to play in research of human learning, especially in naturalistic enquiry and action research.

As regards the fact of having undertaken research in this area, I share Stern's words (1984: 57-59) when he points out that language teaching represents an investment in human and financial resources and that, in consequence, planning, decision-making, practice, and innovation should not exclusively rely on tradition, opinion, or trial and

error. It should be able to draw on rational enquiry, systematic investigation and, if possible, controlled experiment. It is a fact that many people in our society today have invested great amounts of time, energy and money to improve their knowledge of languages other than their own and it is also a fact that many people have had frustrating experiences as they felt that they were not learning as much as they expected. PBCS and the Additional Language Teaching Continuum where it is placed wish to be effective means to improve the teaching of ALs in formal contexts.

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Appendices

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Appendix 1: Examples of grid

Àrea de Llengua Anglesa

2n curs de Primària

NAME:

UNIT 3

DATE: Monday, 24 January ✓

Look at the pictures and write the names in English and in Catalan:

	English	Catalan
	fish	peix
	cheese	formatge
	yoghurt	yogurt
	bread	pa
	rice	arros
	pasta	pasta



Àrea de Llengua anglesa

2n curs de Primària

NAME:

UNIT 3

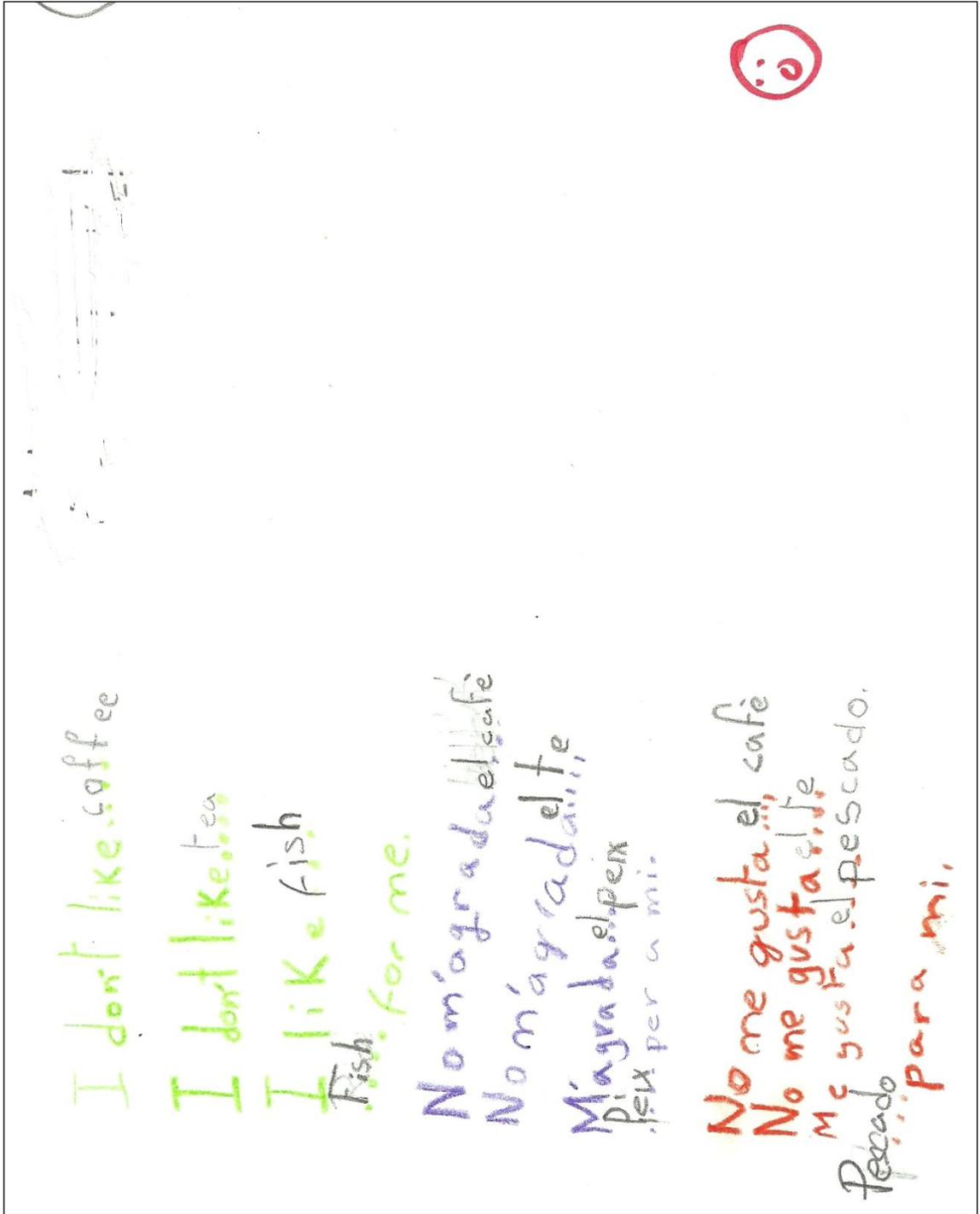
DATE: Monday, 28 January

Ask your friends, and ✓ or X.

coffee milk lemonade water orange juice

Do you like?	Names		
	Bet	Anna C.	Julia
Milk, llet, leche	✓	X	✓
Cheese, formatge, queso	✓	X	✓
Bread, pa, pan	✓	✓	✓
Yoghurt, yogurt, yogurt	✓	✓	✓
Water, aigua, agua	✓	✓	✓
Fish, Peix, pescado	~	~	X





The image shows a page of handwritten musical notation and lyrics. At the top left, there is a musical staff with a treble clef and a key signature of one flat (B-flat). The lyrics are written in three columns. The first column contains English lyrics: "I don't like coffee", "I don't like tea", and "I like fish". The second column contains Spanish lyrics: "No m'agrada el cafè", "No m'agrada el te", and "M'agrada el peix". The third column contains Catalan lyrics: "No me gusta el cafè", "No me gusta el te", and "M'agrada el pescado". There is a red circle with a smiley face at the bottom right of the page.

I don't like coffee
I don't like tea
I like fish
Fish for me.

No m'agrada el cafè
No m'agrada el te
M'agrada el peix
peix per a mi.

No me gusta el cafè
No me gusta el te
M'agrada el pescado.
Pescado para mi.

Tuesday, 29 January

3

I don't like tea

I don't like pasta

I like... cheese

cheese for me

No magrada a l'è.

No magrade la.

magrada a l'è pasta

for maggie per mi

No me gusta el té.

No me gusta la pasta

Me gusta el queso

queso para mi



Tuesday, 29 January

②

I don't like coffee

I don't like tea

I like rice

Rice for me del café

No me agrada

No me agrada té

Me agrada el arroz

Arroz para mí

No me gusta el café

No me gusta

Me gusta el arroz

Arroz para mí



Tuesday, 29 January

I don't like coffee

I don't like tea

I like fish
for me.

No me agrada el café

No me agrada el té

Me gusta el pescado
para mí.

No me gusta el café

No me gusta el té

Me gusta el pescado.

para mí.

(5)



Tuesday, 29 January

④

I don't like cheese

I don't like fish

I like pasta
for me

No me agrada el formatge

No me agrada el peix

Me agrada la pasta

per a mi

No me gusta el queso

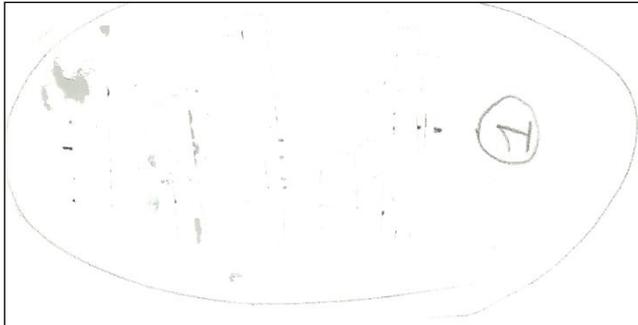
No me gusta el pescado

Me gusta la pasta

para mi



Tuesday, 29 January



I don't like fish.
I don't like soup.

I like PASTA.
for me

NO M'AGRADA ~~FORMATGE~~ el peix
NO M'AGRADA FEA el cafe
M'AGRADA ALLET la Pasta
PASTA per a mi

NO ME GUSTA YOGURT el pescado
NO ME GUSTA LIMONADA d' cafe
ME GUSTA Pasta Para mi



Fish amb rice soup.

Sopa de peix amb arròs.

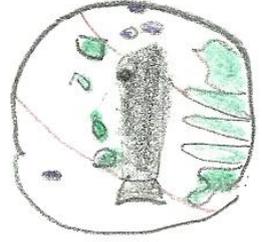
Sopa de pescado con arroz.



Fish and vegetables.

Peix amb verdures.

Pescado con verduras.



Strawbery chocolate vanilla and oreo ice-cream.

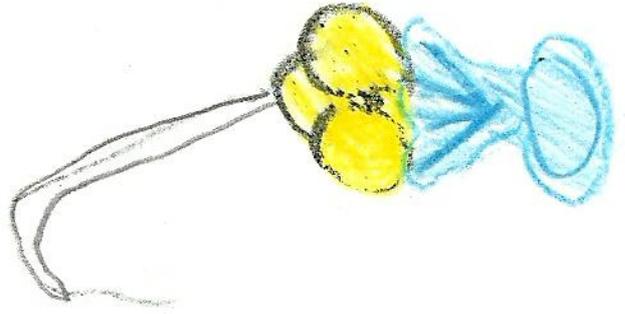
grelat de madures i Chocolata i Vaini,lla i Oreo

helado de fresas i chocolate i vainill i oreo

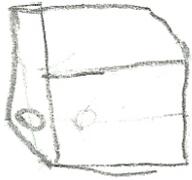
Gelat de llimona

Helado de limon

Lemon ice-cream



Orange Juice



Water



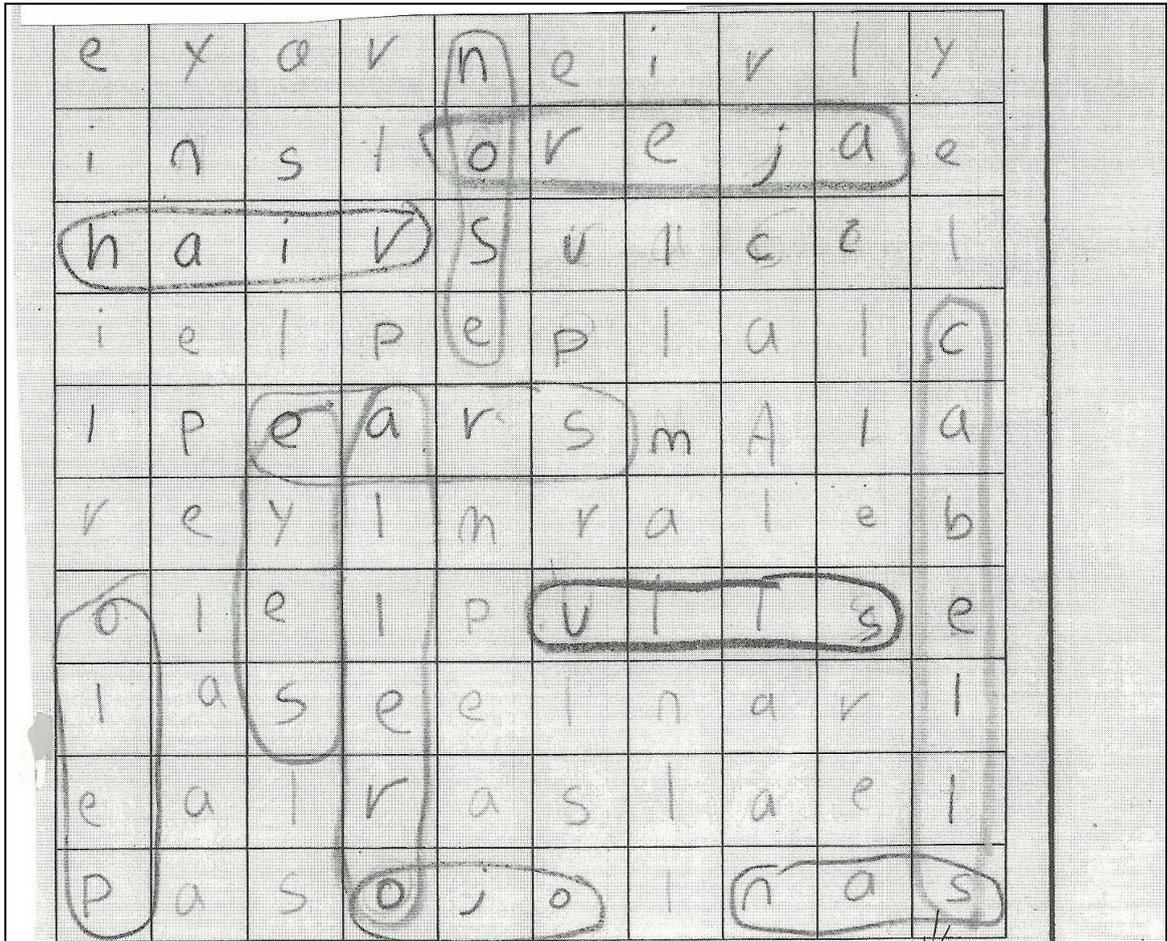
Suc de taronja

Aigua

Zumo de naranja

Agua

Appendix 5: Sample of trilingual word search



Àrea de Llengua Anglesa

2n curs de Primària

NAME:

UNIT 4

DATE: Monday, 3 March

WORKSHEET



Two little eyes..... to look
around

Two little ears..... to hear
each sound

One little nose..... to smell
what's sweet

And one little mouth.....
that likes to eat



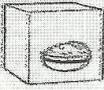
Àrea de Llengua Anglesa 2n curs de Primària

NAME: _____ UNIT 3

DATE: Thursday, 17 January

Look at the pictures and write the names under the right column:

I like 😊
I don't like ☹️

	😊	☹️
	fish	
	cheese	
	yogurt	
	bread	
	rice	
	pasta	



Thursday, 24 January.

I don't like fish
I don't like coffee

I like milk
milk. ~~for~~ me!

Thursday, 24 January

I don't like milk

I don't like tea

I like pasta

Pasta for me!

Thursday, 24 January

I don't like ~~pasta~~
I don't like fish
I don't like milk for me!



f	a	r	i	Q	u	i	n	O	S
e	a	r	s	P	M	o	v	f	e
H	i	C	Q	t	V	B	v	Q	i
t	n	s	e	Y	Q	Y	h	i	a
m	o	u	T	h	n	o	s	h	O
h	s	c	A		a	x	m	f	h
o	g	Q	e	y	i	i	e	s	O
H	o	v	e	e	e	a	v	h	n
F	a	c	a	Y	t	H	O	X	E
e	y	e	s	X	H	i	ll	F	ll

NAME: L. 12

UNIT 4

DATE: Thursday, 28 February

WORKSHEET



NAME:

UNIT 4

DATE: *Thursday 28 February* ✓

WORKSHEET



Data:

Activitat:

Nom:

T'ha agradat aquesta activitat?

Què és el que més t'ha agradat?

I el que menys t'ha agradat?

T'ha sorprès alguna cosa?

T'agradaria tornar-la a fer un altre dia?

Faries alguna cosa diferent?

Què has après?

Data: 4/3/08

Activitat:

Nom:

T'ha agradat aquesta activitat?

Sí perquè ens teníem que
enrecordar.

Què és el que més t'ha agradat?

quan ho deiem tot amb les
fileres.

I el que menys t'ha agradat?

el ball aborrit. Perquè era molt

T'ha sorprès alguna cosa?

no.

T'agradaria tornar-la a fer un altre dia?

sí.

Faries alguna cosa diferent?

no.

Què has après?

m'he après el paper.

Data: 9/3/08.....

Activitat:

Nom:

T'ha agradat aquesta activitat?

Si! Perque me divertit

Què és el que més t'ha agradat?

TOT

I el que menys t'ha agradat?

RES

T'ha sorprès alguna cosa?

NO

T'agradaria tornar-la a fer un altre dia?

NO! Parque lla lem fet

Faries alguna cosa diferent?

NO

Què has après?

A CANTA AND DIFERENS
I DIOMES AND

Data: 4/03/08

Activitat:

Nom:

T'ha agradat aquesta activitat?

Si, perquè o podiam fer amb tres
Idiomes.
Què és el que més t'ha agradat?

tot però el que més m'agrada
quan cantabam en anglès.
I el que menys t'ha agradat?

res tot era molt
divertit.

T'ha sorprès alguna cosa?

Que el Guillem ballés.

T'agradaria tornar-la a fer un altre dia?

Si, era molt divertit.

Faries alguna cosa diferent?

No crec que no.

Què has après?

Res però una cosa el Guillem
és un bitxo.

Data: 4/3/02

Activitat: Parts del cos

Nom:

T'ha agradat aquesta activitat?

Si molt.

Què és el que més t'ha agradat?

Cantar.

I el que menys t'ha agradat?

Res tot m'ha

ENCANTAT

T'ha sorprès alguna cosa?

Si que la contesim eh: Catala,
Españyol; Angles.

T'agradaria tornar-la a fer un altre dia?

Si moltíssim.

Faries alguna cosa diferent?

No més fa bé així.

Què has après?

Parts del cos.



Appendix 9: Transcriptions of recorded group interviews

The transcriptions of all the recorded group interviews can be found in this Appendix. They are presented in chronological order and introduced as follows:

Transcription DG (number), (date)

Where DG stands for discussion group.

Next, the codes used to signal different speakers are presented. The codes correspond to children's initials.

Finally, the transcription is included using the following transcription guide (taken from Goldsmith, 2008):

TRANSCRIPTION GUIDE

/ rising intonation

\ falling intonation

| short pause

||, ||| longer pause

{text} utterance unclear

XXXutterance incomprehensible

[beginning of simultaneous
utterances

(action) action of participant/s

Transcription DG I, 21/1/08

T: teacher
Ss: all students
E: student 21
BL: student 15
AL: student 10
AC: student 5
M: student 22

T: A veure, mireu, aquí tinc els fulls de l'E, de la BL
Ss and T: de l'AL, de l'AC i de la M
T: i avui hem vingut aquí per parlar una mica, perquè m'expliqueu |, que aquesta activitat que hem fet avui a l'aula d'anglès, a veure què us ha semblat. Mireu, aquí, quan us he preguntat 't'ha agradat aquesta activitat?', l'AL ha dit sí, la M ha dit sí, l'AC ha dit sí, la BL ha dit sí i l'E també ha dit sí. Us ha agradat a tots, l'activitat d'avui?
Ss: sí
T: I què és el que més us ha agradat, a veure
AC: a mi/ lo del temps i quan hem fet lo dels colors amb el \... (eating sandwich)
T: amb les cartolines?
AC: sí
AL: a mi/ també\
T: i a tu, E?
E: a mi/ lo de les cartolines, lo més
T: i a tu, AL?
AL: a mi, igual que a l'AC, tot
T: i a [tu, M?
AL: tot, a mi m'ha agradat tot, és que no sé, m'ha agradat tot (gesticulating)
Ss: {sí, a mi també}
T: sí? I a tu, BL? Shh
BL: a mi lo que més m'ha agradat ha sigut, mmm, a veure, ara no m'enrecordo, ah, sí, escriure els noms del menjar
T: a la fitxa? en anglès i en català? t'ha agradat això?
BL: (nods)
M: (hand up)
T: i a tu, M?
M: a mi/ m'ha agradat quan ens estaves filmant
T: ahh! Que t'agrada sortir per la tele?
M: (smiles)
AL: xxx sortirem per la tele
T: Nooo, no, vull dir de gravar-ho amb la càmera. I hi ha alguna cosa/ que no us ha agradat de la fitxa d'avui? \ No de la fitxa, de la feina/ d'avui? \
AC: No
AL: a mi sí!
T: què?
AL: quan ens has repartit la primera fitxa
T: no t'ha agradat\ aquella fitxa? \
AL: no perquè és que mira, em faig, m'he/ fet un lio/
T: sí?
AL: faig aquí inglés, llavorens aquí, faig així |, fico a baix, i llavorens, i {llavorens mira}, mmm, si aquí hi havia formatge he ficat aquí formatge, i llavorens m'he fet un lio
T: què vols dir, de l'ordre?
Ss: sí
BL: de català?
T: però escriure, escriure-ho en anglès i al costat en català\ era un lio?/

AC: no, per mi no
 BL: no
 M: (moves head confirming)
 AL: per mi sí
 E: [per mi una mica
 AL: {es que, es que}
 T: per què?
 BL: primer ho hauries d'haver pintat i després ho hauries d'haver | escrit (eating sandwich)
 T: perquè, E, era un [lio?
 AL: perquè la B m'estava mirant
 E: no perquè
 BL: perquè ets un mentider (talking to A)
 T: eh, ara [l'E
 E: perquè calieu
 T: a veure E digues
 E: perquè | era, | a mi m'ha semblat una mica lio perquè si, | només si una cosa no la ficaves
 al lloc que tocava/, les altres coses estaven una mica a baix/, una mica amunt/, l'altra als costats/
 AL: és lo que m'ha passat a mi, això
 T: mm
 AL: però després ho he borrat i ho {ficat bé}
 T: i us ha semblat diferent/ alguna cosa que hem fet avui,\ us ha sorprès/ o no?
 Ss : nooo
 T: què dius BL?
 BL: que el meu company xxx digues 2n D
 T: què vols dir això, no ho entenc
 E: que jo/ digues 2n D\
 T: quan has dit 2n D?
 E: te'n [recordes?
 BL: 2n [D
 E: quan estava el G que ha dit 2n D i tots s'estaven petant de riure
 T: ah!/
 E: i llavors [ho he fet jo
 AC: sí, {ja, ja}, a mi m'ha sorprès
 T: I [alguna altra cosa que us hagi sorprès?
 E: jo mira, jo mira com ho anava a dir: 2n D
 T: E! i a tu, M, t'ha sorprès/ alguna cosa?\
 Has [posat algo\ aquí,/ a veure?/
 AL: xxx
 AC: sí, quan has gravat\
 M: no sé si és que...
 AL: que podria haver fet 2n D (talking to E)
 T: a veure, t'ha sorprès alguna cosa? L'E/ no,\ a l'AN/ no,\ a l'AL/ no\ i a la M quan ens han
 gravat. I us agradaria tornar a fer una activitat així [un altre dia?
 Ss: siii!
 T: I per què ?
 BL: [oh, i tant!
 T: per què? I per què?
 AC: ens ha encantat, {aquesta activitat}
 E: a mi m'ha encantat
 T: per què?
 BL: perquè m'agrada escriure/
 M: perquè és xula
 AC: ja, a mi m'ha encantat
 T: però, però què vol dir que [t'ha encantat, per què t'ha encantat,/ AN?
 AL: molt bé
 E: i jo no sé/ què he ficat, allà?\

AL: va, menja el bocata (opening E's sandwich)
 E: jope AL cada cop xxx
 T: i què creieu que heu après a l'activitat d'avui?
 AL: jo...
 BL: jo ... (putting her hand up)
 T: què has après, AL?
 AC: jo també
 AL: ah sí
 T: a veure AL
 AC: a xxx
 T: ara l'AL (making a hand signal to AC)
 AL: més anglès
 T: més anglès has après?
 AL:xxx no sé per què, perquè ja ho sabia...
 T: i tu, a veure
 E: escriure, no a escriure bé, no, he après/ els noms, bueno durant aquests dies els noms de els menjars, bueno, uns quants menjars, a escriure'ls bé/ i a posar-los i | a dir-los bé i els he après
 T: els has après. I tu [AN ?
 AC:xxx
 T: lo mateix que l'E. I tu M, què has après, què et sembla que has après?
 M: pues anglès/
 AL : {igual que jo}
 T: i tu BL? què has après tu ?
 BL: a dir bé els noms, | a dir bé els menjars en anglès
 E: igual que jo\
 AL: igual que l'E\
 T: ara, fem una cosa, ens estem tots callats i pensem a veure si hi ha alguna cosa més que us descuideu de dir-me d'aquesta activitat [i si hi penseu, doncs me la dieu, però primer penseu una mica.
 AL: ah vale
 E: jo penso
 T: Què, AL, se t'acut alguna cosa interessant que no has dit?
 AL: [no
 E: xxx
 T: i a la M? i a la M?
 M: (puts on a thinking face)
 E: mmmmm
 T: l'E em penso que no tornarà a fer això, | mira que ja no l'havia agafat i ha vingut perquè l'AL m'ho ha dit\
 T: i a l'AN?
 A: xxx
 T: I a la BL?
 Bl: (shakes head)
 T: però escolta això que hem fet avui d'agafar les cartolines que una era anglès i l'altra català, què us ha semblat això?
 AL: a mi molt bé
 AC: a mi m'ha agradat molt
 E: a mi chupiguai
 T: per què?
 Ss: xxx
 T: era/ embolicat?\ era divertit/ embolicar-se?
 E: i també feia molta gràcia perquè... català, castellà, català, no
 AC: català i anglès, castellà no hi havia
 E: xxx i clar, anglès català, català anglès
 B: (hand up)

T: digues BL

BL: que xxx m'ha agradat aprendre la llet perquè tinc unes enganxines que la {vaca} de les enganxines

T: no passa res, és un mòbil

BL: es diu milk que és com la llet

T: clar, perquè es en anglès. I això de les cartolines blaves i vermelles, què?

BL: bé, m'ha agradat

T: i a tu, M?

M: bé

AC: al G no li ha agradat

T: ah si, no li ha agradat?

AC: ho ha ficat en el full

T: bueno, doncs ja ho llegiré. Vinga, ara agafem els entrepans...

Transcription DG II, 28/1/08

T: teacher

Ss: all students

AD: student 17

L: student 25

JU: student 2

B: student 3

X: aquí?

T: doncs ara esteu aquí un moment amb mi perquè, tot i que ja heu escrit aquí algunes coses, em pugueu explicar una mica més què us ha semblat la classe/ d'avui\ i què us ha agradat/ i què no us ha agradat\... però ara hem de pensar una mica més

JU: ah, doncs just tenim el millor dia

T: què dius?

JU: que just tenim el millor dia

T: per què?

B: [perquè diu que

JU: perquè avui ha sigut molt divertit

T: sí? Què és lo que més t'ha agradat?

JU: ah, entrevistar

T: l'entrevista? i lo que hem fet abans/, dels jocs aquells?\

B: També era guai

JU: també

T: Quina part t'ha agradat més a tu, B?

B: mmmm | no ho sé. | quina part?

T: Si, si haguessis de triar la millor

JU: | la part que tenim d'així xxx?

B: no, xxx no és guai, dius de l'entrevista o, o de lo l'abans?

T: de tota la classe, de tota la classe, [des que hem començat

B: Ah, lo d'entrevistar

T: sí, i a tu/ AD?\

AD: entrevistar

T: també? [I a tu L?

J: xxx

L: entrevistar

T: i els jocs aquells que hem fet abans que havíem de dir en català, en anglès [xxx us agrada allò?

B: allò també ha sigut divertit

Ss: sí

T: i per què us agrada allò, és difícil o què, o és fàcil?

L: Fàcil

Ss: fàcil

T: però...

JU: però ara era més difícil perquè també hi havia en castellà i

T: si l'altre dia només ho vem fer en anglès i en català, oi?/

B: I era molt més fàcil, bastant més fàcil

T: En castellà és més difícil,/ per què?\

B: bueno, no sé

JU: és que has de dir més coses, has de pensar...

T: has de pensar més, no?\

L: hmm, perquè en castellà tens les zetes, les ces

T: Canvia una mica | perquè vosaltres a casa parleu castellà/ o català?\

B: català

JU: català

AD: jo castellà
T: tu parles castellà amb els pares?
AD: (nods)
T: així a tu et costa poc [quan fem les traduccions al castellà, no?
L: és què
AD: (nods)
L: és que pasta és molt fàcil perquè és pasta, pasta, pasta, [pasta
B: A mi m'ha tocat pasta
T: t'ha tocat pasta/, a tu?/
B: sí
T: i us agrada aquests jocs que fem de combinar les diferents [llengües/ o no?\
B: sí, són molt divertits
Ss: sí
T: perquè això ho havíeu fet abans a la classe d'anglès/ o no?\
L: mmm, no
T: a primer no ho havíem fet mai això
Ss: no
T: i a altres classes d'anglès ho havíeu/ fet?\
Ss: no
B: no, a anglès extraescolar no
T: I això creieu que serveix per aprendre més/ o no?\
B: Sí
JU: Home sí
T: per què?
JU: perquè alhora d'aprendre anglès també aprens una mica de castellà i català xxx
T: això t'agrada a tu?
B: I t'enrecordes xxx
T: t'enrecordes de què, què vols dir?
B: de, de les coses, si no t'enrecordes una cosa com dels menjars aquests al final te'n recordes
T: clar, tu creus que estàs aprenent aquests dies o no?
B: Sí
T: si?
B: si
T: Perquè com la JU aquí ha posat que no ha après res, no ho sé, què vols dir que no has après
res?
JU: no sé/
T: que ja t'ho sabies/ tot?/
JU: mmm
T: doncs alguna cosa has après o no? Potser no, eh? No passa res si no has après res però
m'ha sobtat una mica, per això t'ho pregunto, | què vol dir, que potser ja t'ho sabies molt bé/ o tu
ja havies estudiat/ tot això/
JU: mmm xxx
T: tot, tot, tot, ja te'ls havies après, aquests noms, ja els sabies tots
JU: mmm
T: i quan els havies après aquests noms, a primer no ho vam fer, eh?
JU: els dies {que estaves dient}
T: ah, des del dia que hem començat però així ho anem practicant més vegades i ho aprenem
millor,/ no?\
B: sí
T: I si ho haguessiu d'escriure tots aquests noms també sabríeu escriure bé/ o no?\
L: no
T: o ja costaria/ més?\
L: costaria més
B: Costaria més però al cap d'uns dies ja ho faríem millor
B: si fem faltes ens [xxx

JU: xxx els accents doncs
 L: ja
 T: clar però això és en català i castellà, en anglès no n'hi ha
 JU: ah
 B: ja, sort, sort que no n'hi ha perquè si no
 L: ja perquè en català [xxx
 B: xxx
 T: Ah, sí? Raro per què?
 B: no sé
 T: tu creus que s'escriu raro/ l'anglès?
 L: sí
 T: per què?
 L: perquè no s'escriu mai com sona, de vegades no
 T: no, s'escriu d'una manera i [ho dius d'una altra, no?
 JU: per exemple happy sí perquè és molt xxx (pointing at the word on the shelf)
 T: Si però per exemple té dos pes
 JU: hmm
 T: clar, no dius tu dos pes
 L: ni dos as
 B: si fos una pe, però és que són dos
 L: I dos efes i dos es, [xxx i en català no existeix dos efes
 JU: com coffee
 Ss: no, ja
 B: existeixen dos esses
 X: xxx
 L: ja, dos esses i dos eles i dos [erres
 JU: estem treballant els dígrafs
 T: esteu fent això amb el Ferran?
 JU: Sí, no, sí, amb la Núria
 T: I escolta'm, i això què fem de... de traduir us sorprèn una mica o no, o ho trobeu normal?
 JU: mmm, ens sorprèn
 T: què heu posat aquí quan diu si t'ha sorprèn alguna cosa, què heu posat? Que sí o que no?
 L' AD ha dit que no, no li ha sorprèn res (looking at papers)
 AD: no
 T: no et sorprèn res? (looking at papers)
 AD: no
 T: Què vol dir sorprendre?
 JU: mmm ... és que no ho sé explicar
 B: Jo tampoc
 T: Que ho trobes estrany o diferent
 Ss: si
 T: no heu trobat res estrany o diferent?
 B: A part de que s'escriuen diferent?/
 T: No però de la classe vull dir
 B: de la classe?
 JU: mmm
 T: coses que no haguéssim fet mai,/ no heu trobat coses que no haguéssim\ fet mai?/
 B: si, [l'entrevista
 JU: Traduir
 B: I l'entrevista
 JU: Traduir i l'entrevista que no ho hem fet mai
 T: i traduir dius?
 JU: Traduir, ja... però amb castellà
 B: bueno en castellà [no ho havíem fet això
 T:xxx

L: no
 T: i us sembla que s'hauria de fer a la classe d'anglès més sovint això de traduir?/
 Ss: mmmm
 B: no sé
 T: o no ho hauríem de fer només, només, només en anglès, sempre en anglès i sense traduir
 B: Jo trobo que traduir és més divertit i...
 T: és més [divertit?
 B: aprens
 T: i aprens més o menys?
 JU: i a part de [fer anglès fas xxx alhora
 AD: igual
 T: sí, serveix per fer més d'una cosa a la vegada, no? /Potser?/
 JU: sí
 B: i a més és {igual de} és més divertit perquè tens més idiomes i has de pensar més/
 T: així potser en podríem posar algun altre i tot, quan sigueu més grans
 JU: francès!
 B: si eh?/
 T: podem posar francès també?
 Ss: [xxx
 B: Jo l'únic que sé en francès és sí, oui, i ja està
 T: I tu saps algo de francès, AD?
 L: Jo sé els números de l'1 al 10
 AD: no,no
 T: no?
 Ss: [xxx
 AD: bueno però la meva mare sap una miqueta
 T: [doncs haurem de dir a la teva mare que vingui a la classe a fer l'exercici de francès
 B :xxx
 AD: (smiles)
 L:[el meu avi xxx
 B: bueno, unes nenes que estan a prop de Xina, que són amigues nostres |
 T: hmm
 B: doncs, mira, els hi dic que vinguin que saben molt francès [xxx
 T: qui són aquestes nenes
 B: són quatre, la més petita es diu Inès, l'altra es diu Juliette, l'altra Anna i l'altra Mariona
 T: I estan vivint allà?
 B: sí
 JU: xxx
 T: Ah sí? Alguna cosa més que em voleu dir de la classe d'avui? Si li haguessiu de posar una nota a la classe d'avui, quina nota li posaríeu de l'1 al 10?
 L: el 10
 T: carai
 B: Jo no sé si posaria, perquè si trobo una classe que m'agrada més?/
 T: bueno, fins avui, fins avui quina nota li posaries?
 B: 10
 T: també, i l'AD?
 AD: també un 10
 T: Tambe un 10?
 B: És molt xula
 t: doncs molt bé
 JU: Perquè no haviem fet mai lo d'entrevistar i fer coses noves, hem traduït al castellà
 B: xxx
 T: que us agrada més traduir, al castellà o al català?
 X: [Al castellà,
 X: al català

T: [per què?
 AD: al castellà
 T: oh
 L: castellà i català
 T: tu, a veure, tu dius el català, tu què dius?
 L: al castellà i català
 T: tu els dos, i tu? vosaltres dos dieu al castellà, per què dius al castellà JU?
 JU: és que no ho sé [xxx la meva mare diu que no en sé gaire
 AD: a mi el català una miqueta i el castellà
 T: Per practicar més castellà
 T: I tu AD?
 AD: Al català una miqueta i el castellà
 T: o sigui els dos, fer-ho així com ho hem fet avui. i la L diu els dos també
 B: sí però jo prefereixo (eating sandwich)
 JU: en català que ja saps molt
 B: Perquè clar, el castellà a mi, no sé, no m'agrada gaire
 T: bueno però també l'hem de saber, no? és important [saber
 L: si un dia te'n vas xxx pots parlar [anglès
 B: Però anglès és molt important perquè a molts llocs [del món es parla anglès
 L: sí ja
 T: i tant, però també fem anglès, no deixem de fer anglès
 L : el meu pare {va anar a Anglaterra}
 B: home, si en una classe d'anglès deixem de fer anglès i fem català i castellà és molt/ raro\
 T: Seria raro, això [no ho fem, no? El que passa és que combinem una mica
 L: el meu pare va anar a Anglaterra xxx
 JU: ja, la meva, la mave, la meva germana ahir a la nit em va dir saps què, mama, saps que
 vam fer un dia a anglès? Anglès. Clar, i jo dic clar si no féssim anglès, què [fariem?
 T: i com es que va dir això, la teva germana?
 JU: no ho sé, té dos anys
 T: ah, potser és perquè és petita no?
 B: segurament

Transcription DG III, 29/1/08

T: teacher

I: student 20

G: student 24

JAU: student 18

A: student 8

T: a veure jo el que vull preguntar-vos/ i vull que m'expliqueu/

A: mira el Muzzy xxx (looking up and pointing at something)

T: sí, és de la classe que hem fet avui, us enrecordeu de totes les coses\ que hem fet avui\ a la classe,\ a veure què hem fet primer, qui/ s'enrecorda del primer que hem fet a la classe?\

G: (raises hand)

T: què diries? diguem G?

JAU : (raises hand)

G: lo del paper que féiem així

T: ensenyàvem així les targes/ i què més?\

I: que, que s'han triat de sis en sis,/ que s'han posat al darrere/

T: i com ho havíem de fer,/ aixecar la tarja,\ com se feia?\

G: ahora

A: aixecàvem

T: ahora

A: aixecàvem, els de davant teníem la tarja i els de darrere no tenien res i els de, i teníem que fer-ho tots ahora

T: i què més? Hi havia més dificultats/ o no?\

I: sí

T: quina/ més?\

I: que...

G: que cada cop venien més, eren més persones i ho tenien de fer més persones a la vegada

T: i què més?/

I: i que ho feia, no ho feies tu, ho feia el casset

T: i què més?/

JAU: (raises hand)

T: JAU

JAU: i que també eliminaves

T: i què més?/ Deia tota l'estona coffee, cheese, water, o què/ deia?\

G: ho deies en català i en castellà també\

T: i això era, ho feia més difícil/ o més fàcil?\

A: més fàcil

T: més fàcil?/

G: fàcil

T: sí,/ tothom ho troba més fàcil?\

G: sí

T: i després de fer això/ que hem fet?\

JAU: pues jo no, em faig un embolic

T: és més embolic si barregem

I: (nods)

JAU: sí, pues a mi em faig un embolic

T: per què embolic?

JAU: perquè entre que l'anglès, el castellà, el català, ara anglès, ara català, ara castellà, jo

T: però t'agrada/ o no?\

JAU: siiii

T: sí?/ és embolicat però t'agrada?/

JAU: si

G: {mira a la camera} (talking to I)

I: (waves at camera)

T: oh! I escolta, home, no digueu hola a la càmera, i escolta'm després de fer això/ què hem fet,\ ens hem assegut/ i què hem fet?\

I: eh

G: hem fet lo de que teníem que escriure i don't like, i like, i després inventar-nos una cançó

T: i com ho hem fet/ aquest treball?\ com l'heu/ fet?\

A: tota la taula junts

T: tota la taula, en grups

A: sí

T: i això de treballar en grups què?\ Us agrada?/

Ss: si (nodding)

G: perquè tots podem fer, perquè {tothom em deia} que tots podíem participar i igual tots xxx

T: vosaltres estàveu tots al mateix grup

G: sí, i estàvem, i estàvem, nosaltres féiem una línia cadascú/

T: i ho heu decidit de seguida això/ o com ho heu fet?\

G: sí, he dit una línia cadascú i quan ho hem escrit també una línia cadascú perquè ho hem escrit i llavons...

T: i els colors també els heu decidit així/ o com els heu decidit ?\

G: sí, els hem decidit, també els agafàvem

A: hem agafat els de la pissarra i com que negre d'aquell tipus no en teníem

G: hem agafat un rosa brillant del seu estoig

T: perquè sabeu que hi ha taules que no, no s'aclarien, eh?/ I s'han barallat i tot/

G: ah, la taula 6

T: per què creieu que deu ser/ això,\ que els costa tant, per què deu ser?/

G: perquè... no sab, no

JAU: (raises hand)

T: tu què creus JAU?

JAU: perquè, perquè volen, tots volen ser els primers, perquè tots ho volen fer, com, per exemple, són quatre i llavorens un hauria de fer una altra cosa i com que són tres idiomes, no poden

G: xxx

T: mmm

G: jo trobo que el N, a la taula 2, tampoc no hauria de plorar/ per això\

T: no

G: tampoc no cal/ plorar, no cal/ exagerar\

T: no, i escolta us ha agradat lo que hem fet avui a la classe?

Ss: sí

T: quina part us ha agradat més, a veure

A: jo lo d'ensenyar la tarja

T: i per què t'ha agradat?

A: mira, hi ha hagut un moment xxx que ens has posat a tres amigues juntes, a mi, a l'AG i a la M

T: mira, | i us agradava més quan era només en anglès/ o quan hem barrejat?\

Ss: quan hem barrejat

T: sí?/

G: perquè era més xxx i hi havia nens que es despistaven

T: sí?/ I amb això que hem escrit en grups sabeu què farem /el proper dia?\ No us ho podeu imaginar /què farem?\ Amb aquesta cançó\ que us heu inventat?/

G: posarem algun casset?/

T: mmm, si és una, heu escrit una cançó, què farem/ amb la cançó?\ Què fem/ amb les cançons?\

G: la cantarem

JAU: la cantarem? (hand up)

T: la cantareu davant dels companys

G: aaaah

T: en anglès i després en català i després en castellà, què us sembla /això?\
Ss: bé, bé
A: guai
T: ho havíem fet mai/ això\ de barrejar les llengües a les classes d'anglès/ o no?\
Ss:no (shaking heads)
T: a primer no ho vem fer em sembla, eh que ho?
Ss: no (shaking heads)
T: i què us sembla? Us sembla bé fer-ho així de tant en tant?
Ss: sí
T: creieu que s'aprèn més o no?
G: és molt xulo
A: sí
T: s'aprèn més/ o no,\ tu que creus, a veure, o igual?
G: doncs jo xxx
A: igual
G: però això jo, a tots els fulls, a tots els fulls poso, on posa t'ha agradat aquesta activitat poso sí perquè és molt xula
T: per què /xula? Què vol dir, divertida?/
G: sí, sempre poso que perquè és/ molt xula\
T: perquè vosaltres a casa què parleu/ amb els pares,\ català/ o castellà?\
G: català
T: català? I tu,/ I?\
I: també
T: i l'A?
A: les dos coses
T: les dos coses/ a casa\ sí?/
A: perquè la meva mare és castellana i el meu pare és de Lleida però normalment, normalment parlem català però castellà també, perquè amb la meva cangur parlo castellà
T: castellà
A: i amb els avis i tot
T: castellà, i tu JAU, | què parles a casa amb els pares?
JAU: aamm català
T: català? I llavors que us costa més, quan fem la traducció
A: a mi
T: al català o al castellà? Quan hem fet els jocs i per exemple
G: cap
T: jo deia cheese i havíeu de dir formatge, queso, què costava més?
G: res
T: igual?
Ss: mmh
A: a mi no em costa més
G: a mi no em costava
T: i escolta, si haguessiu de posar una nota vosaltres a la classe d'avui de la Cristina, una nota del 0 al 10, quina nota li posaríeu?
G: depén de quan treguis, si no hem vist el full no ho podem mirar
T: no, no de la feina, de la classe que hem fet avui, de les activitats que hem fet avui, si haguessiu de posar una nota
I: un 10
T: un 10 I? Ostres!
A: un 10
T: tu també, i tu JAU?
JAU: un 10
T: jolín, quatre 10s tindria avui
Ss: (nod)
G: perquè ha sigut molt xula, no ho hem posat al full

T: el proper dia quan acabem la cançó i la representeu omplireu un full d'aquells també, avui no l'hem fet perquè com que no heu acabat l'activitat, oi?

A: ja perquè

T: era llarga aquesta activitat

G: perquè ens quedava, ens quedava escriure-ho en castellà

T: clar, vale? Pues ja està, ja hem acabat

Transcription DG IV, 4/2/08

T: teacher
Ss: all students
JA: student 1
D: student 7
N: student 4
AG: student 11
J: student 16

T: OK, que us han explicat els altres companys de la classe que han fet quan han vingut/
aquí?\

Ss: no

T: ningú no us ha/ dit res?\

N: res

Ss: no

J: a mi m'han dit que ens preguntaran lo que ens agrada o algo així

T: qui t'ho ha dit/ això?\

J: la I

T: mmm, | a veure, estem aquí perquè m'expliqueu aquesta activitat que hem fet avui,\ què
hem fet avui a la classe/ J?\

J: ah, hem cantat la cançó però ens l'hem inventat nosaltres

T: i...

J: entre cometes

T: i què més? Era una mica especial/ aquesta cançó o era normal?\

J: era especial

T: per/ què?\

J: perquè havíem, ho havíem posat nosaltres i ho havíem posat coffee, tè i llavors i era en
inglés, en català i en espanyol

T: i aleshores, i com hem/ treballat?\ Heu treballat un a un/ o en grups/ o què?\

Ss: en grups

T: a tu t'agrada treballar en grup/ N?\

N: sí, a vegades

T: de què/ depén?\ Del grup?/

N: bueno (hesitates)

AG: jo depén del grup

T: depén del grup/ AG?\

J: a mi també

AG: i el que he tingut aquest cop m'ha agradat

T: sí? I això de fer la cançó t'ha agradat?/

AG: sí

D: sí

T: i representar-la?\

N: a mi no

T: i com us ha sortit?

N: a mi fatal

T: per/ què?\

J: ja, és veritat

N: e, e, sobretot al JN que s'equivocava [amb formatge

T: però, del vostre grup, del vostre grup, com ha sortit el vostre grup?

JA: el nostre?

T: sí

JA: bueno

D: [no ho sé
 JA: sí
 T: home, molt bé, no?
 AG: home, excepte l'E que s'ha equivocat i en comptes de dir tea ha dit tè
 T: sí, bueno, s'ha confós d'idioma, no? Ho ha dit en català en lloc
 N:i, i el JO, que ha dit p (looks at J)
 J: ha començat, ha dit p, p, p
 T: bueno, perquè a vegades es posa una mica nerviós,/ no?\ quan surt/ al davant?\ Però us ha agradat fer l'activitat?/
 Ss: sí (very convincing)
 T: us agradaria tornar-la a fer un altre/ dia?\
 Ss: sí (less convincing)
 T: sí o no, N?
 JA: sí, jo sí
 N: sí
 J: sí
 T: sí, JA? I la faries igual/ o t'agradaria que canviéssim alguna cosa?\
 JA: mmm, alguna cosa
 T: què t'agradaria que canviéssim?
 JA: no ho sé
 T: a veure, perquè t'agradés més?
 JA: no ho sé
 T: tu, D, t'agradaria canviar alguna cosa o ja t'ha agradat així com era?
 D: així com era (shakes head)
 T: sí?
 T: i a l'AG?
 N: a mi no
 AG: també, a mi també
 N: a mi no
 T: a la N no li ha agradat?
 N: (shakes head)
 T: però què no t'ha agradat?
 N: lo de cantar i això
 T: lo de sortir al davant dels nens?
 D: ai pues a mi sí que m'ha agradat
 Ss: i a mi
 AG: a mi és lo que m'ha agradat més
 T: i quina part us ha agradat més de cantar? La part en anglès,/ la part en català/ o la part en castellà?\
 N: a mi
 J: a mi totes
 N: [em sembla que castellà
 D: en anglés
 T: sí?
 AG: en anglés
 J: a mi totes
 JA: a mi totes
 T: perquè vosaltres a casa vostra amb els pares quin, quina, quina, [quina llengua feu servir?
 N: jo castellà
 JA: jo amb
 T: castellà
 D: català i castellà
 JA: [jo amb la meva
 T (addressing D): amb els pares català i castellà?
 JA: jo amb la meva

D: sí
JA: jo amb la meva mare castellà i amb el meu pare català
T: i la J?
J: jo amb la meva mare català i castellà i amb el meu pare català, català, català, castellà i
inglés a vegades
T: ah sí?/ El teu pare/ parla anglès?
J: sí
T: ah, molt bé, i així practiqueu
D: el meu pare [també
AG: jo català
T: i l'AG?
AG: català
J: perquè m'ensenya anglès perquè com que no faig aquí els extraescolars m'ensenya el meu
pare
T: molt bé
D: amb els pares parlo català i amb els avis [castellan
AG: ah
T: ah sí?
AG: ah, i jo a vegades amb la meva tieta parlo una mica anglès
T: i què, [què
D: i jo el meu pare també parlo una mica amb anglès
T: escolta quins pares més guais/ teniu, no?
JA: a mi/ no\
T: a tu no, bueno però parles català i [castellà, Déu n'hi do/
N: (laughs)
T: escolta'm, i què creieu que heu après/ a la classe d'avui?
N: moltes coses (very convincing)
T: a veure digues què
J: treballar en grup
T: per exemple
JA: (raises hand)
T: a veure què més? Ha sigut complicat treballar en grup J?
AG: jo sí
J: no
T: vosaltres, el vostre grup ha funcionat força bé,/ oi?
AG: sí
T: què més heu après, JA?
JA: les coses que ens agraden {a nosaltres}
T: vols dir?
JA: sí
T: ah, perquè parlaveu de què li agradava i què no quan féieu la cançó?
JA: ss
J: no, quan ho preparàvem, per exemple, quan déiem orange juice, no m'agrada, deien, no,
no, que a mi m'agrada/
T: sí
N: la MA deia que li agradava i als demés no li a, al JO i a la MA li agradava i a nosaltres dos
no ens agradava
T: i heu après alguna altra cosa/ o no,\ què creieu?
AG: no ho sé
J: dir els noms de les coses en anglès, en català i en castellà
N: (laughs)
T: ho havíeu fet mai això a les classes d'anglès?
D: sí
Ss: no, no, no
D: ah no

T: i us agrada?
 Ss: síiii (very convincing)
 T: i creieu que s'aprèn més anglès o menys anglès fent-ho així?
 N: més (very convincing)
 Ss: més
 T: més? Per què?
 AG: perquè
 N:[perquè hem après les coses de menjar, {els líquids}
 AG: bueno
 D: (laughs and raises hand)
 N: jo què sé
 T: molt bé, { ho estàs dient molt bé},
 JA: a cantar [en anglès
 T: a cantar, molt bé
 D: (laughs)
 T: i si haguéssiu de posar una nota a la classe d'avui, haguéssiu de dir Cristina et poso un...
 del zero al deu, quina nota/ posarieu?
 JA: el deu
 T: ostres
 Ss: (laugh)
 T: què dius ara? Podeu dir la veritat, que no passa res
 J: un nou
 T: un nou/ em posaria/ la J?
 JA: i jo el deu
 J: sí, un nou
 T: i/ l'Anna?
 AG: un nou
 T: i/ la N?
 N: un nou
 T: i/ el D?
 D: un vuit
 T: ale
 Ss: (laugh)
 JA: jo un deu
 T: i per què /un vuit, D?
 D: perquè sí
 T: home! Perquè sí/ no\, perquè sí/ no\
 Ss: (laugh)
 JA: és que xxx un deu
 J: algun {cop t'han posat} un zero?
 T: de moment no, he tingut sort que de moment ningú no m'ha posat cap zero
 J: un u
 T: i [escolta
 AG: quanta gent t'ha posat un deu?
 T: doncs fins avui tothom
 J: (laughs)
 AG: ale
 JA: i jo també t'he posat un [deu
 T: fins avui tothom m'havia posat un deu
 JA: i jo també {t'he fet}
 T: i el JA també
 J: nosaltres no
 T: i de les altres [coses que {hem fet}
 N: xxx jo depén un nou o depén xxx
 AG: i jo un nou i mig

T: ah, mira, un nou i mig
J: jo un nou i mig perquè aquella activitat que déiem a qui li agradava a qui/ com
T: sí
J: pues un deu
T: i escolta i aquelles altres activitats que vem fer de l'entrevista i dels jocs així que era, que cada color era una llengua,/ aquelles us van agradar/ o no?\

Ss: sí
J: [mmm
T: a tu no?
Ss: xxx
J: chepi chepi (shakes head)
AG: [bueno
T: quina no et va agradar J? L'entrevista no?
Ss: (laugh)
J: sí
T: sí? Doncs quina és la que no?
J: la que, ai, no m'enrecordo quina era
T: quina?
Ja: xxx
AG: a mi em va agradar però [tampoc no és que molt
T: quina? L'entrevista/no gaire?\

AG: l'entrevista sí
T: doncs quina és la que no molt
AG: aquella que vem, [aquella que vem, que ensenyaven una cosa
T: xxx (to one of the children)
T: una cartolina blava
J: sí, això
T: aquella/ no gaire?\

AG: a mi no gaire
T: no [per què?
JA: quina entrevista?
AG: no
JA: quina entrevista?
N: era una mica avorrida
T: era avorrida aquella activitat?
N: per mi sí
T: sí?
AG: una mica per mi
JA: pues a mi, a mi m'ha agradat
T: però creieu que servia per aprendre/ o no?\

Ss: sí
T: A part de ser avorrida, sí?
J: (hesitates)
T: la J no està molt segura, què li sembla a la J?
J: (shakes hand and head)
T: què? Explica-m'ho, a mi m'agrada que em [diguis el que penses
J: una part sí i una part no
N: (laughs)
T: a veure, quina part sí i quina part no?
J: la part sí era que aprenia en els idiomes, no?/
T: sí
J: i la part no és que ho feia en, ho feia nens, per exemple, quan sortia un nen, per exemple, feia aquí i allà i es quedava amb els dos aixins i clar no sabíem a qui li tocava del grup (gesticulating)
N: ja

T: ah, perquè funcionava, el funcionament era una mica confús
J: sí perquè els nens feien així
T: així que podríem fer una mica diferent, [no?
J: sí
T: millor organitzat
J: sí
AG: sí
J: perquè feien així, es quedaven així i no sabíem a quin grup li tocava (gesticulating)
T: vale
J: feien això però després també aixecaven una miqueta l'altre i no sabíem a qui li tocava i
aleshores[xxx
N: ja, i la cartolina, e, per exemple, hi havia el fish i el orange, aquí està el fish i aquí està
l'orange (showing on the table) i llavor el ficava al mig i clar no sabíem si era el fish o era l'o, o,
orange juice
T: i aquella, us enrecordeu aquella que vem fer dos files que una estava al costat de les
finestres
N: sí aquella [sí que em va agradar
AG: sí aquella [sí
J: [sí
T: xxx i l'altra de les motxilles i aleshores anàvem fent parelles i les enganxàvem/ a la
pissarra?
J: aquella sí
D: aquella molt [avorrida, va ser molt avorrida
T: xxx
N: què dius?
JA: em va encantar
T: a tu et va encantar?
JA: sí
N: a mi també
AG: a mi [em va agradar
D: jo em vaig avorrir super
T: [per què?
JA : totes les xxx
D: perquè no em va agradar
T: home però {explica-m'ho}
JA: a mi totes les que has dit
T: no s'hi val dir és que no, has d'explicar per [què com fa la J
JA: totes les que has dit, totes les que has dit m'han agradat
T: que bé, no?
D: perquè era molt avorrida
T: (shrugs shoulders)
AG: i per què era molt avorrida?
D: mmm, perquè
J: perquè, ara està buscant una raó perquè sigui/ avorrida\
T: a tu t'agrada l'anglès/ D?
D: una mica
T: aaaahhh
JA: a mi sí
AG: xxx a ell no li agrada gaire l'anglès
T: no?
J: a mi sí
T: a tu/ no?/
AG: a mi sí/
J: a mi sí que m'agrada
JA: i sobretot fer classes, per això m'agrada

T: clar que sí, bueno pues ja estem
N: vale
T: tornem cap a la classe?

Transcription DG V, 5/2/08

T: teacher
Ss: all students
P: student 13
C: student 12
N: student 9
JN: student 19

N: ai que bo
T: hi ha hagut algun company o companya que us ha explicat què fem quan venim aquí/ o no?
Ss: no
T: ningú no us ha/ dit res?
Ss: no
T: oh, i què creieu que farem?
JN: no ho sé
P: no ho sé
T: no ho sé
JN: jo
N: ens faràs preguntes i nosaltres tindrem de respondre\
T: molt bé
N: uau! (makes victory sign)
T: i [avui us voldria fer preguntes sobre aquest joc que hem tingut temps avui de jugar,\
Memory aquest de quatre llengües/
N: a la primera.
C: nosaltres/ no,\
jo i el Joan/ no hem tingut temps\
T: no heu tingut temps gens de temps de jugar?/
C: (shakes head)
T: com és això? Que heu trigat en acabar la [feina anterior
C: no, que, no que el JN estava posant el nom [super lent
T: estava {escrivint} el nom
JN: sí, xxx
T: bueno, doncs igualment segur que em podreu dir alguna cosa. El P i el N han pogut\
jugar?/
P/N: [sí
N: era molt xuli
C: xxx [diferents
T: i què tal, com ha anat això?
N: bé, he fet una parella/ i ell zero,\
eeehhh
T: una parella/ o un grup de quatre?
N: ai, un grup de quatre/
T: sí, [i
N: i ell zero
T: quin grup has fet/ N?
N: em, pasta, pasta, pasta i el pasta (counting with fingers)
T: i la pasta
N: sí, i la pasta
T: i tu? (addressing P) cap?
P: (shakes head) no, cap.
T: era difícil/ jugar?
P: hmm (nods while eating sandwich)
T: per què?
P: es veien primer els | els dibuixos però els noms era difícil/ perquè no es veien\
T: clar, home, és que aquesta és la gràcia, no?/

P: sí
T: però fer grups de quatre és més difícil que fer parelles, normalment el memory són parelles\ no?/
N: (nods)
T: i com us agrada més,\ en parelles/ o en grups de quatre?
P/N: en grups de quatre
T: per què?
N: em, perquè | és més divertit
P: sí
T: perquè és més complicat/ o perquè és més | què?
P: perquè és [més complicat
N: complicat i
N:i també perquè, bueno, perquè és més difícil
T: i el Joan i la C quan tinguin temps de jugar el proper dia creieu que us agradarà aquest joc?
JN: (nods)
C: jo ja he jugat però no en aquest d'anglès
T: no? En quin/ has jugat?
C: amb, amb de parelles d'animals[xxx
JN: jo he jugat amb, amb de, amb, amb parelles d'anim, amb parelles de dibuixos
T: sí
JN: i de números
T: i un així que fos les tres llengües alhora havíeu jugat/ mai?
JN: jo mai
T: i què us sembla? Us agrada /això?
Ss: sí
T: ho havíeu fet mai a la classe d'anglès això?
JN: i
Ss: no
JN: una era català,/ castellà,
C: {anglès}
N: anglès, anglès i el dibuix
T: i us agradaria tornar-ho a fer algun altre dia, [tornar-hi a jugar?
Ss: sí, si, si (enthusiastic)
T: sí?
Ss: mmm (nodding)
T: i aquestes activitats que estem fent aquests dies, que estem traduint les cançons i tot això que hem fet, us han agradat\ o no?/
Ss: si
T: si? creieu que \heu après?/
Ss: si
T: i què heu après, a veure, tu què has après/ Joan?
JN: | la cançó
T: ah clar
C: jo les paraules
T: les paraules? Quines/ paraules?
C: totes, per acabar de comprendre com es diu, com es pronuncien | (shrugs shoulders)
T: i el N/ què ha après?
N: de la cançó?/
T: no, de tot en general/
N: aaah
P: jo la cançó
N: que no sabia que al cole també es podien fer tantes coses divertides
T: ai, carai, que bé,/ no?
N: mm, sí perquè el Ferran sempre ens posen feines o llibreta
T: bueno perquè són, són assignatures diferents [xxx

JN: i també fem jocs
P: ja [xxx
C: si, però molt pocs
P: ja
T: i això de passar de l'anglès al català i al castellà us és difícil o fàcil?
N: no fàcil
Ss: fàcil
T: i serveix per aprendre més anglès/ o no?\

Ss: sí
T: per què?
N: (raises hand)
T: per què N?
N: em, home, perquè el català ja el saps i el anglés també, bueno, el anglés no el saps i l'aprens i també de pas aprens/ castellà\
T: clar, no? s'aprèn de tot una mica alhora/, no?\

JN: mira, jo ara estic aprenent castellà perquè jo no en sé de parlar castellà
T: ah no? [perquè a casa tu què parles JN?
N: hola (pretending to say it with a Spanish accent)
JN: sempre català, mai castellà
T: amb els pares català
JN: (nods)
T: i el P, què parla a casa el P?
P: els tres xxx
T: qui?
P: a la mama li ensenyo anglès, català, castellà amb la meva iaia i amb la meva mare també català
T: ah, de tot
P: (nods)
T: i la C què parla a casa?
C: amb el meu pare\ català,/ amb la meva mare\ castellà,/ amb la família de la meva mare\
castellà/ i amb la família del meu pare\ català/
T: hmm, i el N?
N: em, quan hi ha la meva mare i el meu pare català
C: {els dilluns}[xxx angles
N: i,i
T: xxx ah, molt bé
N: i després quan ve la me, la cangur, de vegades parlem castellà/ i de vegades català,\ i bueno, de vegades quan estem el pare, la mare, la meva germana i jo/ juguem algun joc d'anglès\
T: molt bé
N: fem
T: vas practicant més,/ no?\

N: sí, fem que les paraules que sabem les diem, per exemple, tinc gana/ pues ho diem en anglès,\ si no ho sabem, ho diem/ en català\
T: mig, mig, no? i si no, mig mig?
N: sí
T: i escolta això que hem avui que hem fet el memory en parelles i l'altre dia que vem fer les cançons en grups, us agrada/ això\
N: si
T: o preferiu sols
N: preferim [xxx
T: a tu què t'agrada més, P, sol/ o amb grup o en parella?\

P: mmmm, no ho sé
T: home, no ho sé. Al N, a la, al JN què li agrada més?
JN: en parella
T: sí, per què?

C: jo prefereix, jo depén de la parella que em toqui
 T: depén de la parella? I el N?
 N: jo també depén de la parella
 C: si em toca amb el JN,/ sola\
 T: oh, per què?
 C: perquè és un pesat\
 T: ostres, JN, veus què et diuen?
 JN: sí
 T: has de ser menys pesat, vale? I/ el N?\
 N: com?
 P: jo millor amb parella
 T: millor amb parella?
 P: sí
 T: millor en parella? per què, P?
 N: sí, home, és molt més divertit/ o no?\
 T: és més divertit
 JN: la melmelada m'ha deixat les mans enganxoses
 N: perquè tu solet et dius, ai, m'agradaria un altre
 T: clar, i si haguéssiu de posar una nota a la classe que hem fet avui?/ A totes les coses que hem fet avui a la classe, eh?/ Us enrecordeu de tot lo que hem fet?
 Ss: si
 T: eh, quina nota li posarieu? De l'u/ al deu?\
 N: deu
 C: [deu
 P: deu
 JN: deu
 N: un deu sobre, sobre sobre deu
 T: molt bé, i tu, un deu? (addressing C)
 C: (nods)
 JN: un deu sobre deu és una xxx (talking to N)
 N:[xxx
 T: i tu P?
 P: un deu
 T: i el JN?
 JN: un deu
 T: carai
 N: jo, deu sobre deu, jo, deu sobre deu
 P:[xxx
 T: i noteu algo diferent aquestes classes d'anglès de les que havíem fet abans/ o no, no veieu cap diferència?/
 C: jo sí
 N: [a primer
 C: jo sí
 N: [sí
 JN: a P5
 T: a veure, espera, espera, espera, un a un
 JN: [a P5
 T: la C, quina diferència hi veu?
 C: que parlem en català, en castellà, en anglès, les tres llengües
 T: mmm (nods) [xxx
 JN: és que a classe d'anglès també podem par, també parlem castellà i català/
 T: i això què és bo/ o dolent?\
 P/J/C: bo
 T: sí? \
 Ss: sí

T: I tu quines diferències veus N?
N: que abans no féiem tants jocs i també parlem castellà, català més, més
T: (nods)
N: més, ai, més idiomes
T: mmm. I el P?
P: a P5, a P5
T: a P5 què
P: teníem un nino
T: sí
N: ah [sí
P: a primer i a segon ja no en tenim
T: home perquè som més grans, no? (laughs)
P: ja
JN: teníem el monkey, monkey, [monkey
T: el Mr. Monkey, yes
N: el monkey, no monkey, monkey, monkey
T: i creieu que esteu aprenent més ara/ o abans?
Ss: ara
N: home
T: ara?
JN: sí
C: si perquè aprenem, em,
N: abans teníem tres anys i quatre i no feiem anglès, eh? abans
T: shh, no
C: jo perquè a vegades sabem paraules en anglès però no sabem què signifiquen
T: (nods)
C: i així les sabem i després si les diem en català sabem millor lo que vol dir
T: ah, molt bé
JN: Cristina (raising hand)
N: (raises hand)
T: un moment JN
N: a segon, a segon aprenem més perquè jo a primer ho notava molt fàcil
T: molt fàcil, ara és més/ complicat\
C: si
N: una mica
T: ah, per què és/ més complicat?
N: eh, perquè bueno les paraules tampoc no les pronuncia molt, bueno, allò em costen de
vegades els sons, alguns
T: sí
N: em costen de dir-los
T: ah
N: bueno, no hi ha molts, el que em costa de pronunciar és un, però no no, no el fem servir
molts cops
T: quin?
N: | a veure, no m'enrecordo ara
T: (shakes head)
N: és que bueno quan el diem
T: quan el diem és quan t'enrecordes
N: sí
T: i el JN què?
JN: que jo un dia
(someone comes in)
T: digues, digues
JN: que jo un dia (laughs) em vaig inventar una paraula i em va sortir una paraula en italià
T: què dius ara?

JN: és veritat

T: (nods)

N: al creuer parlava en anglès, a l'últim creuer que vaig anar

JN: quin clauer?

Ss: creuer

T: creuer

JN: ah

T: bueno, doncs ja estem, ja estem taula 2, anem cap a la classe?

Ss: vale

Transcription DG VI, 12/2/08

T: teacher

Ss: all students

G: student 24

JAU: student 18

A: student 8

I: student 20

T: vale, per començar necessito algú de vosaltres que expliqui/ què hem fet avui\ a la classe/

JAU/I/G: (raises hand)

T: a veure I

I: pues hem, ens han donat un full/, llavors hem escrit | nosaltres ens ha tocat un postre, a una altra taula un primer a una altra taula un segon, i a nosaltres un postre\

T: molt bé, i què/ feiem\ amb aquest primer,\ amb aquest segon,\ amb aquest postre,\ A?\

A: cada taula/ pensava un/ i l'escrivia en un full que li havien donat/

T: hmmm

A: i feia un petit dibuix, si és que li cabia/ i llavors després ens anaves cridant per taules/

T: hmmm

A: anàvem penjant els dibuixos/ amb el blutak/ que tu ens donaves a |

T: a [la cartolina

A: en un pòster

I: (waves to camera)

T: i aleshores al final què era allò? Quan ho hem posat tot junt què/ era?\

G: (raises hand)

T: què era/ G?\

G: un menú/ d'un restaurant\

T: un menú d'un restaurant, i quan ho escrivíem,/ què hem fet d'especial avui JAU?\

JAU: |

T: ho escrivíem com?

I/A: (raise hand)

T: com ho escrivíem JAU?

A/I: (raise hand)

JAU: de colors

T: de\ colors/ per què?\ Quants/ colors?\

JAU: tres

T: per què/ tres colors?\

JAU: perquè era anglès, català i castellà

T: i per què/ fem aquest menú en tres idiomes,\ què us/ sembla?\

G: (raises hand)

T: G

G: ho fem per |

T: ens hem imaginat que era un menú d'un restaurant, no?

G: sí, que hi ha, com a Barcelona hi ha molts turistes que venen als bars, pues, en, si són anglesos/ poden llegir en anglès,\ si són castellans,/ castellà\ i si són catalans,/ [en català\

T: pues en català, molt bé. Ha sigut difícil traduir el vostre, el vostre, les vostres\ postres?/ O ho heu sapigut/ de seguida?\

Ss: (shake heads)

A: hem dit de seguida/ gelat\

T: era diferent/ o era similar en català, en anglès i en castellà,\ com era/ en anglès lo vostre?\

G: icecream, ai, no, lemon icecream

T: i en/ català?\

Ss: gelat/ de llimona\

T: i en castellà

Ss: helado/ de limón\

T: i llavors això és diferent/ o se sembla?\

Ss: home...

G: en català i en castellà s'assemblen bastant

T: sí, i amb l'anglès/ què passa?\ Hi ha una cosa/ molt rara/ que passa amb l'anglès, què/ passa?\

I: amb anglès és bastant diferent (nodding)

T: per/ què?\ Com és/ que és diferent?\ JAU

JAU: (hands up) perquè en lloc de pro, posar primer gelat i després de llimonada, posen llimonada, de, gelat (gesticulating to express the construction of the word)

T: heu canviat l'ordre, canvia l'ordre

JAU: si

G: en anglès canvia l'ordre

T: canvia l'ordre en moltes coses en anglès, i us ha agradat aquesta activitat? Us ha agradat?

Ss: sí

T: dona'm, ja ho llenço jo (banana peel G gives me), per què us ha agradat, a veure?

G: perquè ha sigut molt xulíssima

T: home

G: és lo que jo poso en el full sempre

T: anda, i per què ha sigut molt xulíssima?

G: perquè hem treballat en grup

T: treball en grup

G: i ens ha tocat a la mateixa taula, la taula 4

I: [i a nosaltres

T: és que treballeu molt bé en grup, eh, aquesta taula, oi que sí?

Ss: (nod)

T: sí, treballeu força bé

A: encara que estàvem una mica estrets

T: sí, bueno, però això és un altre tema

Ss: (laugh)

T: i això de que fos secret també t'ha agradat a tu I?

I: (nods)

T: si?

A: encara que la taula 6 i nosaltres ja...

T: bueno, i us ha agradat això d'haver-ho de fer en les tres llengües perquè era per turistes/ o haguessiu preferit fer-ho en anglès | perquè és la classe d'anglès o... \

G: jo hagués preferit també fer-ho en francès i en italià

T: t'agradaria fer-ho també en francès i en italià

G: siiii

T: i per què?

G: mira, perquè les dues són llengües que parlen molt xulo

T: clar

G: sobretot l'italià, que parlen amb una entonació

T: t'agrada molt?

G: si

T: a tu t'agrada\ aprendre llengües?/

G: (nods)

T: si? N'estudiaràs més/ quan siguis\ més gran?/

G: clar que sí

A: el meu pare [va estudiar anglès

G: estudiaré japonès, que aquí s'estudia japonès

T: i tant que sí, aquí al cole

G: a sisè

T: sí, què dius A?

A: que el meu pare en lloc de, quan era petit, en lloc de fer anglès com nosaltres/ feia francès

T: si? I encara s'enrecorda?

A: (nods)
 T: a tu t'agradaria fer francès també?
 A: i la seva germana/ és professora de francès
 T: carai, i alguna cosa més que em vulgueu dir d'aquesta activitat d'avui,/ alguna cosa especial que [us hagi sorprès?
 G: a mi m'agrada el francès per les paraules
 T: t'agrada el què?
 G: el francès per les paraules
 T: què vols dir?
 G: xmslslslsl (speaks as if it was french)
 T: per com sonen les paraules?
 G: si, xmlsleasjelemm. Això saps/ per què\ ho sé?/
 T: no
 G: perquè tinc/ el CD de la Carla Bruni\
 T: ah, tu escoltes música en francès i en anglès,/ o només en francès,\ només la Carla Bruni\
 en francès?
 G: |
 T: i què heu après avui a veure?
 I: (shakes head)
 T: la I diu res
 A: res
 T: no has après/ res?/
 I: no
 G: jo sé
 JAU: jo sí/
 T: tu què? A veure, què has après?
 G: | ai
 T: ara se t'ha oblidat el que ha après, JAU què
 G: a posar el menú!
 T: has après? A fer el menú, vale, i el JAU?
 JAU: lo mateix que jo
 T: si
 G: mai he fet un menú jo
 T: i l'A/ què ha après?\
 A: res
 T: res de res? Però us ha agradat
 A: si (noddng)
 T: si haguéssim de posar una nota a la classe d'avui,/ quina nota li posaríem?\
 G: com l'altre dia (shows with fingers)
 T: un deu? Tu un zero (addressing JAU)?
 JAU: no, un deu
 T: ah, quin sustu/
 A: un deu
 T: i l'A i la I un deu també?
 JAU: un zero/ i un u\ (shows with fingers)
 A /I: sí
 G: et puc dir una cosa?
 T: sí
 G: me la sé de memòria la cançó de la Carla Bruni
 T: ah, sí, la vols cantar?
 G: no

Transcription DG VII, 26/2/08

T: teacher
Ss: all students
MA: student 23
C: student 12
P: student 13
JO: student 6
M: student 22

T: a veure, ja t'han explicat en què consisteix això, MA, / si?/
MA: (nods)
T: doncs avui hem de pensar, primer de tot, enrecordar-nos del que hem fet a la classe d'avui. \ Què hem fet/ a la classe d'avui, \ a veure, qui/ [s'enrecorda?\
P: hem fet... una sopa de lletres
T: hem fet una sopa de lletres, / què més?\
M: a la pissarra hem, | hem enganxat les, les paraules/
T: quines/ paraules?\
M[xxx
JO: com\ eyes, / com\ ears, / com\
P: com nose
JO: com mouth, [com nose
T: i què són tot això? Què són tot això?
M: les parts del cos
T: amb uns petits rètols amb noms, \ no?/
Ss: (nod)
T: noms de part del
M: del cos
T: del cos, de la cara, i hem fet grups, \ no?/
Ss: si
T: i cada grup, / quantes parts tenia, \ cada grup?\
M: quatre
T: quatre, la primera/ quina era?\
C: la foto
T: el dibuix, la segona?
Ss: en anglés
T: la tercera?
Ss: en català i en castellà
T: molt bé, i això com ho hem fet de posar aquests grups? Com ho hem fet?
M: (raises hand)
T: digues
M: pues hem anat repartint uns paperets/ i, i no podíem veure, | i llavors, per exemple, un exemple, si tu {feies,} si tu fas aquest gest (touching a part of the face) tenim que portar allà (pointing somewhere) lo que significa aixó
T: molt bé, {portar} tot el grup a la pissarra, no?
Ss: si
T: això ha sigut lo primer que hem fet, i després hem fet la sopa de lletres, \ oi?/
Ss: si, si
T: que primer n'hem fet una a la pissarra d'exemple, / i després què?/
Ss: al full
T: al full, i cadascú ha fet la seva
Ss: si
T: i després què?
C: després ens [ho hem intercanviat
P: ens ho hem passat | ens ho hem passat

C: intercanviat
 T: i hem resolt la d'algú altre
 Ss: si
 T: i com ha anat [això?
 C: costava molt/
 MA: era molt difícil
 C: a mi m'ha costat
 P: jo només he trobat deu
 T: a veure, a veure
 MA: jo només vuit!
 C: jo només quatre
 T: un a un, un a un, P, a tu què t'ha passat?
 P: que mira, primer, he trobat/ sis,\ després he trobat/ vuit,\ després he trobat nou,/ i després/
 he trobat deu\
 T: bueno
 P: i després ja no
 T: home, és que si fos molt fàcil, vol dir que estaven ben amagades les paraules,/ no?
 P: (nods)
 T: i a tu, JO,/ què t'ha passat?\ Com ha/ anat?
 JO: pues que només he trobat/ nou o deu paraules\
 T: bueno, i a la [M?
 C: al menys jo
 M: jo set
 T: set, i a la C?
 C: jo quatre
 T: quatre
 C: és que estaven, estaven molt molt tortes/ les paraules/ i a baix hi havien, s'havia equivocat/
 i em confonia amb les lletres\
 T: i a tu, MA, com t'ha anat?
 MA: vuit
 T: vuit, però si el proper dia continuem potser podreu acabar de trobar-les totes,/ no?
 Ss: mmm
 P: jo he buscat per tot el full i no estaven
 MA: no
 T: i què us ha agradat més, preparar la sopa de lletres/ o resoldre la del company [o la
 companya?\
 C: jo preparar
 MA: [jo resoldre
 M: preparar
 T: tu també? (addressing M)
 P: jo resoldre
 T: i a tu JO?
 JO: jo resoldre
 T: i de tota la classe d'avui, què us ha agradat més?
 M: a mi la sopa de lletres
 T: si?
 C: a mi lo de penjar a la pissarra
 T: si, t'ha agradat allò?
 M: si, era xulo, perquè jo m'he equivocat i a mi em fa gràcia quan m'equivoco
 T: ah, mira. I, i heu trobat alguna cosa estranya/ o sorprenent/ o no,\ a la classe d'avui?
 Ss: no, no
 T: tot normal com sempre
 JO: jo, els dimecres i els dissabtes, a casa meva faig una mica d'anglès, allà
 T: ah, si?
 JO: i m'ensenyen angles [xxx

T: una senyoreta,/ que ve/
 JO: si
 T: i també feu/ aquestes coses?
 P: jo amb la meva mare
 JO: no, fem, com els pantalons i tot això
 T: amb dibuixos
 P: jo amb la meva mare, com fa anglès/
 T: ah
 P: doncs fem
 T: ah, doncs molt bé,/ no?/
 C: jo amb el meu pare i la meva mare que van viure {un any} a Estats Units
 T: ostres que bé aquests pares que parlen anglès, i a casa que/ parreu?\ Parleu anglès/ a vegades/ o no?
 P: jo castellà, català i anglès
 C: bueno parlo
 MA: jo català
 C: jo parlo català, castellà, a vegades anglès/ i el meu pare a vegades els caps de setmanes quan li demano/ francès\
 T: i [i quan
 M: el meu pare també
 T: i quan us ensenyo una cosa en anglès i us dic, a veure, això com se diu en català o en castellà, és difícil pensar com se diu en català o en castellà, o no?
 C: jo no ho trobo, com que a casa el parlo
 T: no et costa ni el català ni el castellà
 M: no
 C: no
 T: i als altres?
 M: a mi no perquè la meva àvia
 MA: xxx
 T: què dius MA?
 MA: jo trobo fàcil el català i el castellà
 T: si?
 C and MA: xxx (whispering)
 M: la meva avia va viure a la, a la
 P: ens estan gravant
 T: No passa res (addressing P)
 M: època de Franco i llavors és castellana i els meus pares són catalans
 T: aha, i aleshores aprens català amb uns/ i castellà amb els altres\
 M: (nods)
 P: jo també igual
 T: i què creieu que heu après a la classe d'avui?/
 Ss: (shake heads)
 JO: pues {bastantes} coses... les paraules
 M: xxx
 C: que és important, bueno, lo que hem posat en el full, que és important de vegades fer el treball en equip/ perquè són\ d'intercanviar coses/
 T: clar
 M: aprens més coses
 C: perquè si ho fas sempre tot sol/ i en un moment necessites ajuda,\ com t'ho faràs?/
 T: clar\, molt bona idea aquesta,/ no?\ I què més, algú ha posat alguna altra cosa diferent?
 JO: no
 T: no?
 Ss: (thinking)
 T: Si haguessiu de posar una nota a la classe d'avui, quina nota li posaveu?
 C: mmm

T: del zero al deu
Ss: un deu
T: un altre cop un deu? segur?
P: no
T: no, el P, no, què li posaries?
P: no ho sé
T: un nou i mig
P: (nods)
T: per què? Què hi ha que no t'ha agradat gaire?
P: perquè era molt difícil, només he trobat deu
C: home, clar, però és que [si fos molt fàcil seria avorrit
MA:xxx
P: ja però ficava una ene com una u, una u com una ene
T: què us ha costat més de trobar les paraules en anglès,/ en català/ o en castellà?
MA: a [mi tot
C: en anglès
M: a mi
T: les paraules en anglès són les que més t'han costat?
C: bueno
P: a mi en català
M: a mi en anglès
T: per què? Com és això, no ho entenc
M: no ho sé,/ costava molt,\ com que no sé gaire anglès/
T: ja
Ss: xxx
C: home, a mi totes igual, la d'anglès més perquè com que encara no sé totes les paraules com s'escriuen, a vegades em lio perquè em penso que s'escriuen d'una altra manera i llavorens em lio
T: però les tenieu a la pissarra, ho has anat mirant a la pissarra
P: jo sí
C: ho he anat mirant a baix del full perquè la J havia apuntat les que aniria escrivint
T: ah, us agradaria tornar a fer una altra activitat semblant a aquesta algun altre dia?
Ss: si
T: o una altra cosa diferent?
Ss: s
T: us agradaria repetir-la més o menys?
M: jo tota, tota no
T: no? Ja n'has tingut prou amb un cop?
M: no sé xxx
MA: jo tampoc
T: vale, ara el JO anirà a la classe i ens vens a dir on estan els companys, si ja han baixat al pati, vale?

Transcription DG VIII, 3/3/08

T: teacher
Ss: all students
B: student 3
AG: student 11
G: student 24
AD: student 17
E: student 21

T: necessito que algú expliqui,/ perquè\ quedi gravat,/ què hem fet avui a la classe d'anglès
Ss: (look at each other)
T: qui ho pot explicar? Aixequiu la mà, va
G: (points at E and B)
E: jo,/ jo, no sé\
T: B, què hem fet avui/ a la classe?\
B: amb una cançó,/ les parts del cos hem treballat\
T: molt bé, hem treballat les parts del cos amb una cançó,/ una?
B: bueno, no, dos (shows two fingers)
T: dos, i com ho hem fet? Què us he donat/ jo per començar?\
G
A/G: (hands up)
G: un full
T: què li passava [al full?
G :dos fulls
T :Què els hi passava als fulls?
G: doncs que hi havia unes, dos cançons
T: i què els hi passava a les cançons?
G: pues que s'havien caigut/ una paraula\ a cada, a cada\ frase/
T: i què hem fet amb aquesta paraula que faltava,\ per començar,/ què hem fet\, hem intentat
que
G: endivinar-les, després ens les ha dit el casset/ i hem col·locat un altre cop les paraules\
T: molt bé, i un cop ho teníem tot escrit, què hem fet AG?
AG: mmm |
T: què hem fet E?
E: ho hem escrit i ah, i ho hem cantat
T: i també hem fet uns dibuixos,\ no?/
AG: sí
T: molt petits, petits.
AG: xxx
T:I com les hem cantat les dos cançons, AG?
B/E/AG : (hands up)
AG: que tu, deies les frases/ però quan sortia la part del cos,/ les deiem nosaltres\
T: molt bé, i què més?
G: ai que no surto (looking at the camera)
AG: i després [hem fet
T: i què més E?
E: i també ens hem posat en una fila en un costat, hem fet una fila en un costat i l'altra a
l'altre/ i tu anaves dient noms/ i, i ho havíem d'anar assenyalar el cos per exemple head, head
(touches his head)
T: i com ho deia jo,/ aquests noms?\
E: em, en català/ o en\ anglès/ o en castellà\
T: i després què més hem fet?
B: em, amb els dos grups, tu anaves, tu cantaves la cançó o el casset i nosaltres havíem de dir
la part del cos en l'idioma que tu ens diguessis
T: bueno, i ara que ja hem explicat què hem fet avui a la classe,/ AD,\ t'ha agradat?/

AD: si
T: quina/ part t'ha agradat més?\ G, treu el cap que no veiem a l'AD. La part\ d'escriure,/ la part\ de cantar,/ la part\ de senyalar?/
AD: la part de cantar
T: de cantar,/ en anglès,\ en català,/ en castellà?\ A tu què t'ha tocat?
AD: | primer català i després castellà
T: i quina part t'ha agradat més?
AD: (thinking)
T: o totes igual, no sé
G: (raises hand)
T: tu què/ G?\
G: mmm, és que, català
T: si? I a l'AG?
AG: castellà
T: si? I a la B?
B: anglès, perquè el G no parava tot el rato de fer tonteries,
T:xxx
B:és veritat, l'anglès, el G estava fent així (standing up and dancing)
T: ballava?
B: si
G: (off camera, seems to laugh at B's comment)
T: i a l'E quina li ha agradat més?
E: castellà
T: i a l'AD?
AD: català
G: xxx AD?
T: a l'AD
G: havies dit AD
T: no, no
G: ai que està la càmera, perdón
Ss: (laugh)
T: què creieu que heu après a la classe d'avui? Heu après alguna cosa?
G: em, no sé
T: no saps?
G: no sé
T: tu que has après B?
E/G: (hands up)
B: a part d'algunes parts del cos, que el G sap fer moltes tonteries
T: ah, molt bé, i l'E?
E: jo, he après | més bé les parts del cos
T: per què més bé?
E: em, perquè a vegades, ja les havia apreses xxx
T: i per què les has après més bé avui? Per què les hem tornat a repassar?/
E: si, bueno que, les hem dit primer en català en castellà en anglès i
T: i així aprens millor, tu?/
E: si, dir-les bé al menys
T: clar, i tu AG, què has après?
AG: | algunes parts del cos que no sabia en anglès
G: (hand up)
T: i tu G?
G: jo a ballar
T: has après a ballar?
G: si (laughs)
B: ens fas una demostració?
G: no

Transcription DG IX, 4/3/08

T: teacher
Ss: all students
P: student 13
N: student 9
MA: student 23
C: student 12
M: student 22
JO: student 6

T: doncs això que has dit a la classe però és que no t'he acabat de se, de, de sentir bé, que m'ha semblat molt interessant, m'ho pots tornar a explicar/ o no?\

N: no, que, que jo he dit, jo vull anglès, em, perquè, em ja fem castellà i tot i així puc aprendre, ara és l'hora d'anglès,/

T: sí

N: doncs ara jo vull/ anglès\

T: però això quan ho has dit? Quan havieu de triar la llengua de [les cançons?

N: no, jo he dit, la meua opinió és aquesta, per això

T: però això quan ho has dit? Quan havieu de triar

N: si

P: [el primer, el primer

T: xxx de dir els noms de les parts del cos

C: si

P: si, el primer

T: i està molt bé, no? Com que és classe d'anglès, ho vols dir en anglès?

N: i com que fem castellà, ja aprendré castellà allà

T: clar

N: i així ja ho aprendré

T: i per què no m'ho has volgut explicar/ a la classe,\ què et pensaves que m'enfadaria/ potser?/

N: no

T: i doncs?

N: no perquè estava continuant parlant amb la C que em deia que no, que no

T: què deies tu C?

C: que, que volia aprendre anglès, com estàvem a, he dit lo mateix que acaba de dir el N, que com estàvem a classe d'anglès/

T: clar

C: mmm, volia aprendre anglès\

N: i per què has triat català?

T: però que fem, que fem traduccions no vol dir que no aprenguem anglès,/ no?\

N: clar

T: o si?/

C: no perquè a lo millor pots aprendre més perquè si, pots saber paraules en anglès/ i no saber el que signifiquen\ i per exemple te'n vas en un lloc que tens que parlar anglès/ i parles però dius coses que, saps que són coses en anglès/ però no saps què volen dir\

T: i llavors això/ què vol dir?\

C: que si ho diem en anglès i també en català també podem aprendre què volen dir

T: clar

C: si no ho sabem

T: vol dir que aprenem més, doncs? O menys?

N: mmm

C: home... més, si tu prens en serio més/ i si no, no\

T: i de les cançons aquestes que hem treballat aquestes dos dies que, quina us ha agradat més?

MA: no sé
 T: o les dues igual?
 N: les dues
 P: les dues
 MA: les dues
 C: si
 M: han sigut molt divertides
 T: per què [divertides?
 C: i quan, quan teníem de dir-lo cadascú, em, amb l'idioma que havíem triat, em, jo m'he fet un lio
 P: i jo, jo he dit
 MA: [xxx
 N: jo ho he dit en anglès, després en castellà/ i després en català \
 MA: [jo en castellà i en anglès
 C: xxx jo m'he liat
 T: què és més difícil si ho fem així amb els tres idiomes?
 P: sí, molt
 C: a mi no, però si ho fem ahora dient paraules una en català, una en espanyol[{una en anglès, se'm fa un lio}
 N: nosaltres hem triat català
 MA: (laughs)
 C: un altre en anglès, se'm, se'm
 N: català, primer he dit anglès, després
 C: fa un lio
 N: primer he dit fingers en anglès, després dits del peu en castellà i [després en català, tot en català
 C :xxx
 P: jo, jo igual que el N, primer anglès, després he dit ca, català i després castellà
 T: i t'has fet un embolic tu també
 P: si
 T: i la MA i el Joaquin també s'han fet un embolic?/
 MA and J: si
 T: Si?
 MA: és que jo, és que
 T: però per què, per què te fas un embolic? Per què te toca i no saps que has de dir-ho/
 N: no perquè les altres persones parlen i doncs no saps a qui li toca i
 MA: ja
 C: jo és que la primera és la que m'ha costat més perquè com que érem els únics que ho fèiem en català/
 T: si
 C: aleshores
 T: però us ha agradat, si/ o no?\
 Ss: si
 C: i també m'he fet lio perquè com la cançó l'hem assajat en anglès/ i estava acostumada a dir-ho en anglès/
 T: clar
 C: dir-ho en català se m'ha fet raro i m'he liat
 T: vosaltres a vegades anant amb els pares o amb qui fos pel carrer us ha aturat algun turista per preguntar
 Ss: si, si, si
 T: si us plau on està, on està el Camp del Barça, [on està
 S : sí, sí, sí
 N: ah, una cosa, a mi a la piscina quan vaig sortir amb el, em, amb l'AL, érem els primers o no sé qui era i una, va sortir la porta/
 T: si

N: bueno, estava allà a la fila\ perquè érem els primers/ i, i surt una senyora, només estàvem nosaltres dos, perdona, on están/ els vestidors de gimnàstica\ i jo oh, però amb un altre idioma i dic, mmm

T: però en [anglès

N: en castellà, no, no sé, no sé, i després li dic, allà, allà, i dic, ai si m'he equivocat

T: bueno i això pel carrer us ha passat/ mai\

Ss: si, si

MA: a la meva germana li va passar

T: a veure, a veure, que vull sentir-ho això, un a un, a la MA, què et va passar a tu?

MA: que a la meva germana li va dir una noia, em, saps/ on està\ el

T: com li deia? En castellà,/ en anglès?\

MA: em, en català

T: ah

MA: si però és que no sabia on era i deia truca, truca, i anava trucant i diu, és per baix, però no tenia ni idea

T: però jo us pregunto si us ha aturat mai algun turista parlant [en anglès

Ss: si

JO: si

T: al JO si?

MA: en anglès

T: i què va passar? Què estaves amb els pares?

JO: amb els pares,

T: i va,

JO: amb la germana

T: tota la família, i què/ va passar?\ Va venir un turista/ i us va dir\ 'excuse me'/ o què va dir

N: no, en anglès jo no, jo en castellà i en català

T: i en anglès a ningú/ no li ha passat mai?\

P: a mi si

T: al P. Què ha passat, P?

P: mira

MA: a mi en francès

P: que volia anar no sé a on perquè ho deia en anglès

T: si

P: volia anar

T: tu amb qui estaves?

P: amb la mama

T: amb la mama

P: i m'ho pregunta ella en català i després

T: qui t'ho pregunta en català?

P: la mama, ell, el ho, l'anglès, li pregunta a la mama, la mama m'ho diu en català i jo sé on està però no/ ho sé dir\

T: no ho saps dir, en anglès?

P: (nods)

T: i aleshores no li vau poder indicar

P: no

T: algú més li ha passat en anglès, a la C?

C: a mi en portuguès

T: ostres, i què\ vas fer?/

C: i com ningú sap portuguès a la meva família,/ em, i, no sabíem, em, ho enteníem però no el sabíem parlar,\ bueno, el meu pare i aleshores li va dir que era cap a baix

T: i com li va dir?

C: mmm

T: com va poder

C: amb signes

T: fent així, senyals amb les mans

C: si
T: i a la M li ha passat alguna cosa també o no?
M: si, en castellà, és que amb la, amb el meu pare i amb la meva mare/ anàvem\ al parc de la Ciutadella/ i llavors ens va vindre un turista/ que, que necessitava veure a on estava el camp de futbol,\ no?/ Llavors el meu pare
T: i com ho preguntava? En anglès?
M: no, en castellà
T: en castellà
M: no ho entenia molt perquè era petita encara, tenia tres anys
T: el teu pare?
M: no jo
T: tu
M: llavors el meu pare no sé què va dir que, que després li trucaria, i ja està
T: molt bé

Data:

Nom:

T'agrada aprendre anglès? Per què?

Què és el que més t'agrada de l'anglès? Per què?

I el que menys t'agrada? Per què?

Com t'agrada més treballar a la classe? Sol? Amb un company? Amb un grup de companys?

T'ha sorprès alguna cosa de l'anglès aquest trimestre? Quina?

T'agradaria tornar a fer l'anglès de la mateixa manera? Per què?

³⁷ The Motivation Surveys included here have been answered by children in the treatment group: the first two before starting the research (pre-test) and the remaining at the end of the process (post-test).

Data: 8/1/08

Nom:

T'agrada aprendre anglès? Per què? Si perquè aprenem paraules i també per les obres de teatre.

Què és el que més t'agrada de l'anglès? Per què?

Les obres de teatre perquè es diverteix.

I el que menys t'agrada? Per què?

als papers que ens donen perquè es fa sempre lo mateix

Com t'agrada més treballar a la classe? Sol? Amb un company? Amb un grup

de companys? una companya perquè es pot anar parlant tranquil·lament.

Et sorprèn alguna cosa de l'anglès a segon? No

Data: 8/1/08

Nom:

T'agrada aprendre anglès? Per què?

Si perquè es una altra llengua que es pot aprendre molt fàcil

Què és el que més t'agrada de l'anglès? Per què?

Fer les cartes de Nadal perquè es una activitat d'enginyer

I el que menys t'agrada? Per què?

Les anganines perquè es trenquen cada dos per tres

Com t'agrada més treballar a la classe? Sol? Amb un company? Amb un grup de companys?

Amb un company perquè ens ajudem tranquilament

Et sorprèn alguna cosa de l'anglès a segon?

No

Data: 11-3-08

Nom:

T'agrada aprendre anglès? Per què?

Si. Per que podem aprendrem
una altra idioma.

Què és el que més t'agrada de l'anglès? Per què?

magrada molt quant fem jocs.
Per que son divertits.

I el que menys t'agrada? Per què?

La sopa de lletres. Per que es
aborrida.

Com t'agrada més treballar a la classe? Sol? Amb un company? Amb un grup de companys?

Amb un grup. Pero que aprenc mes amb
un company.

Et sorpren alguna cosa de l'anglès a segon?

Les fitxes que posem si ens
agrada.

Data: 11/3/08

Nom:

T'agrada aprendre anglès? Per què?

Si perquè fem moltes activitats divertides en anglès.

Què és el que més t'agrada de l'anglès? Per què?

Li'agrada la canço que teniam que ficen les paraules.

I el que menys t'agrada? Per què?

Res perquè el que menys m'agrada és

Com t'agrada més treballar a la classe? Sol? Amb un company? Amb un grup de companys?

Aprenc a treballar sol amb un grup de companys.

Perec a prece

Et sorprèn alguna cosa de l'anglès a segon?

L'ó que m'ha sorpresos és
cha que sigut que a la data
d'anglès es ficen una coma.

Appendix 11: Activity survey: collection of answers

All the answers to the Activity Surveys the children in the treatment group completed are included here. They are presented in chronological order:

Grid and colour card game
Survey
Chant
Menu
Trilingual word search
Trilingual chants

The answers are in Catalan and have been copied exactly as the students wrote them (including spelling or grammar mistakes). Each survey has been divided into two parts: the first part includes the student number and the answer to the following questions:

Did you like the activity?
What did you like the most?
What did you like the least?

The second part includes the student number and the answer to the following questions:

Did anything surprise you?
Would you like to do it again?
Would you do anything differently?
What did you learn?

Activity Survey 1: Grid and colour cards game			
	T'ha agradat?	Què més?	I què menys?
St 1			
St 2	si perquè hem après angles	divertirme fent memòria	re m'agrada tot
St 3	si perquè són de coses en anglès	endibinar els noms en anglès	di els noms en català
St 4	si perquè és sobre coses de menjar	English i al català	la de la fitxa
St 5	si perquè em fet la lu dels colors "blau English i vermell català" i el temps	la dels colors i el temps	res perquè tot a sigut molt divertit
St 6			
St 7	no! Perquè és molt avorrida	parla anglès	parla català
St 8	si perquè era molt xula	quan gaben	que no m'ha tocat sortir
St 9	si perquè la Cristina tenia fulls dos una era català i l'altra era anglès i ens posava la quertulina a sobre una cosa i u tenim de dir	que t'animem de dir coses en català i anglès	que no em surt a la pissarra
St 10	si perquè es molt divertida	quan ens preguntava	quan ens donava la fitxa
St 11	si perquè a sigut divertida	quan em surt nens i nenes	-
St 12	si perquè es una manera de aprendre anglès	diru ràpid i contem minuts i segons	tot m'agrada
St 13	si perquè em jugat	perquè quan em fet la lu de català i English	perquè no em surt a la pissarra
St 14	No	la be bir las cosa	la fitxa
St 15	si perquè m'agrada escriure	laque mes m'a agradat a sigut escriure el nom d'el menjar perquè m'agrada escriure	posar la data
St 16	si perquè escrivem coses en anglès i aprenem molt	tot	quan la cristina ens a renyat
St 17	si perquè és molt divertida	doncs aprendra paraules en anglès	-
St 18	si perquè aprenem molt	m'agrada quant em endivinat les paraules	res perquè tot a sigut molt divertit
St 19	si perquè una cosa dimartida	la de dir la paraules amb anglès i català	la fitxa de escriure noms amb català i anglès
St 20	si perquè m'agrada molt	m'agrada tot	no a sigut res de res
St 21	si perquè m'ha pasat molt be	quan amb unes cartulines	-
St 22	si perquè es xula	quan em dit les paraules	-
St 23	si perquè em fet grups	la de English i català de blau i vermell	la fitxa perquè no u fas amb grups
St 24	si perquè a sigut molt xula	fer de professor perquè fem cas	que m'ha fet mal l'orella
St 25	si perquè és molt xula	aprendre anglès	re. M'agrada tot

	T'ha sorprès?	Repetir?	diferent?	Què has après?
St 1	no	Si	no	a fer memoria
St 2	si que ens costi tan pansa en bread	si perque es molt dibertida	que es fes en un idioma	e adpres a dir les coses més rapit
St 3	no	No! Parque lla mu sabria tot	si	cosas de mangar
St 4	no	Si	no	sí dir parlan menjar amb English
St 5				
St 6	no! Perque m'he avorrit	no. Perque m'he avorrit	no	res! Perque ja o savia
St 7	si que parlesim catala	Si	no	no he apres res perque ja u savia
St 8	no	Si	no	res perquè lla u savia
St 9	no	Si	no	si perque ens an ensenyat mes Engles
St 10	no	més igual	no	la activitat
St 11	no	Si	no	ca as deia pa que ens equibocabem
St 12	no	Si	no	moltas cosas perque em fet moltas cosas
St 13	no	No	-	les coses en anglès
St 14	que el meu company digui 2nD	si per que es molt divertida	no	si si el mengar en angles
St 15	no perque era vastan facil	no perque ja hu en tes tot	si escriure totes les coses que sapiguem an angles	els noms de les coses que van a la navera i les que van a larmari
St 16	no	Si	no	anglés
St 17	si per an filmat	si perque es molt divertida	no	algunts tipos de menjar
St 18	no	No	no	jo no eh apres res
St 19	no	Si	no	bread
St 20	no	Si	no	els noms de manyja amd angles
St 21	quan ans as grabat	Si	no	he apres ha parlar an angles
St 22	no	Xi	no	res a part del pa
St 23	si fer català	si perque es molt xula	no	l'angles i el catala gunts
St 24	no	Si	no	a dir dreab rapit
St 25				

	Activity Survey 2: Survey		
	T'ha agradat?	Què més?	I què menys?
St 1	no perque és molt aburrida	res perque era difisil	tot peque es aburrit
St 2	si perque ha sigut molt divertida	entrevistar els meus amics	no poder entrevistar a mes amics
St 3	si perque sa dentrabista persones	la entrabista perque saps el ca li agrada	que us aguessim de fer tots alora perque taplasten
St 4	si perque em jugat	lu de antravista	ma agradat tot
St 5	si perque a sigut molt divertit lu dels noms	lu de els noms que aviam de anar entravistan	res
St 6	si perque antrabistat	las entrevistas de castella	lo que menys ma agradat es lo que stem fen ara
St 7	si perque m'he divertit	les entrevistas perque es molt emocionant	res perque tot es molt divertit
St 8	si perque han grabat	entrebista	que els nens vagin a poc a poc
St 9	perque li anaves preguntant a la gent	lu que li anaves preguntant a la gent	res
St 10	si perque es molt divertida	quan ens a deixat axacar-nos	no ma agradat lo que estic fent
St 11	si perque es divertida	les entravistes perque eren divertides	res
St 12	si perque es molt interesant	fer el entrevista	res
St 13	si	lu de la antravista	re
St 14	si perque mu he pasat molt be	tot perque tot as divertit	
St 15	si perque he pogut preguntar	lo de fer preguntes perque puc nar sola	fer això que estic fent perque tot lu altre m'agradat
St 16	si!! Perque era molt xulo	preguntar el que mes ens agrades	res
St 17	si perque sa dentravita persones a veure que si li agrada o no li agrada	entrevista a persones	res
St 18	si perquè es molt divertida	quan fellem lantrevista	res
St 19	si	lu de les anterbistas	re
St 20	si perque mue passat pipa	fer l'antrabista	res
St 21	si perque a sigut la ...	la antravista perque a sigut molt divartida	
St 22	si perque em anat amunt a bai	quant em anat a preguntar	res!
St 23	si perque man antrabistat	las antrabistas perquè men entrabistat	lo dels noms de catala english castella
St 24	si perque és xulissima	quan m'hantrevistaven perque els i deia si de tot	que amb diguin que no perque tot és molt bo
St 25	si perquè es molt xula	entrevistar a persones	no poder entrevistar a mes persones

	T'ha sorprès?	Repetir?	diferent?	Què has après?
	no	no	si fe un dibuix lliure	res
St 1	no	si molt	no	res
St 2	que aguessim de antrabistar	si perque tan dentrabista i es tambe molt antrabistar	no	que hi ha gent que li agrada tot hi ha gent que no
St 3	no	si	no	cosas del mangar
St 4	si que el joan digues las cosas	si	no	que a cada persona li agraden diferents coses
St 5	no	si	no	angles
St 6	no	si perque es divertida	no	res perque ja ho savia
St 7	no	si	no	no res
St 8	si que hem pogut correr	si	no	res
St 9	no	si	no	res
St 10	no	si perque m'he divertit	no	a fer entrevistes
St 11	no	si	no	paraules
St 12	no	si perque es molt divertit	no	re
St 13	si he sapigut el que li agrada als altres	si	no	les cosas que els agraden als altres
St 14	si fer preguntes perque ho trobo divertit	si perque es superxulu	no, m'agradat molt	a dir menjar an ingles
St 15	no	si	no	els que els i agrada als companys
St 16	no	si per entravista més persones	no	doncs sabe que no li agrada i què si li agrada
St 17	no	si perque és molt divertida	res	com es fa una entrevista
St 18	no	si	no	re
St 19	no	si	no	res
St 20	no	si	no	a antravista
St 21	no!	si!	no!	ascriure an angles
St 22	no	si magradat	no	res per qué ja mu sabia!
St 23	no	cla que si	no	entrevistar
St 24	si que entrevistem a les persones	si	no	a fer gocs diferents
St 25				

	Activity Survey 3: Chant		
	T'ha agradat?	Què més?	I què menys?
St 1	si perque amb vaig dibartir	tot	Res
St 2	si perquè ha sigut molt xula	cantar	res a mi tot m'ha agradat
St 3	si perquè sabia de fer amb grup	el que més ma agradat a sigut ascriure	canta perquè amb feia vergonya
St 4	si porque era molt divertida	lu de canta	res?
St 5	sou sou perque no u se	quan sortiam a cantar	lu de feru en grup
St 6	si perque el Joan feia molta gracia	la canso	Res
St 7	si perque era molt divertida	cantar la canso	res perquè tot es divertit
St 8	si perque ho em fet amb grup	tot	res perque ma agradat tot
St 9	una mica perquè ens variaivam però era molt divertit	canta la canso	que ens variaivam
St 10	si perque era divertida	la canso perque ere divertida	cuan u teniam de fe
St 11	si perque m'agrada treballar en grup	tot	res perque era divertida
St 12	si accepte quan ens barallavem	travalla en grup	Res
St 13	si perque em canta	quan em cantat	Res
St 14	no porque tania que esquiru molo be	lo que tania que esquirura	fe la canso
St 15	si perque es ...	fer la canco	esta asentat
St 16	ni si ni no perquè em va agradar fer-ho en gryp i cantar pro posarla en tots els idiomes no	cantar i fer-ho en grup	posaro en tots els idiomes
St 17	si perquè em treballat tots els de la nostra taula	fer una canço tots junts	Res
St 18	si per qué és molt xula!	quan fellem la cansó	res per que la activitat a sigut molt xula
St 19	si perque es molt divertida		Re
St 20	si perque es xula	tot	Res
St 21	si perque ma agra molt	cuan em cantat	quan bem escriure
St 22	sou sou perque amb vaig aquiboca	quan avia surtit la taula 2	Res
St 23	si perquè bem cantat a la pissara	lo de cantar a la pissarra	lo de retalla
St 24	si perque la hem fet en grup	cantar	Res
St 25	si perquè vam trevallar en equip	trevallar amb equip	res m'agradat tot

	T'ha sorprès?	Repetir?	diferent?	Què has après?
St 1	no	si perque me dibartit	no	Cantar
St 2	si que ho fesim en grup que cantesim a classe	si	no a mi m'esta bè així	una mica a no tindre vergonya
St 3	d'angles	si	no hi ha magradat molt	traballa en grup
St 4	no	no	no	Canta
St 5	no	si	no	Res
St 6	no	si	no	Ingles
St 7	no	si pereque es divertida	no perque aixi ja esta be	els menjas en tres idiomes
St 8	no	si	no	no res
St 9	no	si	no	si una canso nova
St 10	no	si	no	re
St 11	no	si perque m'he divert	no	a fer cançons
St 12	no	si	no	algunes paraules
St 13	no	si	no	si
St 14	no perque lo as expriquat	si fer el domino	no	res
St 15	no	si perque no hihe estat l'han fet	no o se	res
St 16	no	o tots	si posar tots els noms en angloes	els noms de les coses del menjar
St 17	no	si	no	doncs fer en equip una fitxa
St 18	res	sí perque ma agradat	cap cosa	
St 19	no	si	no	si
St 20	no	si	no	res
St 21	no	si	no	manygas
St 22	res	no	si	res
St 23	no	si	si	res
St 24	no	si	no	res
St 25	si qu o em fet amb equip	si	no	a treballar amb equip a angles

	Activity Survey 4: Menu		
	T'ha agradat?	Què més?	I què menys?
St 1	si peque me divartit	tot preque me divartit	res
St 2	si perque ha sigut molt divertida	tot m'agradat	res tot m'ha agradat
St 3	si perquè abiam de dibuixa i escriura amb grup	dibuixa perquè ens a surtit molt bé	res ja u trobaba tot molt dibertit
St 4	si! Parque es divertida	tot	res
St 5	si perque feiem el menu amb equip	quan em fet el menu	res
St 6	si perque això era un secret	quant astabem fen el dibuix	
St 7	si perque es divertida	fe un restaurant	re perque tot ma agradat
St 8	si perque es en jrup	feru en jrup	res perque tot ma agradat
St 9	si perquè amb els companys triaves el menu	que triaves el menu	res no magrada
St 10	si perque es molt divertida	quan u feiem el paper	lu que vol di lu que estic fent
St 11	si perque em treballat en grup	fer el restaurant	res
St 12	si perquè em treballat en equip	colabora	res
St 13	si perque gui	el menu	magrada tot
St 14			
St 15	no	fer lo del gelat	fer lo del menu
St 16	no	res	que no pogués escriure res per dues raons, 1-perque em feia mal el dit, 2- perque no em deixaven escriure
St 17	si perquè un menu i és molt divertida	si perquè fem un menu	res
St 18	si perque es divertida	el menu perque ho hem fet en grup	res
St 19	si perque es molt divertida	fiqa els menus	tot ma agradat
St 20	molt perque era xulisima	tot	res
St 21	si perque a sigut molt dibertida	el manu	la
St 22	haxi haxi perque yo no he escrit	quan em fet un teatra	res
St 23	si perque vem fet amb grup	lo de la obra perquè ya feia molt que no en feiem	res
St 24	si perque a sigut xulissima	escriure les postres perque u fem en grup	res
St 25	si perque a sigut molt divertida	esqriure el pla en un pape	res

	T'ha sorprès?	Repetir?	diferent?	Què has après?
St 1	no	si perque me divartit	no perque me divartit	res
St 2	si que triessim un menu	si molt	no m'esta superbé així	a dir 'macarroni'
St 3	si que puguessim possa noms que encara no abiam apres	si es molt divertida	no tot igual	a dir macaro en angles
St 4	no!	no porque lla lem fet	si una cosa diferen	cosas al menu
St 5	no	sí	no	no però m'ha agradat molt!!!
St 6	quant el juan estava fen toteries	si	no	ingles
St 7	no!	si perque ma agradat	no així ja esta bé	menjas i a fer un restaurant
St 8	no	si	no	no e apres res
St 9	no	si	no	re
St 10	no	si	no	re
St 11	no	si perquè m'he divertit	no	a fer un retaurant
St 12	no	si	no	que és mes importan pensa que escriure
St 13	no	si	no	moltas cosas si
St 14				
St 15	no	si mancantaria!!	no mai	a inventar gustos
St 16	no	no	no	res
St 17	no	si pequè puguem fer un altra primer plat	no	dir macarroni
St 18	cap cosa perque és molt divertida	sí perque m'agrada molt	res	moltes coses com fer un menu
St 19	no	si	si	si fiqa els menus
St 20	no	si	no	res
St 21	no	si	no	res
St 22	no	no	no	res
St 23	no	si	si	res
St 24	no	si!!!	no!	res
St 25	si que em escrit el plat	si	no	e apres a dir macarro amb angles

Activity Survey 5: Trilingual Word search			
	T'ha agradat?	Què més?	I què menys?
St 1	si perque me divartit	tot	Res
St 2	si molt perque m'he divertit molt buscant paraules	compartir-la	res, tot m'ha agradat
St 3	si perque busca paraules es divertit i també ferne	busca paraules perque es una mica dificil	tot m'ha agradat pero si haig de triar pictures i això
St 4	si	tot	Res
St 5			
St 6	si perque hem fet unes coses divertides	quan feiem les paretles	Res
St 7	si perque m'he divertit	tot perque m'ha agradat	res perque tot es divertit
St 8	si molt perque ens ho hem canviat	la sopa de lletres	m'ha agradat tot
St 9			
St 10	si perque es divertit	la sopa de lletres	lo dels papers
St 11	si perque m'he divertit	fer la sopa de lletres	Res
St 12	si perque es interessant	posar els noms a la pissarra	quan buscavem les paraules
St 13	si	la sopa de lletres	m'ha agradat tot
St 14			
St 15	moltissim perquè m'agraden les sopes de lletres	la sopa de lletres	escriure la sopa de lletres
St 16	si perque era divertida	m'ha agradat tot	Res
St 17	si perque teniem que fer una sopa de lletres	m'ha agradat enganxar els noms a la pissarra	Res
St 18	si perque es divertida	la sopa de lletres perque es divertida	Res
St 19	si perque es de trobar paraules es molt divertit	m'ha agradat tot	m'ha agradat tot
St 20	oh, i tant	la sopa de lletres	Res
St 21	si ha sigut molt xula	la sopa de lletres m'ho he passat molt be	quan has amagat el full
St 22	si perque hem fet coses divertides	quan hem fet una cosa que hem ficat uns cartells a la pissarra	Res
St 23	si perque hem fet activitats molt xules	la sopa de lletres	Res
St 24			
St 25	si	la sopa de lletres	m'ha agradat tot

	T'ha sorprès?	Repetir?	diferent?	Què has après?
St 1	no	si	no	angles
St 2	si que preparessim nosaltres la sopa de lletres	si molt	no	una mica a fer sopa de lletres i amb angles
St 3	no tot era normal jo crec	si es molt i molt divertida	no ja m'agrada aixi	com s'escriuen els noms de la cara en angles
St 4	no	no	no	cosas de sopa de lletres
St 5				
St 6	no			
St 7	no	si perque es divertida	no aixi ja esta be	res perque ja ho sabia
St 8	no	si	no	no res
St 9				
St 10	no	si	no	res
St 11	no	si perque m'ha agradat molt	no	les parts de la cara en angles
St 12	no	si	no	que es important saber treballar en equip
St 13	no	si	no	moltes coses
St 14				
St 15	no	si m'encantaria	si no em vull quedar tota la vida fent lu mateix	
St 16	no	si m'encantaria	no	a fer sopa de lletres
St 17	no	si perque vull fer una altra sopa de lletres	no	com es diuen les coses que tenim a la cara
St 18	cap cosa	si perque es molt xula	res	he apres les parts de la cara
St 19	no	si	no	buscar paraules
St 20	no	oh, i tant	no	res
St 21	no	si	no	a escriure coses en angles
St 22	no	no ho se	ni ho pensis	coses
St 23	no	si	si	res
St 24		si	no	angles
St 25	si que fessim una sopa de lletres	si	no	a fer una sopa de lletres

	Activity Survey 6: Trilingual Chants		
	T'ha agradat?	Què més?	I què menys?
St 1	si perque m'he divertit	tot	res
St 2	si molt	cantar	res tot m'ha encantat
St 3	si perque ho podiem fer amb tres idiomes	tot pero el que mes angles quan cantavem en angles	res tot era molt divertit
St 4	si perque m'he divertit	tot	res
St 5	si perque ens teniem que recordar	quan ho deiem tot amb les fileres	el ball perque era molt avorrit
St 6	si perque ens va agradar molt	quan parlavan això	res
St 7	si perque m'ha agradat	tot	res, tot es divertit
St 8	si perque m'ha agradat	les cançons	m'ha agradat tot
St 9	si perque cantàvem	cantar perque es guai	que els meus companys de taula triavem diferent que jo i no podia fer lo que jo triava
St 10	si perque hem ballat	quan vam cantar	quan ens hem esperat
St 11	si perque m'ho vaig passar be	cantar la cançó	res perquè era molt divertida
St 12	si perque es divertit	les cançons	res
St 13	si	quan hem cantat	m'ha agradat tot
St 14	si	les enganxines	lu que ara estem fent
St 15	si perque molava molt	quan tots cridavem perque m'ha agradat molt	que les cançons es paressin perquè era molt avorrit
St 16	si perque era molt divertit	ballar	res
St 17	si perque tenim que escriure les paraules correctes	cantar la cançó i ballar	res
St 18	si perque aprens cançons en un altre idioma	quan feiem la canço	res perque tot ha sigut molt divertit
St 19	si perque hem apres a cantar cançons d'angles	tot m'ha agradat	quan hem tingut que cantar en catala i castella i angles
St 20	moltissim	tot	res
St 21	si	les cançons	
St 22	si pero ja t'ho vaig dir en un altre full	tot m'ha agradat	res perque m'ho he passat molt be
St 23	si perque era molt xulo	res	res
St 24	si perque em divertia ballant	tot	res
St 25	si molt i molt perque m'he divertit molt	ballar i les cançons perque ha sigut molt xulo	m'ha agradat tot, molt, molt

	T'ha sorprès?	Repetir?	diferent?	Què has après?
St 1	no	si perque m'he divertit	no	he apres a dir les parts del cos en angles
St 2	si que la cantessim en catala, espanyol i angles	si moltissim	no m'està bé així	parts del cos
St 3	que el guillem balles	si era molt divertit	no crec que no	res pero una cosa el guillem es un bitxo
St 4	no	no perque ja l'hem fet	no	a cantar amb diferents idiomes
St 5	no	si	no	m'he apres el paper
St 6	no	si	no	angles
St 7	no	no perque ja l'hem fet	no	res perque ja ho sabia
St 8	no	si	no	no he apres res
St 9	no	no ho se	no	que es 'face'
St 10	no	si	no	a cantar allo
St 11	no	si perque era divertida	no	les parts dels cos en angles
St 12	no	si	no	a ballar
St 13	no	si	no	moltes coses
St 14				
St 15	no gens	si	no vull fer sempre lo mateix	els idiomes
St 16	no	no	no	els noms de les parts del cos
St 17	no	si	no	a dir les parts del cos en angles
St 18	cap cosa	si perque m'agrada cantar	res	a cantar i a ballar
St 19	no	si perque es molt divertit	no	cantar
St 20	no	si	no	res
St 21	no	si	no	els noms de les parts del cos
St 22	no	si	ni hablar	a cantar una caço en angles
St 23	no	si	si	no se res
St 24	no	si	no	a ballar
St 25	si que ens aixequessim a ballar i perque m'agrada ballar cançons en angles	si perque ha sigut molt xulo	no	una canço nova

Appendix 14: Motivation survey: collection of answers

All the answers to the Motivation Surveys the children in the treatment group and in the control groups completed are included here. They are presented as follows:

- Treatment group
 - Pre-test (date)
 - Post-test (date)
- Control group 1
 - Pre-test (date)
 - Post-test (date)
- Control group 2
 - Pre-test (date)
 - Post-test (date)
- Control group 3
 - Pre-test (date)
 - Post-test (date)

The answers are in Catalan and have been copied exactly as the students wrote them (including spelling or grammar mistakes). The answers that each question has received in the pre-test and the post-test are presented on the same page. The order of the questions respects the order they had in the Motivation Survey, namely:

1. Do you like learning English? Why?
2. What do you like the most about learning English? Why?
3. What do you like the least about learning English? Why?
4. How do you prefer to work in class? Alone? With a partner? In groups?
5. Did anything surprise you this term? What?

Do you like learning English? Why? (TREATMENT GROUP)						
PRETEST TG/8-1				POSTEST TG/11-3		
	Yes	No	Why	Yes	No	Why
St 1	x		puc entendre els altres	x		em diverteixo i aprenc
St 2	x		fem coses divertides	x		és un idioma que es parla a molts països
St 3	x		fem moltes activitats i aprenem una llengua molt bonica	x		aprenem fent jocs i es parla a molts llocs del món
St 4	x		coses divertides	x		?
St 5	x		quan vagi a un altre país ho podré entendre	x		quan vaig a un altre país sabré parlar i em podré comunicar
St 6	x		podria parlar amb una altra persona	x		així podré conèixer tots els idiomes
St 7	x		aprenem un altre idioma i també m'ho passo bé	x		aprenc un altre idioma que molta gent sap parlar i així em podré comunicar
St 8				x		ens ensenyen molt
St 9	x		fem activitats divertides	x		fem activitats divertides
St 10	x		és un altre idioma que no sé	x		és xulo i aprenc
St 11	x		si vaig a algun país que parlen anglès podré parlar amb altres	x		em diverteixo i aprenc anglès
St 12	x		s'aprèn una llengua nova i també m'ho passo molt bé	x		és un idioma nou i en podem aprendre molt
St 13	x		fem jocs amb la cristina	x		m'agrada molt aprendre anglès
St 14	x		així puc aprendre anglès			
St 15	x		me'n vaig a boston i puc contestar algun anglès	x		és molt xulo i si vaig a amèrica sabré més
St 16	x		penso que amb l'anglès podré parlar amb molta gent	x		aprenem a base de jocs i posem la data en anglès
St 17	x		cançons	x		aprenem moltes paraules en anglès
St 18	x		fem jocs a la classe	x		podem aprendre un altre idioma
St 19	x		fem coses molt divertides	x		fem activitats molt divertides
St 20	x		quan vagi a llocs podré parlar	x		així puc viatjar
St 21	x		molt divertit	x		és molt guai
St 22	x		és xulo aprendre idiomes	x		aprenc molt!
St 23	x		aprenc paraules i també per les obres de teatre	x		és molt important aprendre idiomes
St 24	x		és una altra llengua que es pot aprendre molt fàcil	x		és una llengua que es parla a tot el món
St 25	x		fem moltes manualitats	x		si treballo a algun lloc on parlen anglès no (sic) podré parlar

What do you like the most about learning English? (TREATMENT GROUP)		
PRETEST TG/8-1		POSTEST TG/11-3
	What	What
St 1	na a veure les obres de teatre	fer jocs i istories
St 2	m'agrada jugar amb les cartes d'animals, coses del cole	passar-m'ho bé aprenent perquè és molt divertit
St 3	magra fer fitxes perquè són molt dibertides	al que més tot pero el que més fer les fitxes. I els jocs l'antrabista
St 4	aprens cosas	tot lo que em fet ma agradat... i tambe els jocs i les istories!
St 5	quan fem las mini obres perquè em de fer el personatjes de las historias	quan fem les mini obres de teatre del llibre perquè és guai
St 6	si quant retellem i anganxem	fer jocs perque son molt divertits
St 7	l'obre de teatre del rudolf perquè va ser molt divertida	jocs i cansons i els teatres amb ingles perque em diverteixo aprenent
St 8		les fitxes en grup!
St 9	les activitats perquè fem teatre, hi han persontxes	les activitats perquè són dibertides. La que més la de nar preguntar si li agradava el menjar
St 10	quan ens fica andibinallas a la pisara perque magradan	les actibitats perquè ens divertim
St 11	lu del rudolf perquè mu vaig passa molt bé	les activitats perquè em diverteixo. I la que més l'entrevista
St 12	els jocs i cuan fem istorias perque mo passo bé	fe jocs i mentrestan aprenem i a mes es mes dibertit aprendre mentre tu passes bé
St 13	fixa de l'spike	quan vam aprendre a tea, limmada, coffi, etc.
St 14	el teatre del rudolf	
St 15	fe jocs an angles perque em diverteixo mes fen això que feines	quant fem jocs perque soc una nena i sen nena els jocs em diverteixen mes que sen adu
St 16	perque apranem cuan treballam molt el colors, numaros, etc.	les activitats, istories i això peque es divertit
St 17	si perque fem moltes activitats	lo de la canço que taniam que fica les paraules
St 18	perque ens amagaven els numeros i els aviem dendevinar	m'agrada molt quant fem jocs perque son divertits
St 19	la careta dels llibres	perque fem teatre amb angles
St 20	les actibitats perque juguem	les actibitats perque si juga
St 21	allo ca abiam de andivina nosavias quin era lanimal	aprendre perque aprendre es molt bo
St 22	magrada perque fem jocs	al de la sopa de lletres
St 23	les obres de teatre perque es divartit	cantar perque es chulo i molt mes a ingles i les activitats
St 24	fer les cartes de nadal perquè es una activitat d'enginyer	tot pero el que mes m'agrada d'angles es les cançons perque u fem en grup
St 25	cuam fem el teatre al pisarra perquè es molt divertit	m'agrada molt cantar amb angles perquè és molt xulu!

What do you like the least about learning English? (TREATMENT GROUP)		
PRETEST TG/8-1		POSTEST TG/11-3
	What	What
St 1		les fitxes de memoria perque e de pensar
St 2	quan fem fitxes	m'ha agradat tot excepte quan s'acaba la classe perque durant la classe m'ho passo molt bé
St 3	el que magrada menys és el final de la classe el ritma	res pero el que menys canta. No m'agrada canta
St 4	ascoltar la radio porque molesta	res aquestes figes. I tambe perque quan no se una pregunta em fico nerviosa
St 5	las fitxes perquè son molt aburridas	les fitxes com la que em fet avui perque son molt avurridas
St 6	no lu primer de la classe	res perque son molt divertidas
St 7	fer fitxes dels llibres d'igles perque son aborridas	les paretles que fem a la pissarra perque son avorridas
St 8		aquesta fitxa perque em poso nerviosa
St 9	sopa de lletres perquè no se vusca re	aquesta pregunta perque no se que respondre
St 10	las fitgues perque son aburidas	lu que ya sabem que ens u explicin perquè si ya u sabem no te sentit
St 11		les fitxes que fem per dir si l'activitat ens agradat
St 12	cuan la cristina senfada perque se que u podriam aberu fet millor tots	quan t'enfades
St 13	andrasem lalbun	
St 14	las fillas	
St 15	fitxes aburridas perque crec que podrian fer algo millor	aquesta fitxa que estic fent ara mateix perque es un rollo
St 16	cuan ens renyen perque alesores no podem apendre	esta sol quan ens castigan perque si el xula es una llastima
St 17	el que menys magrada es fitxes dificils	res perque el que menys magrada es
St 18	a vegades quan fem coses del llibre	la sopa de lletres perque es aborrida
St 19	el full del rudolf	la sopa de lletres perque es molt avorida
St 20	que ens renyin. Perque ens u passem malament	quan ens tatges un stop perque quan ens tatges els tres ens em cadat sense classe
St 21		aquesta em posa nerviosa
St 22	no m'agrada perquè les fitxes son avurridas	res!!!
St 23	als papers que ens donan perque es fa sempre lo mateix	quan la cristina s'enfada perquè ens dona la sensacio que perdem el temps
St 24	les anganxines perquè es trancan cada dos per tres	les fitxes perque u fem sols i a mi m'agrada treballar en grup
St 25	al final de la classe perquè s'acava l'angles	aquesta em posa nerviosa

How do you prefer to work in class? Alone? With a partner? In groups? (TREATMENT GROUP)		
PRETEST TG/8-1		POSTEST TG/11-3
	How	How
St 1	amb un company perquè estic més tranquil	amb companys però aprenc millor sol
St 2	sol	amb un company i també amb un grup de companys però jo sola aprenc més
St 3	em una parella perquè és molt divertit i sol et sents malament	si pot ser sola sino en parella jo crec que aprenc més sola
St 4	amb un grup perquè diberteix	amb grup però aprenc més sola
St 5	amb un grup perquè puc parlar amb els companys	amb un grup de companys però jo aprenc més sola depen
St 6	jo sol	perquè així ens podem ajudar entre tots
St 7	amb un grup de companys perquè es més divertit i m'agrada més bé	amb un grup de companys però aprenc més sol
St 8		jo aprenc més sola però m'agrada més en grup
St 9	en grup perquè no estic sol	amb un grup de companys perquè és més divertit i aprenc més perquè si no u se a lo millor l'altre u sap
St 10	amb un grup	sol perquè quan siguis gran li tindràs que demanar ajuda
St 11	amb un grup de companys. Perquè no m'agrada estar sol	amb un grup de companys i aprenc més sola
St 12	amb un company perquè així podem fer més coses	amb un company perquè si treballo sola em poso nerviosa i si treballo en un grup també puc aprenc més sola
St 13	amb els companys	amb companys i amb grup i perquè aprenc més amb companys perquè at poden ajudar
St 14	amb un grup	
St 15	jo vull estar sola perquè em puc concentrar millor	amb un company però només amb un
St 16	amb un grup de companys perquè si o fem tots junts u fem millor	amb grup o amb un company jo aprenc més amb grup o amb un company
St 17	amb un company perquè m'agrada parlar amb un company	aprenc a treballar amb un grup de companys
St 18	m'agrada molt amb companys	amb un grup. Però aprenc més amb un company
St 19	amb un grup de companys	amb grup aprenc més amb grup
St 20	amb un company perquè no m'agrada estar sola	amb un grup de companys. Aprenc més amb un grup de companys
St 21	amb un grup de companys	sol amb parella
St 22	amb un grup de companys	aprenc més amb companyia perquè sino no u se fer
St 23	amb un company perquè es pot anar parlant tranquilament	amb un grup de nens i nenes o sola
St 24	amb un company perquè ens ajudem tranquilament	amb un grup de companys
St 25	amb una parella perquè em consent més	amb un grup de companys, aprenc més sola.

Did anything surprise you this term? (TREATMENT GROUP)						
PRETEST TG/8-1				POSTEST TG/11-3		
	Yes	No	Why	Yes	No	Why
St 1		x		x		les manualitats
St 2		x		x		que m'ho hagi passat tan bé
St 3			em sorprèn que tots els dies de la setmana acabin amb day	x		que l'anglès s'escriu molt raro
St 4		x		x		que hem fet moltes manualitats i també les cançons
St 5		x		x		la carta de nadal
St 6		x			x	? [aprenc anglès]
St 7		x		x		treballem mentre juguem
St 8				x		la Cristina és molt bona professora
St 9		x		x		juguem i alhora aprenem i també parlàvem amb tres idiomes català, castellà i anglès
St 10			el JN Perquè fa tonteries	x		lo del menjar que déiem que si li agradava
St 11		x		x		que ens gravin
St 12		x			x	
St 13		?		x		que l'anglès es parla molt, a vegades la cristina parla amb castellà i català
St 14		x				
St 15			que em gravin	x		que em gravin
St 16		x		x		ha sigut una mica infantil però està bé
St 17		x		x		que a la data en anglès es posa una coma
St 18			canviem de personatges	x		les fitxes que posem si ens agrada
St 19		x			x	
St 20		x		x		aprendre el menjar
St 21		x			x	
St 22		x		x		que la cristina parli català
St 23		x		x		si les obres i la data perquè no diu de març diu March
St 24		x		x		no gaire alguna cosa sí com per exemple que s'escriu molt raro
St 25			quasi res s'escriu com sona	x		que la cristina sigui tan bona professora i que també aprenem molt fent jocs

Do you like learning English? Why? (CONTROL GROUP 1)						
PRETEST CG1/11-1				POSTEST CG1/14-3		
	Yes	No	Why	Yes	No	Why
St 1				x		fem activitats
St 2	x		m'agrada aprendre anglès	x		aprenc un altre idioma
St 3	x		divertit	x		aprenc un altre idioma
St 4	x		és un altre idioma	x		és un altre idioma
St 5	x		viatjar	x		viatjar
St 6	x		divertit	depèn		
St 7	x		m'ho passo bé	x		divertit
St 8	x		teatres	-		
St 9	x		s'aprèn	x		divertit
St 10	x		jocs, m'agrada l'idioma	x		aprenc un altre idioma
St 11				x		m'agrada lo que fem
St 12	x		?	x		teatre
St 13	x		divertit	x		divertit, aprenc un altre idioma
St 14	x		divertit	x		bona professora
St 15	x		per si cambio	x		divertit, viatjar
St 16	x		viatjar	x		viatjar
St 17	x		ratolins	x		aprenc
St 18	x		divertit	x		divertit
St 19	x		aprenem	depèn		
St 20	x		viatjar	x		divertit
St 21	x		activitats xules	x		activitats xules
St 22	x		divertit	x		jocs
St 23	x		m'agrada l'idioma	x		
St 24	x		treballem molt	-		
St 25	x		aniré a anglaterra	x		superdivertit, viatjar

What do you like the most about learning English? (CONTROL GROUP 1)		
PRETEST CG1/11-1		POSTEST CG1/14-3
	What	What
St 1		fe els mini books perquè podem pintar i llegir
St 2	quan cantem cançons perquè amb dibarteixo	quan fem els teatras. Fa una mica de grasia
St 3	jugar aprenen	les activitats perquè aprenem i juguem a la vegada
St 4	lobra del rudolph perquè el rudolp es divertit	tot perquè tot es molt molt chulu
St 5	imitabam els personatxes	aprendr ingles i per dibertinsa una miceta mes les obres
St 6	munta coses perquè magrada molt	com fem el mini teatre perquè magrada fer teatre
St 7	quan van fer el cinema perquè era molt divertit	els jocs perquè mu paso molt bé
St 8	el sinema	
St 9	jugar a jocs divartis perquè sapren una mica	el teatre perquè quedacop surt algu diferent
St 10	el llibre de gles	els teatres perquè son divertits
St 11		perquè fem teatre i el teatre de angles es molt divertit
St 12	perquè magara	(activitats)
St 13	els jocs perquè son molt divertits	quan fem teatres!!! perquè son divertits!!!
St 14	la senyu es molt amabla	la cristina fem petits llibres que aprenem
St 15	quan els i fava pustals als de 6é	teatre perquè tenim que imitar els protagonistes del teatre
St 16	rudolf pe que cantava la qucaratxa	fer minicontes per poder escriure i pintar i llegir-lo
St 17	lu de nadal perquè fa molta gacia	els teatres perquè llagim i despres u fem a la pissarra
St 18	els llibres perquè es molt guai	activitat llibre perquè tenen enganxines
St 19	perquè mirem videos	endevinar lo del otto o del jack perquè em diverteixo
St 20	jugar perquè es molt divertit	les obres de teatre perquè o fem tots gunts
St 21	el cinema	Halloween perquè fem castells de por
St 22	magraden els jocs perquè son molt divertits	els teatres
St 23	ma gradat molt Halouwin	quan fem mini books perquè es dibertit
St 24	traballa	
St 25	el llibre de actibitat perquè les actibitats son molt guais	el teatre perquè em de parlar en angles i magrada molt parlar en angles

What do you like the least about learning English? (CONTROL GROUP 1)		
PRETEST CG1/11-1		POSTEST CG1/14-3
	What	What
St 1		quat taxas les tres greus per que`tenim de descansar
St 2	quan tenfadas	res a mi tot amb sebla dibartit
St 3	quan la cristina sanfada	quan taxan els 3 stops perquè sa acaba la classe d'angles
St 4	re perque tot es divertida	res perque tot es diber
St 5	que em costa una mica ascriure ingles	que em castiguin perque tot es molt dibartit
St 6	ca duri tant poc la classe perque magada molt	el stop perque no magrada cadarma sense classe
St 7	quan fem fitxes perque es una mica aborrit	treballar perque es una mica avorrit
St 8	perque costa molt treure el conta i a mes tenim que escriure molt	
St 9	quan es taxa els 3 estops	que taxi la tres setop perque nos quem sesa conina la classe
St 10	pinta	quan fiquem les top perque o sino ens quedem sense classe
St 11		els mini bucs
St 12	perque no magara	(dictats)
St 13	quant la cristina senfada perquè sanfada molt	quant taxes els 3 stop!! Perque sa acabat la clase!
St 14	ser el para	res perque tot es llupi
St 15	es que es parla duna forma difaren que sescriu	que tatxin els tres estops perque lla no fem mes classe
St 16	fe la pustal per que llavia pega	el final de la clase em de posar un vigilant i tenim un minut per fer la fila
St 17	re perquè tot es divartit	lu dels tibiti books perque fem coses que no sabem gaire
St 18	pinta	les stop perque sense classe
St 19	perque fem fitxes	stop perque m'avorreixo
St 20	algunes fitxas perque son aborridetes	fer dictats, perquè és molt i molt aborrit
St 21	algunes fixes	les top perque ens cadem sense clase
St 22	quan feiem fitxes del llibre, perque algunes eren molt avorrides	les fitxes perquè són molt avorrides
St 23	res	le stop perque no magrada descansar
St 24	no fasi tontarias perque molesta	
St 25	les cansons perquè son un rollo	el estop perque si no ens quedem sensa classe

How do you prefer to work in class? Alone? With a partner? In groups? (CONTROL GROUP 1)		
PRETEST CG1/11-1		POSTEST CG1/14-3
	How	How
St 1		a mi magrada treballa en un grup i apren mes en un grup de nens
St 2	amb un grup perque astis amb companyia	amb un grup en un grup perque es més dibartit
St 3	amb un company perque en ajudem	amb parella. Amb un grup de nens
St 4	am una parella perque vull tindre companyia	amb parella perque si maquivoco mu pot dir
St 5	sola	tots amb un grup perque tot i partisipe
St 6	em un company perque quan maquivoco mu diu	amb un grup amb parella
St 7	amb un grup de companys perque ho fem tot junts	amb un grup de nens, amb parella
St 8	sol	
St 9	amb un company perque ens mirem	amb un grup. Amb un gurp perque som més
St 10	amb un grup de companys perque mu pasoo mes be	amb un grup, parella
St 11	un company	solet, solet
St 12		(grup)
St 13	amb un grup de companys perquè estic amb mes jent	amb un grup perque mu passo divertit. Sol perque aixi no emb molesten
St 14	am un grup de cumpanyys perce estic acumpans	grup, aixi puc ajudar
St 15	amb un grup parque no vui asta sol	amb un grup de nens, perque podem dirnos els resultats
St 16	em un company pe que poden jugar	sol perque no em molesten, sol perque sino em desconsentren
St 17	si perquè estic cumpanyada	amb un grup perque estem tots junts en un grup aixi aprendrem tots junts
St 18	sol	grup perque aixi puc parlar, sol perque no em distrec
St 19	amb un grup de companys perquè riem	amb un grup perque em diverteix, sol perque no em distrec
St 20	amb un grup de companys perque estic acompanyada	amb tota la classe
St 21	un gru de compalls	amb grup
St 22	amb un grup, perque aixi si no saps una cosa un nen del grup m'ho dira	en grup, en parella
St 23	un grup de companys perque tens cumpanyia	en un grup perque ens podem ajudar
St 24	sol perque si fan tontarillas	
St 25	amb un grup de companys perquè magrada tenir companyia	amb un grup perque es mes divertit

Did anything surprise you this term? (CONTROL GROUP 1)						
PRETEST CG1/11-1				POSTEST CG1/14-3		
	Yes	No	What	Yes	No	What
St 1				x		quan ens graven i que vingui una senyoreta
St 2		x		x		quan ens van gravar
St 3	x		que a la classe ens gravin	x		que vinguin tres professores a la classe i que ens gravin
St 4	x		les pelis	x		que ens gravin
St 5	x		com es parla	x		a vegades ens hem portat molt malament i ens han "tatxat"
St 6		x		x		quan ens van filmar
St 7	x		que en una classe ens van gravar	x		quan va venir l'aida
St 8		x		-		
St 9		x		x		que ens han gravat
St 10		x			x	
St 11	-			x		quan va venir l'aida
St 12		x		x		? [ets tan bona senyoreta]
St 13		x		x		han "tatxat" stops 2 o 3 dies
St 14		x		x		canviem de tema
St 15	x		m'agrada l'idioma que parlen	x		ara fiquen vigilants a l'escala
St 16		x			x	
St 17		x		x		mig mig perquè m'he avorrit més
St 18		x		x		l'stop
St 19	x		és divertit	x		m'he avorrit més
St 20	x		quan un dia vaig veure una fitxa	x		ha vingut l'aida i la maria
St 21	x		vaig mirar el llibre i vaig veure un cocodril		x	
St 22	x		quan ens vas explicar que aniríem a l'obra del Rudolph	x		que hi hagi dos ajudants, un d'esborrar la pissarra i l'altre que fiqui la data
St 23	x		com es parla		x	
St 24		x		-		
St 25	x		quan ens filmen, perquè és molt guai	x		quan ens van filmar

Do you like learning English? Why? (CONTROL GROUP 2)						
PRETEST CG2/9-1				POSTEST CG2/12-3		
	Yes	No	Why	Yes	No	Why
St 1	x		fem treballs molt divertits	x		fem mini llibres
St 2	x		m'agrada com es parla en anglès	x		fem activitats i fer anglès és molt important
St 3	x		fem coses molt xules	x		m'agrada aprendre coses noves
St 4	x		és divertit	x		és divertit
St 5	x		em sorprèn molt com fer les coses	x		és molt divertit i ens ajudarà molt quan siguem grans
St 6	x		quan escoltem música en anglès (?)	x		és divertit
St 7	x		m'ho passo molt bé	x		és molt divertit
St 8	x		m'agrada el llibre	x		fem jocs del llibre
St 9	x		-	x		fem moltes activitats
St 10	-			x		podem aprendre moltes coses noves en anglès
St 11	x		fas moltes coses divertides	x		els nens de la classe fan tonteries
St 12	x		aprenem coses	x		aprenc coses en anglès
St 13	x		així quan sigui gran podré anar a Estats Units	x		quan sigui gran podré anar de viatge a llocs que es parli anglès
St 14	x		podré viatjar per tot el món	x		podré viatjar a molts llocs
St 15	x		aprenc idiomes diferents i això m'agrada molt	x		aprenc un llenguatge nou
St 16	x		és interessant i a vegades pot arribar a ser molt xulo	x		és important i aprens molt i és divertit
St 17	x		és un idioma que quasi bé el sap tot el món	x		és un idioma que s'aprèn a molts llocs del món
St 18	x		hi ha unes paraules molt rares	x		és molt guapo
St 19	x		és molt divertit	x		puc aprendre
St 20	x		m'ho passo molt bé	x		m'ho passo molt bé
St 21	x		-	x		aprenc
St 22	x		és una llengua que es parla a altres llocs i si un dia vaig a algun país que es parli anglès ja sabré parlar la llengua anglesa	x		ens ensenyen moltes coses
St 23	x		aprenc a dir paraules	x		és divertit aprendre
St 24	x		es pot aprendre molt	x		puc aprendre moltes coses en anglès
St 25	x		és molt divertit	x		és molt divertit

What do you like the most about learning English? (CONTROL GROUP 2)		
	PRETEST CG2/11-1	POSTEST CG2/14-3
	What	What
St 1	el que mes m'agrada es quant fem el pare noel... perque ens ho emporem a casa	els mini llibres perque acaben malement
St 2	el nom dels animals perque lla mals se paraxemple cat dog...	els animals perque tenen un nom molt xulu cat dog cow...
St 3	el que mes m'agrada d'ingles es cuan surtim en mig perque m'agrada fer mimica	es fer agsamens perque es divertit per mi
St 4	fer com manualitats perquè després t'a les amportes	els jocs. Perque molt i molt divertit
St 5	qom la sanyureta explica les coses per aprendra aquesta llengua perquè em dibarteixo molt	la manera decsplicar les coses i antendra perque es una llengua dibertita
St 6	a mi m'agrada quan fem mini obres perquè fan molta gracia	si perquè m'hagrada fer mini obres
St 7	aprendra ascriure amb ingles parque aprenc	els teatres perque son divertits
St 8	fe gocs	magran els gocs que fem el llibre d'ingles perquè magraden els que hi han en el llibre
St 9	quan vallem una peli	el que mes marda es quan ratallem una cosa del llibre
St 10		els mini books perque és on per mi es fan mes coses
St 11	perquè juguem a moltes coses dibartides	jugar amb els demes
St 12	m'agrada ascolta muzica porque son molt xulas	escoltar musica perque son bonica
St 13	quant fem obres de teatre amb anglés	quant es parla perquè puc fer un idioma més per la meva colexsió de idiomes
St 14	magrada més cuan poses unes cartes del rebes a la pisara i les em de andibiner perque les em de andibiner	cuan fem fitxes perquè és dibartit
St 15	magrada molt un joc porque aquet joc és molt divertit	els mini vucs perque fem contes
St 16	estudia i quan tenim de ser la mama el papa el bebe la filla i el fill	quan fem activitats quan estudiem
St 17	els numeros porque és el que espren primer de tot	les obres del espai i la ruvi perquè hi han molts jocs divertits
St 18	magrada les activitats que fem	tot perquè es molt guapu totes les coses que fes
St 19	m'agra quan fem contes	el que apranem perquè es divertit
St 20	quant tenim que adivina numeros. Perque jo amb relacsu molt	tot i lu ca mes magrada es las istories perque son molt divertides
St 21	fe jocs de ingles porque si no ma aburexo	es fer gocs porque ens pasem molt bé
St 22	m'agraden les activitats perquè són divertides	els examen perquè aprenem moltes paraules diferents
St 23	aprendre perque magrada molt ingles	les manualitats perque son molt divertides
St 24	perquè llabors ia sabre parla amb l'anglès	magrada molt perque apreng els colos en angles els obgetes
St 25	és quan fem mini books	magrada quant jugem

What do you like the least about learning English? (CONTROL GROUP 2)		
	PRETEST CG2/9-1	POSTEST CG2/12-3
	What	What
St 1	quan relacionem perque mavorerix una mica	ecsamens perquè m'agradaria acabarlos
St 2	cuant bui surti a la pisara	fer fitxes amb catala perquè estem fen engles
St 3		no m'agrada suspendre
St 4	que no m'ascullin perquè a mi m'agrada fer-las	res perque no hi ha res
St 5	no aprendra re i suspendre perquè jo bull treballar molt i aprendra	no fer les coses bé perque tinc por de no aprendra bé
St 6	quan fem fitxes del llibre perquè a vagades son una mica rollo	i llo que se?
St 7	cuant taxa el 2 perque no vull calla	les fixes perque mabureixen una mica
St 8	Lestop	lu que menys magrada es l'estop perque d'avagades taxem fins el 3 i ens quedem sensa fe classe
St 9	quan sacava la classe	quan sentim el caset
St 10		tot magrada escepte els examens
St 11	perque fem fixes	traballa
St 12	fe fixas parque son difisils	que sacabi la clase perque sacaba ingles
St 13	que quan escrius les paraules perque son molt diferens de com les dius	que els numeros sa semblen molt perque per axsemle al 13 i el 30 se semblen molt
St 14	quan fem fixes perque es un avuriment	cuan fem eexamens perquè és mol aburit
St 15	no magrada apendra noms danimals parque as da parla molt	els ecsamans perque son molt difisil per mi
St 16	el que ens tatxis el stop	que ens taxin el stop
St 17	els mesos parque costa molt de pendre	els agsames perquè son molt difisils
St 18	cuan ascrivim els noms dels upgectes	res perque tot es molt divertit
St 19	no u se	dons no hi ha ninguna cosa
St 20	quan acavem angles perque a ingles mo paso molt bé	quant sacaba l'igles. Perque mo passo molt be i aprenc moltes coses
St 21	estudia parque si no amb cansu	res magrada tot
St 22	res perquè m'agrada molt l'anglès	quant la professora s'enfada perquè nosaltres parlem
St 23	Aborirme	fer una fitxa
St 24	perquè gairebé no sé parla amb l'angles	els colors o els objectes perquè em costa molt aprendrels
St 25	no re	pusa la balena blanca

How do you prefer to work in class? Alone? With a partner? In groups? (CONTROL GROUP 2)		
PRETEST CG2/9-1		POSTEST CG2/12-3
	How	How
St 1	amb un company	amb un company perquè aprenc més
St 2	sol	amb un company i aprenc més coses amb un company
St 3	sol perquè així amb puc consantra	m'agrada més treballar amb un company però aprenc més sola
St 4	amb un grup de companys	amb una parella i aprenc millor amb una parella
St 5	amb un grup de nens i nenes perquè aixins si no u e antes hu pragunto	aprenc molt més en grup per aprendra les deferens formes de pensar
St 6	a mi m'agrada treballar em grup per què així no estic sol es una mica rollo	magrada treballar amb parella pero aprenc més sol
St 7	amb un grup de nens i nenes	magrada més treballar sol. Però aprenc més amb un company
St 8	amb un grup de companys perquè així pudre parla més	magrada mes
St 9	amb un grup de cumpanys	amb un grup de companys i aixi a prendre mes
St 10		sol i apreg mes sol
St 11	m'agrada amb un company	traballa amb els meus amics
St 12	amb company	amb un company
St 13	amb un grup de companys perquè mu passo mes bé	amb grup prò aprenc més sola
St 14	a mi m'agrada amb companys	amb un grup de companys i aprenc més sol
St 15	amb companys perquè és mes divertit	amb un grup de companys. Aprenc mes amb companys
St 16	amb un company perquè sino es molta ajuda	amb un company i davegades sola
St 17	am un grup de nens	amb un grup però empreng mes sol
St 18	amb grup perquè tinc tots els amics	amb un grup de companys perquè aixi estic amb els meus amics pero aprenc mes sol
St 19	amb un company	m'agrada treballar amb tota la classe pero de vegades amb un grup de companys
St 20	amb un company perquè majuda molt	amb un company treballa millo pero amb un grup de nens i auria molt de xivarri
St 21	amb un cuman	sol perquè així no amb molesten, sol perquè aprenc coses llo solet
St 22	amb grup de companys perquè si no em trovo sola	amb grup però apren més amb un company que sapiga anglès
St 23	amb un grup perquè es mes divertit	amb un grup de companys i aprenc més trevallen amb grup
St 24	amb un grup de companys perquè es més divertit	magrada molt amb companys però tanbe amb pareia
St 25	amb un grup de nens	magrada treball sol parce a classe cridan molt

Did anything surprise you this term? (CONTROL GROUP 2)						
PRETEST CG2/9-1				POSTEST CG2/12-3		
	Yes	No	What	Yes	No	What
St 1	x		l'obra de teatre de Rudolph		x	
St 2	x		que la cristina estigui embarassada	x		que la cristina estigui embarassada
St 3	x		el Rudolph perquè feien tonteries		x	
St 4	x		Rudolph	depén		
St 5	x		Rudolph perquè era molt divertida	x		el menjar perquè em semblava nou
St 6	x		Rudolph perquè era fora de la classe	x		les parts de la cara
St 7	x		a primer no féiem un de prova i a segon sí		x	
St 8	-			-		
St 9	x		l'obra de nadal (?)	x		quan fem jocs
St 10	-				x	
St 11	x		la música d'anglès	x		escoltar música
St 12		x			x	
St 13	x		que el Daisy és una nena	x		els mini books
St 14		x			x	
St 15		x		x		fer el pare noel
St 16	x		fer postals, que ens gravis i ens facis fotos	x		estudiem coses més importants
St 17	x		els jocs de l'spike i la rita	x		les parts del cos
St 18	x		quan ens vas dir que estaves embarassada	x		totes perquè són molt divertides
St 19		x			x	
St 20	x		Rudolph		x	
St 21	x		Rudolph		x	
St 22	x		avui dia 9/1 la cristina parla més en català		x	
St 23	x		el pare noel	x		les cançons noves
St 24			?			?
St 25			el pare noel			?

Do you like learning English? Why? (CONTROL GROUP 3)						
PRETEST CG3/8-1				POSTEST CG3/11-3		
	Yes	No	Why	Yes	No	Why
St 1	x		-	x		fem jocs
St 2	x		és molt divertit	x		m'ho passo molt bé i així podré entendre les altres persones que saben anglès
St 3	x		fem coses molt divertides	-		
St 4	x		fem activitats molt divertides	x		fem activitats divertides
St 5	x		és molt divertit	x		és molt divertit i aprenem moltes coses
St 6	x		aprens moltes coses	x		em diverteixo
St 7	x		aprenem moltes coses	x		fem coses molt divertides
St 8	x		fem coses molt divertides	x		fem coses molt divertides
St 9	x		fem activitats molt xules	-		és un idioma que em costa bastant
St 10	x			x		quan sigui gran ja parlaré anglès com estats units
St 11	x		m'ho passo bé	x		si vas a un altre país així podré parlar
St 12	x		fem coses molt divertides	x		aprenc moltes coses
St 13	x		fem obres de teatre	x		si hi ha algú que no conec i és anglès, parlo amb ell
St 14	x		aprenc coses noves	x		fem coses molt divertides
St 15	x		fem coses del llibre	x		fem activitats
St 16	x		és molt divertit	x		és molt divertit
St 17	-		m'ho passo bé en algunes coses i en altres no	x		a vegades els meus tiets em pregunten coses en anglès o algun dia parlo amb un anglès
St 18	x		els ratolins són fantàstics	-		
St 19	x		tallem amb les tisores i fem servir el llibre d'anglès	depèn		
St 20	x		fem històries	x		és molt divertit
St 21	x		és divertit	x		és divertit
St 22	x		és molt divertit	x		és molt divertit
St 23	x		fem coses que m'encanten	x		fem coses que m'agraden molt
St 24	x		m'ho passo bé	x		fem coses divertides
St 25	x		vull anar a londres	a mitges		

What do you like the most about learning English? (CONTROL GROUP 3)		
PRETEST CG3/8-1		POSTEST CG3/11-3
	What	What
St 1	quan fem la carta als altres nens de l'escola	m'agrada fer mini books ratallem pintem
St 2	quan posem cançons perquè son molt maques	quan fem petites obres de teatre del llibre d'engles perquè mu passo molt bé
St 3	quan pintem perquè mancanta pintar	
St 4	quan fem coses del llibre	quan fem coses divertides i mu pasu molt be
St 5	quan vem fer aquell pare noel	l'obra de teatre perquè hi sortia el pare noel
St 6	cuan fica cançons	quan posen al disc i quan fices les istories perquè em dibarteixo moltíssim
St 7	dons quan fem un memori	els mini books perquè l'unic que as de fer es dibuixar i pintar
St 8	quan fem al teatre	el joc de las pareies
St 9		quan fem jocs
St 10	quan fem els jocs	lu que fem dels numeros perquè no hi ha xivarri i es molt divertit
St 11	fe una postal de nadal	juga perquè amb dibertego
St 12	juguar perquè ens hu passem molt bè	aprendra coses noves perquè així quant sigui gran en sabre molt
St 13	les ovres de teatre de nadal perquè magrada el nadal	tot perequè jugem a coses
St 14	quan fem les cartes als altres nens	teatre perquè surtim i fem tuntarias
St 15	perquè fem jocs	magrada fer al llibre de anglès perquè ratallem també pintem
St 16	quan fem teatres el devan de la pissara	fer jocs perquè mu paso molt bé
St 17	quan fem ovres de teatre perquè fan riure	representar coses perquè em fa riure
St 18	la llengua anglesa perquè així puc anar a tot el món	
St 19	quan fem servir aquells llibres tan petits perquè primer retallem després venim aquí i fiquem aquell ganxo i els guardem a la carpeta d'angles	fer coses per als pares
St 20	les actibitats perquè son molt dibertit	fer les manualitats perquè son molt divertides
St 21	el llibre de klass booc	el llibre cklass book
St 22	si m'agrada parla en angles	quan fem histories perquè surten nens a parla i a vegades fan tunteries
St 23	els jocs perquè son molt xulos	els jocs perquè son molt xulos
St 24	magrada quan vem fer el pare noel	m'agrada fer mini book
St 25	fer treballs perquè em dibarteixo	quan tu fiques les cartes a la pisarra i les tenim que endevinar

What do you like the least about learning English? (CONTROL GROUP 3)		
PRETEST CG3/8-1		POSTEST CG3/11-3
	What	What
St 1		quan la cristina sanfada perquè ens castiga de vegades
St 2	quan fem fitxes difícils perquè no las entenc	quan fem feines una mica difícils perquè no hu entenc gaire pero despres m'ajudes i ja hu entenc
St 3	quan perlem perque no entenc res	
St 4	perque fican el cartell stop	quan senfada la cristina
St 5	quan vem fer la tapa d'algun	aquella feina de endivina les paraules d'anglès
St 6		
St 7	quan treiem el llibre i nomes mirem pagines	cantar cançons
St 8		fer fitxes
St 9		quan fem fitxes aborrides
St 10	quan pusem cansos pro no són lu dels jocs	quant tu tanfades
St 11	es fe feines	les feines però algunes magraden
St 12	descansar perque és molt aburrit	descansar, perquè m'agrada molt anglès
St 13	fe feines perque no magrada treballar	les fitxes perquè son molt avorides
St 14		fer fitxes
St 15	perque maquibocu	que amb castiguin
St 16	quan treiem el llibre de l'angles	quan fem feina que no se fer
St 17	que em repeteixen el que ia se 1000 vegades perquè ja ho sé i m'aburreixo	fer algo de pensar moliiiiisim perquè a vegades em fa mal el cap de tant pensar
St 18	lo dels galowwen perque es una mica abborit	quan astem quastiges
St 19	quan estem castigats amb braços a la taula perquè no fem res, no fem treballs	les fitxes que fem sols perquè és molt avorit
St 20	fer un dictat de numeros d'angles	el llibre activity book
St 21	el llibre class book	
St 22	si quan la cristina em renya perque em fico trist	re
St 23	Res	les fitxes perque son molt dífils
St 24	dons quants fen el llibre	quan ens castigan
St 25	quan parlem de l'espaik i de la tina	quant no soc ancarregat

How do you prefer to work in class? Alone? With a partner? In groups? (CONTROL GROUP 3)		
PRETEST CG3/8-1		POSTEST CG3/11-3
	How	How
St 1	amb un grup per què agui no estic sol	amb un grup de companys
St 2	amb un company	m'agrada més treballar amb parella pero aprenc més sola
St 3	amb un grup de companys perque no magrada estar sola	
St 4	magrada esta sol	amb un grup de companys i aprenc més amb companys
St 5	magrada mes sol perquè així no em molestar ningú	sol perquè si no amb molestant
St 6	amb un company parce estic acunpanada	amb acip i així tamve aprenc mes
St 7	sol perque si no em molesten i no em concentro	amb un company perquè si no em molesten més
St 8	amb una pareia	sol aprenc més amb un grup de companys
St 9	sol	amb un grup de companys perquè si no entenc les coses em poden ajudar
St 10	sol perque amb consentro	sol (perque així puc pensar mes)
St 11	<small>sol perque si no si dibuxo algu i un alta nen dibuxa una altra cosa potse li surt malamen</small>	magrada estar sol peque aprendre més
St 12	amb un grup de companys	m'agrada amb un company però treballo millor sola
St 13	amb un grup de companys	amb un grup de companys, aprenc més sol
St 14	trevalla amb grup	sol aprenc mes, company
St 15	magra mes treballa sol porque aix amb puc concentra	sol peque amb puc concentra
St 16	sol perque no em miren el trevall i peque quan trevallo no em molesten	amb un grup de companys. Aprenc més sol
St 17	m'agrada treballar amb un company	m'agrada treballar en grup, pero crec que aprenc mes bé treballant a la classe
St 18	m'agrada està amb una parella perque així no fem tan xivarri	
St 19	sola perque estic tranquila, no em molesta ningú	trallant sola perque així aprenc sola
St 20	jo sola estic molt tranquila	en un grup, però apreng mes amb parrelles
St 21	amb grup mi trobo millor	amb companys, aprenc més amb companys
St 22	<small>m'agrada est amb un company perquè sol es un rollo i amb un grup de companys et mulesten mot parlan</small>	amb un grup de companys perquè si alguna cosa no la entenc li puc preguntar als companys del grup i un altre dia ya ho se
St 23	m'agrada mes treballar amb un grup de companys	amb un grup. Apreng mes sol
St 24	en grup perque ho passu molt bé	en grup perquè aprenc més
St 25	sol perque així dingu amb muleste	sol, crec que apreng més sol

Did anything surprise you this term? (CONTROL GROUP 3)						
PRETEST CG3/8-1				POSTEST CG3/11-3		
	Yes	No	What	Yes	No	What
St 1	x		Rudolph	x		Rudolph, dictats
St 2		x		x		fem més coses
St 3		x		-		
St 4		x		x		mini books
St 5	x		teatre d'anglès		x	
St 6	x		Rudolph		x	
St 7	x		Rudolph		x	
St 8	x		Rudolph	x		estudiar els menjars
St 9		x			x	
St 10	x		Rudolph	x		estudiar els menjars
St 11	x		a segon fem més coses xules	x		hem estudiat més
St 12	x		Rudolph	x		la cristina està parlant en català
St 13	x		que ens graven		x	
St 14	x		Rudolph		x	
St 15	?			x		hem après el menjar i hem posat una nevera
St 16	x		Rudolph (?)	x		activitats de nadal
St 17	x			x		aprenem coses diferents
St 18	x		aquella música que al final havíem de fer stop	-		
St 19	x		Rudolph	x		fer regals als altres d'anglès
St 20	x		Rudolph	x		Rudolph
St 21		x		x		treballem el cos
St 22	x		fer preguntes en català		x	
St 23	x		que fiquem quin dia fa		x	
St 24		x		x		de vegades fem com un dictat
St 25	x		com està el dia	x		les parts dels cos i els menjars