

The Impact of Bilingualism on Acquiring Second Language Vocabulary: A Case Study

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ABSTRACT

In the modern scientific world, linguists have made a big buzz about the notion of bilingualism. Such a situation is the result of a persistent call of the European community for bilingualisation, which is dictated by a constant mobility of people around Europe. In order to grasp the nature of bilingualism, a vast majority of scientific papers have been published which rest upon the results of an enormous number of action researches held. But these papers deal primarily with the notion of bilingualism itself. Also, constant attempts to subdivide bilingualism can be found. If we will speak about the world of education, lots of linguists (not even practitioners) give you advice on how to foster a bilingual child. In this paper, through a detailed analysis of the relevant literature, we will try to understand what to do if you are working with children who happen to be bilinguals, what role bilingual education programs play in modern educational system, and what their objectives are. Also, how being bilingual will influence a child's cognitive processes and their intelligence and how teachers can benefit from a child's bilingualism. By means of an action research we will try to clarify how being bilingual will help children acquire vocabulary.

KEYWORDS: bilingualism, bilinguals.

RESUMO

No mundo científico moderno os linguistas têm feito um grande alarido à volta da noção de bilinguismo. Tal deve-se à sensibilização persistente da comunidade europeia para o bilinguismo, que por sua vez é ditada pela constante mobilidade de pessoas na Europa. Para compreender a natureza do bilinguismo, têm sido publicada uma extensa gama de trabalhos científicos que se sustentam dos resultados de um enorme número de investigações em ação. Contudo esses trabalhos lidam principalmente com a noção de bilinguismo por si só. Também aí podem ser encontradas tentativas constantes de subdividir o bilinguismo. Se falarmos no campo da educação, muitos linguistas, (não só investigadores em prática) nos dão conselhos em como lidar com uma criança bilingue. Neste trabalho, através de uma análise detalhada da literatura, tentaremos compreender o que fazer no caso de estarmos a trabalhar com crianças bilingues, que papel é que os programas de educação bilingue têm no sistema moderno educacional e quais são os seus objetivos. Também como o ser bilingue vai influenciar os processos cognitivos da criança e a sua inteligência e como podem os professores beneficiar do bilinguismo de uma criança. Por meio de uma investigação em ação tentaremos esclarecer como ser bilingue vai ajudar as crianças na aquisição de vocabulário numa segunda língua.

Palavras chave: bilinguismo, bilíngue, aquisição de vocabulário

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INTRODUCTION

Being born in Ukraine and speaking two languages (Ukrainian and Russian), the state of being a bilingual person is very familiar to me. But I would never have come to understand how profitable (or sometimes harmful) it might be if I hadn't graduated from University with a degree in English teaching and if I did not have to move to Portugal to further my academic and professional standing a couple of years ago. For you to understand the extent that my personal experience influenced this paper, I have to go back to the year 2010 (the year when I graduated from University and moved to Portugal) and reflect upon what happened to me those days.

If you have ever had to stay in a foreign country for a long period of time you may have gone through *cultural shock*. John Macionis and Linda Gerber (2010) in their book on sociology write that it is “the personal disorientation a person may feel when experiencing an unfamiliar way of life” which happens particularly often if a person is suddenly abroad. Since an integral part of culture is language, one can also experience *language shock*; this is when a person is not able to understand what other people are saying, and stops trying to communicate, to interpret his thoughts and to establish contact with people who live in a country where he is foreigner. None of these things happened to me. I did not experience cultural shock because I had visited Portugal before deciding to move here, and I didn't have language shock because I could understand almost 50% of people's conversations. I started to ask myself how it could happen that without knowing even a word of Portuguese I could understand what people were talking about. I realized that I could understand words which were phonologically similar to English, Russian or Ukrainian ones, for example, the Portuguese word “erro” seemed similar to the English word “error”, or Portuguese word “jornal” to the Ukrainian word “журнал [jur'nal]”, etc. Later on, I tried to adapt Russian, Ukrainian or English words to Portuguese, which happened often when I tried to produce sentences, e.g. out of the Russian word “адвокат [advoca:t]” I made a Portuguese word similar to “advogado.” Furthermore, due to some language experiences I came to the conclusion that the English word “favor [ˈfeivə]” and Portuguese word “favor [fav'or]” are similar in spelling and meaning although they are phonologically different. I have to confess that sometimes I failed in my attempts, but more often I would succeed. What I did was use the three languages I knew as a source for managing the fourth one. Of course I am

not saying that that practice would make me a fluent speaker of Portuguese, but, at that time, it helped me to “survive”. By September 2012, I had been in Portugal for two years and my knowledge of three languages has helped me a great deal to become more proficient in Portuguese.

One year ago (2011) I started to work in a Ukrainian school as a teacher of English. That was the second time (the first one being my personal experience) when I saw how people can benefit from knowing two or more languages when acquiring the next one, particularly if the students are taught to find parallels between their native languages and the one which I was teaching. This experience was different from that of my own experience since I started to deal with second generation of immigrants, children whose parents migrated to Portugal 10 – 15 years ago, and most of whom were either born here or were brought here at the age of 5 to 10. In the context of English lessons, I noticed that these kids used Portuguese or Ukrainian/Russian as a backup for acquiring English. That was the moment when I came to understand that I would like to set up a project with the following objectives:

- to become aware of what bilingualism is;
- to understand how bilingualism correlates with a person’s intelligence and cognition;
- to come to understand how bilingualism fits into the modern educational system;
- to grasp to what extent bilingualism might be beneficial or harmful when dealing with acquiring second language vocabulary.

Synthesizing the objectives mentioned above I came up with the following problematic question: what is the potential impact of bilingualism on acquiring second language vocabulary?

One might ask why I am particularly interested in a lexical aspect of language learning and not a grammatical or phonological one. There is a reasonable explanation for that: in the world of methodology of teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL), lexical perspectives on language, language teaching and language learning have become increasingly popular over the last fifteen years. This is determined by the fact that linguists

came to understanding that the main function of any language is a communicative one, and lexical units (e.g. words, phrases, chunks etc.) are primary means which facilitate the fulfilment of this function, and this very idea reflects my belief about language teaching.

The critical review of the relevant literature made up my mind that the methodology employed should be based on action research in the classroom, which is going to be underpinned by the following techniques:

- observation;
- the use of feedback and questionnaires;
- the use of specifically devised tasks.

The purpose of the action research is to clarify if the usage of the students' native language (it has to be remembered that in our school we deal with bilingual children, roughly speaking, with children who have two native languages) as a back-up can facilitate faster second language vocabulary acquisition. It is important to mention that in this context we are dealing with second language vocabulary acquisition, because L2 is perceived as the first language which is learned in a formal or artificial environment (such as the classroom). Though the language the children are learning will be the third for them, we cannot differentiate previously acquired languages as L1 and L2 because such a differentiation might be misleading since it bears the idea of the order in which they could possibly have been learned. To make it clear, we call the languages that a bilingual already knows L1s or native languages and the one he or she is acquiring as an L2. In this context some linguists and practitioners might talk about third language acquisition (or TLA), which is, simplifying all the definitions, the acquisition of the third language, but we avoid using this term as it also bears the idea of the consecutiveness of language acquisition.

This paper will attempt to sum up the most substantial ideas about bilingualism and find some practical implementations for these ideas in a classroom context. The action research will show one of the possible ways in which bilingualism can influence second language vocabulary acquisition. In this respect, the notion of crosslinguistic influence and crosslinguistic transfer will be put in a bilingual environment and it will also be shown how a teacher can benefit from a crosslinguistic analysis in a classroom context.

CONTEXT

The forerunner of this action research is the context. To understand the essence of this context better, one has to be aware not only of the school context where the action research was held but also of some changes in society caused by migration movements.

Portugal, being a part of the European Union where substantial demand for unskilled labour which could not be satisfied by native workers existed, became an attractive place for labourers as from 1998. A substantial number of immigrants came from former Soviet Union countries, particularly from Ukraine, Russia and Moldova.

Table 1. Total number of long-termed immigrants in Portugal

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Portugal	57660	74800	79300	72400	57920	49200	38800	46300	29718	32307	27575

Adapted from the Statistical Office of the European Union

According to the statistical office of the European Union (Eurostat) (see Table 1. Total number of long-termed immigrants in Portugal), immigration into Portugal reached its peak in the year 2002, when about 80000 people entered the country. In subsequent years, the number of immigrants decreased continuously, reaching its lowest figure so far (27575) in 2010.

Analyzing the information given by the Alto Comissariadopara a Imigração e Minorias Étnica (acimi) between 2001 and 2004 about 8500 people legally immigrated to Portugal from Russia, 13700 –from Moldova, 12200 – from Romania, and 66300 – from Ukraine. In total for this period, approximately 450 000 people immigrated (adapted from Eurostat).

According to the Portuguese Serviço de Estrangeiros e Fronteiras (SEF), at one time in the territory of Portugal there were about 150000 immigrants from Ukraine. To support their identity and to preserve ethnicity, a number of Ukrainian Saturday Schools have been

established. These are the schools which follow the Ukrainian curriculum and are controlled by the Ukrainian Ministry of Education. On finishing these schools, pupils are awarded a school certificate after which a person can apply for any higher education establishment in Ukraine or Portugal. It has to be emphasized that these certificates are officially acknowledged by the Portuguese Ministry of Education due to the agreement signed between the two governments in 2008.

In such schools teachers have to deal with second generation immigrant children who were either born in Portugal or brought here at the age of 5 to 10. Consequently, about 70 % of the children who attend Ukrainian Saturday Schools are complete Portuguese-Ukrainian/Russian bilinguals, 20 %, are partial Portuguese-Ukrainian/Russian bilinguals, and the rest are monolinguals. Such a situation is determined by the fact that at home these children speak Ukrainian/Russian, and the language of the society they function in is Portuguese. It has to be mentioned that about 80 % of all these children attend Portuguese schools where they follow the curriculum provided by the Portuguese Ministry of Education and the remaining 20% attend Ukrainian Saturday Schools only.

In Ukrainian Saturday Schools, pupils usually have about 11 classes per Saturday, 40 minutes each with a 5 minute break between them. Amongst such subjects as Ukrainian Language and Literature, Ukrainian and World History, Geography, Maths and Chemistry, English Language is required beginning with the first grade, though the number of hours devoted to this subject varies depending on the grade. Thus in the 1st grade they have one class per two weeks, and in the 11th grade the number of class grows to 2 per Saturday, which is a lot if one takes into account that children have schooling on Saturdays only. But unlike some other subjects, English is a compulsory subject in Portuguese schools too, thus the children have to manage two courses of English, which of course beneficial for them and for a teacher of English too.

The research itself was carried in the Pinhal Novo Saturday School which is called “Ridna Shkola (Native School)”. It was founded in 2009 and has 9 teachers (one teacher of English) and 86 pupils and is directed by Muroslava Leonidivna Martuniyk.

PART I. LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1. MIGRATION AS A REASON FOR BILINGUALISATION OF SOCIETY

Population movements have been frequent for as long as Homo sapiens has existed with the movement of the first human groups from their point of origin in East Africa to their present distribution around the entire globe. For example, there have been momentous movement of "barbarians" like the Huns, Goths, Visigoths, and Vandals out of Central Asia and into the Roman Empire; the movement on an unprecedented scale of Europeans to North and South America; the Chinese throughout Southeast Asia, etc. (Lundius & Lanly, 2008:8). Though the reasons for migration were different varying on the historical period (e.g. escaping from conflicts during the period of the First and the Second World Wars, looking for better jobs, salaries or training at the beginning of the 21st century), the people who were moving around felt the necessity to communicate with inhabitants who lived in the territory which they had moved to. Consequently, migration became a reason for the bilingulisation of society and the more people move around the faster the process of bilingualisation happens. A hundred years ago to migrate from Europe to America would take a person a month, whereas nowadays it will take him or her a few hours only, which is why we may suggest that within a hundred years one will be hardly able to find a monolingual person on this planet.

Extensive migration within and to the European Union. These days, the European Union is one of the most attractive places to migrate to, although some of the countries have tried to control the influx of immigrants from so-called developing countries. The situation has been reinforced by the enlargement of the European Union in 2004 and 2007, which resulted in new immigration challenges at its Eastern borders facing Russia, Ukraine, Belarus, and Moldova. The countries mentioned were characterized by “low incomes and living standards, incomplete democratization and a number of latent political conflicts” (Dietz, 2010:187). Taking into account these circumstances, it was understandable that the influx of immigrants from these countries grew. Labour immigration dominated. Illegal immigration occurred and exceeded legal immigration. Besides that, constant migration within the European Union is observed since EU citizens

have the right to live and work not only in their home countries but other member states too.

European Union language policy. On arriving in an unknown country, usually people face the problem of a linguistic and cultural barrier. The Council of Europe, supporting the right of personal and professional mobility, couldn't ignore this problem, so the focus on the issue of bi-/pluri-/multilingualisms began, though in some other countries this matter started to be discussed earlier, particularly if we speak about countries where there are two or more official languages, e.g. Canada (French and English), Singapore (English, Chinese, Malay and Tamil), Cameroon (English and French) Puerto Rico (English and Spanish), Ukraine (Ukrainian and Russian, though the status of Russian as the second official language is not acknowledged on the state level). Stakeholders stated that "through a better knowledge of European modern languages, it will be possible to facilitate communication and interaction among Europeans of different mother tongues in order to promote European mobility, mutual understanding, and co-operation, and overcome prejudice and discrimination" (CEFR, 2001:3). Orban in his book "*Speaking for Europe*" (2008:3) claims that "(...) to know another language, or maybe several, makes it possible to move and find a job in another country. The mobility in the labour market helps create new jobs and stimulate growth. Knowing other languages also promotes cross-cultural contacts, mutual understanding and direct communication between individual citizens in an ever-expanding and diverse Union." In this light, the ideas of promoting linguistic diversity as one of Europe's strengths and encouraging language learning became major challenges for the European Union.

The first decade of the 21st century with its intercultural relations, global political and economic interdependence, and constant migration for educational or work experiences made the problem of bilingualism and bilingual education more topical than ever since one can hardly find a linguistically isolated country, area or household anywhere in Europe.

1.2. TOWARDS A DEFINITION OF BILINGUALISM

Leonard Orban, member of the European Commission, in his book “*Speaking for Europe: Languages in the European Union*” writes:

The ability to communicate in several languages is a great benefit for individuals, organizations, and companies alike. It enhances creativity, breaks cultural stereotypes, encourages thinking “outside the box”, and can help develop innovative products and services.

(Orban, 2008:3)

This is how bilingualism is apt to be treated nowadays, though Riagáin & Lüdi (2003) claim that at the end of the 19th century the attitude towards bilingualism was completely different, in the same paper it was given the following example: a renowned professor, S. S. Louri, in his book “*Lectures on Language and Linguistic Method in School*” (1890) writes “If it were possible for a child to live in two languages at once equally well, so much the worse. His intellectual and spiritual growth would not thereby be doubled, but halved. Unity of mind and character would have great difficulty in asserting itself in such circumstances”. The revolutionary work of Peal and Lambert (1962) brought new insights for scholars to research the notion of bilingualism (Swan, 1997; Green, 1998; Okita & Jun Hai, 2001; Goetz, 2003, Athanasopoulos, 2009) and to dwell upon its advantages and disadvantages (Hernandez, Bates & Avila, 1996; Mechelli, 2004; Bailystock, 2008). Despite the vast number of articles and books connected with the issue, it is difficult to find a definition which would cover all the aspects of this complicated notion. The most famous definition was offered by Uriel Weinreich, one of the “fathers” of bilingual studies and a bilingual himself, in his book “*Languages in Contact*” (1968): “The practice of alternately using two languages will be called bilingualism, and the person involved, bilingual”. In its simplest form, bilingualism is defined as knowing two languages. Here the problem appears, when it is asked what “knowing” means. Some people can fairly presume that it is minimal proficiency in two languages; others suggest that one has to have native-like proficiency in two languages. The concept of “native-like control of two languages”, as suggested by Kornakov (1997) in his article “Bilingualism in Children: Classifications, Questions, and Problems” was introduced by Bloomfield (1933) for the first time, though in the same paper Kornakov fairly supports Saunders’ idea that

“such bilingualism represented an ideal which is very rarely attained and which is perhaps best referred to by the less emotive term “*equilingual*”. Some people can label themselves bilingual only because of their ability to converse and communicate orally, thus MacNamara (1967) suggests that a bilingual need only to show a minimal competence in any of the four language skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing) in an additional language. Some linguists claim that those who can speak the standard language as well as a dialect which exists within a country can be considered bilingual. “Even monolingual communities are not homogenous since there are usually regional, social and stylistic varieties within what is thought of as one language” (Romaine, 1989:559). Rampton (1990) fairly argues that the use and definition of the terms "bilingual" and "bilingualism" largely depend upon: context; linguistic proficiency and purpose, cognitive organization of two languages, age of acquisition, and sequence of acquisition of two languages. Taking into account the factors mentioned above, Kornakov (1997:4) suggests the following types of bilingualism:

- early bilingualism, infant or child bilingualism vs. late or adult bilingualism

These two types are set taking into account the age of acquiring L2. Though the age border is not clearly established, practitioners suggest that child bilingualism corresponds to the age between about three years and puberty (five years) which is “the critical period for language learning” (Lenneberg, 1967). Late bilinguals can have their phonological, morphosyntactic and grammatical competences limited. Thus you can rarely find an adult Portuguese-Ukrainian bilingual who would pronounce correctly a harsh, guttural sound /r/ or who would always use definite or indefinite articles correctly, since there are no articles in the Ukrainian language.

- natural (primary) bilingualism vs. achieved (secondary) bilingualism

This classification is set taking into account the context of acquisition. When the languages are acquired in an "unstructured way" which means no systematic and formal instruction has occurred and the acquisition results from the environment the child exists in, it is said to be natural or primary bilingualism. A person usually picks up a conversational grasp of a language in a relatively informal way, and then feels the need later to add some grammatical, reading or writing skills. In a European context we usually

speaking about achieved bilingualism since the vast majority of people acquired a second language in a classroom context (that is, in school). When we speak about Ukrainians in Portugal, we would sooner speak about natural bilingualism rather than achieved one, since people, who came to Portugal, did not take an official course of Portuguese, so on arriving to Portugal they had to get familiar with the language on their working places through the communication with the native speakers.

- receptive vs. productive bilingualism

Productive bilingualism does not necessarily mean that a person is capable of both writing and speaking two languages to the same level of proficiency since it is largely determined by the learning circumstances. Some productive bilinguals can speak two languages perfectly well though their accuracy of writing lags behind. However, one need think only of scholars of classical languages to realize that it is quite possible to write in a language one does not speak (Hamers & Blanc, 2000:15).

Beardmore (1986) in his book "*Bilingualism: basic principles*" claims that

The user might speak and write his two languages in a manner that clearly reveals that he is not a monoglot user of either of them, or else he might speak and write only one of the two with the traces or measurable distinctiveness. Since many biliterate bilinguals who regularly use their two languages do so in clearly differentiated circumstances, it is perfectly feasible to envisage the productive bilingual who speaks language A better than he writes it and writes language B better than he speaks it.

(p.19)

- symmetrical vs. asymmetrical bilingualism

Symmetrical bilingualism presupposes equal competence in both languages (i.e. balanced) (Beardmore, 1986). Opposed to symmetrical, it is offered the description of asymmetrical bilingualism as different types of receptive bilingualism in which a person understands a second language, in either its spoken or written form, but does not necessarily speak or write it. This type of bilingualism is wide spread amongst older learners since it is less time-consuming and does not "involve the laborious acquisition of language patterns that must be at ready command for fruitful conversation or written communication with a speaker of another language" (Hamers & Blanc, 2000:15).

Asymmetrical bilingualism is of particular relevance when we speak about the Ukrainian immigrants of the first generation, since they were interested in the Portuguese language as a means of communication, they rarely had the need to write into Portuguese, that is why immigrants' written skills lag behind their communicative skills.

- additive vs. subtractive bilingualism

Additive bilingualism takes place when the learning of a second language does not interfere with the learning of a first language, while subtractive happens in the context where the learning of a second language is influenced by the learning of a first language, particularly when the second language replaces the first one. Kornakov (1997) suggests that these two terms were coined by Lambert (1975) as a result of the research where he noticed that, in certain contexts, the conditions of bilingualism were subtractive, i.e. "second language acquisition led to subsequent losses in one's first language and culture". On the other hand the conditions of bilingualism could be additive, i.e. "second language could be learned and cultural elements related to the language acquired with no apparent loss in the first language or culture" (Kornakov, 1997). This mostly happened if the first language had high status in the community. We are dealing with additive bilingualism when we talk about the status of French in Russia in the 17th century when the rich started to speak French instead of Russian because it was considered to be fashionable. The Russian language, culture, and traditions started to decay since people moved over to learning French ones. Reynolds (1991) argues the importance of a distinction between additive and subtractive bilingualism since it gives the possibility to focus attention not only on bilingualism as an individual psychological phenomenon but also on the social conditions of bilingualism.

- compound vs. co-ordinate bilingualism

Compound bilinguals have one meaning with two representations of that meaning. In contrast, co-ordinate bilingualism presupposes that a person develops two distinct meanings and respective symbols. In other words, compound bilinguals have one semantic system for two languages while coordinate ones have two semantic systems for each language they know. When acquiring the third language vocabulary, there will be a difference in the cognitive processes of compound and co-ordinate bilinguals since

compound bilinguals have one semantic system for all the languages they know and from this system they retrieve concepts. Meanwhile co-ordinate bilinguals have different semantic systems for the languages they know thus when code switching happens, the switching between the semantic systems happens too.

According to Hamers & Blanc (2000:15), this distinction is very important since the theory gives ground to suggest that bilinguals do not all organize verbal material in the same way: coordinate bilinguals are expected to have more independent organization than compound bilinguals. Thus Lambert, Havelka & Crosby (1958) (quoted in Josiane F *et al* 2000:164), comparing compound and co-ordinate bilinguals, came to the conclusion that coordinate bilinguals:

- make more semantic distinction between a word and its translation equivalent;

- have two relatively independent association networks for translation equivalents, thus, for example, for Ukrainian-Portuguese bilinguals Christmas is perceived not only as an annual commemoration of the birth of Jesus Christ but is also associated with:

- a) 24th and 25th December;
- b) lots of presents under the Christmas tree;
- c) a feast known as a “*consoada*” which takes place on the night before of Christmas Day;

And if they have in mind “Рiздво [rizd'vo]” (i.e. Christmas in Ukraine) it is primarily associated with:

- a) 7th January;
- b) traditionally twelve dishes set for the table on this event;
- c) “щедрiвки [ʃɛdrivky]”, i.e. traditional songs which people dressed in special costumes sing etc.

- have greater difficulty with translation, since a coordinate bilingual has two semantic systems and two linguistic codes which makes it difficult to translate between the two languages on a word-for-word basis (Josiane *et al*, 2000:164).

- complete or absolute vs. incomplete bilingualism

Complete bilingualism can be described as where "the fluency and competence in both languages are of native standard" (Kornakov, 1997:6). The second type, which is incomplete bilingualism, presupposes that one of the aspects (phonetics, vocabulary, grammar, syntax) can be improved.

Though Kornakov (1997) argues the idea that complete bilingualism can be achieved in two ways, natural and artificial, it is difficult to agree with it because the artificial way presupposes that a language is acquired in an "artificial environment" (that is, in school, language courses or through self-study) which is too limited. Consequently, a learner is deprived of the possibility to develop all skills in all domains, thus, for example, one can hardly find Ukrainian-Portuguese bilingual who would be able to communicate equally good with a shop assistant when buying something and a highly educated person where he or she would have to discuss current political situation, even though these people practice their Portuguese each other day talking to native speakers. In an artificial environment of language courses, that would not happen since the timing is extremely limited and during the course it is impossible to cover all the topics and language domains.

- elemental (spontaneous) vs. conscious bilingualism

Elemental (spontaneous) bilingualism means that there is no external control over the process of L2 acquisition, meaning parents or teachers. The essential condition for elemental bilingualism is a natural environment, whereas conscious bilingualism is more associated with an artificial environment. Though the artificial way of acquiring L2 can be considered spontaneous, when a teacher lacks a clear structure and scheme for the course.

Elemental bilingualism can be described as follows:

- both languages (L1 and L2) are more stable grammatically than in the case of conscious bilingualism;
- one of the languages needs or requires more time to be "forgotten";
- at the phonetic and phonological levels each language is more stable and provides native fluency in both, and

➤ native fluency acquired due to a natural environment is better. This is particularly relevant when we talk about the career of the professional interpreter due to the fact that a person with elemental bilingualism will be more fluent when speaking in different domains and their phonetic and phonological skills will be more developed.

Conscious bilingualism can be described as the follows:

➤ grammar and vocabulary are less stable if the L2 is not used for a certain period of time;

➤ a bilingual loses his or her ability to produce fluent speech and starts to translate mentally if the L2 has not been used for a certain period of time;

➤ very often it is less stable phonetically if it has not been used for a certain period of time, and

➤ if certain grammatical rules are incorrectly understood, learned and mastered during the process of learning or study, it is extremely difficult to correct them later (Edwards, 2006:13).

Though nowadays bilingualism is a very widespread notion, researchers cannot give a clear cut definition of what it is, because the very idea of bilingualism is very broad. An appropriate remark was made by Beardsmore (1986: 1) that “bilingualism as a term has open-ended semantics”. The attempts to subdivide bilingualism into types, taking into account the variables, has not fallen totally flat but it does have a number of drawbacks. The main problem is that there is no general accepted classification which would satisfy all researchers’ requirements, which gives grounds for further discussion in the academic world, though for the educational context, the classification given above may be helpful since it can enable the teacher to understand more deeply the nature of bilingualism he or she is dealing with, which can predetermine the choice of teaching strategies. Thus being aware that a pupils are conscious bilinguals, the teacher will be able to understand the nature of their language knowledge, for example, if they (the pupils) learned their second language in an artificial environment (that is, in classroom) and being under control of a teacher, it gives ground to suggest that these pupils have already worked out a set of learning strategies for learning the language, in other words, the pupils know how to learn the language, and, in this context, teacher will have only to monitor and coordinate the

acquisition of the next language. This would not work with elemental bilinguals. Even though they have already had dual-language experience, this experience was dictated by the conditions he or she had to live in (like in the case described (see subsection Context, p. 4), when a home language differs from the language of the society), thus a teacher will have to help his or her pupils to work out language learning strategies.

1.3. BILINGUALISM, INTELLIGENCE, AND COGNITION

The advantages of being bilingual over monolingual, in a number of areas, has been supported by many studies in the past few decades, especially after the revolutionary work of Peal & Lambert (1962). However, early studies tended to associate bilingualism with lower intelligence. It was considered a burden on the brain, causing mental confusion, slowing acquisition, identity conflicts, split loyalties, emotional difficulties, alienation and even schizophrenia. This assumption was made on the basis of the research done by Weinreich in 1968. Bahtia & Ritchie (2004:16) in their “Handbook of bilingualism” accuse Weinreich of using outdated ideas and trying to underpin them by mere speculation.

The findings made by Peal & Lambert (1962) became a turning point in researching the notion of bilingualism since they showed the positive relationship between bilingualism and intelligence. This was largely determined by the fact that the procedure of the research and variables were more controlled. As a result, bilinguals outperformed monolinguals in both verbal and non-verbal intelligence tasks. Peal & Lambert (1962) called it “mental flexibility”, however they questioned if it was the more intelligent child who became bilingual or if it was bilingualism which aided his intellectual development. The answer can be found in Saucier’s article “Bilingualism, Immigration, and Education” (2003) where she writes: “By being bilingual, it has been shown that people develop and then use a part of their brain they otherwise wouldn’t (...)” that is why bilinguals have “a more diversified structure of intelligence and more flexibility in thought: greater cognitive flexibility, greater creativity, and greater divergent thought” (Saucier, 2003). Changes in the structural aspect of the cognitive performance of bilinguals was proved by Mechelli’s research (2004) where it was shown that people who speak two languages have increased density of grey matter in the left interior parietal cortex, a change that is more pronounced in early bilinguals and

those with greater proficiency in the second language. This region has been shown to be responsible for vocabulary acquisition, the focus of our study here. Besides Saucier, many scholars have tried to explain the difference between bilinguals and monolinguals, but the most successful turned out to be a series of studies held by Bialystok. In her article “Bilingualism: The good, the bad, and the indifferent” (2008), she gives a detailed overview of how bilingualism affects cognitive and lexical performance across the lifespan. In her article she treats bilingualism as a kind of experience which influences behavioural, neuropsychological and structural aspects of cognitive performance.

Bialystok suggests the following characteristics of bilingualism:

1. There is a problem of attention control caused by the processes of code-switching, that is, the ability to choose between the languages, their grammatical forms, phonological systems, etc.

2. Bilinguals control a smaller size of vocabulary in each language than their monolingual peers (Oller & Eilers, 2002; Perani et al., 2003). This is why their performance in both the oral and written forms of language development lags behind that of monolinguals. Additionally, it can also be caused by language interference when accessing or retrieving vocabulary items.

3. Michael & Gollan (2005) suggest that bilinguals use each of their languages less often than monolinguals, which means that they practise them less which influences the rapidness and fluency of their speech production (as quoted by Bialystok, 2008:7).

4. Bilinguals are more successful in performing multi-linguistic tasks which require controlled attention and inhibition. This happens because their executive control system is more developed due to its constant involvement in bilingual language production (which is not the case if we are talking about monolingual language production):

For example, in a grammaticality judgment task, all the children were equally successful in detecting grammatical violations (e.g., “Apples grew on trees”), but bilingual children were more successful than monolinguals in accepting that anomalous sentences (“Apples grow on noses”) were grammatically correct (Bialystok, 1986; Cromdal, 1999). This judgment of grammaticality requires effortful attention to ignore the misleading distraction from meaning that seduces the child to say that the sentence is not correct.

(Bialystok, 2008:5)

5. Bilinguals perform better in conflict-solving tasks and it is the result of their necessity to solve constant conflicts caused by competing language systems and a selection of lexical items which they need to choose from at the moment of speech production. This is one of the factors which explains the fact that bilingual children acquire third language vocabulary faster than monolinguals, since they need less time to retrieve a proper lexical item because their brain has already been trained to do this.

Following Peal & Lambert, there have been many other studies. On reviewing them, Bialystock (2009) conclude that:

- bilinguals have greater sensitivity to semantic relationships between words (Cummins, 1974);
- multi-linguistic advantage, i.e. bilingual children perform better in problem-solving tasks than their monolingual peers;
- bilinguals are better at learning grammar due to their better performance in rule-discovery tasks (Bain, 1975);
- bilinguals are better at performing non-verbal perceptual tasks, analogical reasoning tasks, non-verbal tasks which demand originality and creativity in thinking (which is largely influenced by bilinguals' cultural experience), visual-spatial and classification tasks, intelligence and information processing tasks (Hamers & Blanc, 2000:90).

To sum up, it is fair to argue that bilingualism, cognition and metalinguistic awareness are not only tightly connected but even predetermine each other, thus making the bilingual learner more successful not only in terms of second language acquisition but in all subjects. As Hamers & Blank (2000) write:

(...), the bilingual children probably develop special reflective skills which generalize to other metacognitive processes. Developing these skills enables the child to exercise a greater control over his cognitive function and use them in more effective ways; he will therefore improve his performance in a variety of academic tasks. Because of their superior metalinguistic skills and greater linguistic sensitivity, bilinguals are better learners.

(p.91)

However, negative consequences of bilingual experiences can be found. The most striking one is associated with the term “semilingualism”, which Hamers & Blanc

(2000:95) defined as “a linguistic handicap that prevents an individual from acquiring the linguistic skills appropriate to his linguistic potential in any of his languages”. Simply stated, bilinguals do not have the same high level of proficiency in each of their languages that monolinguals do, and “it does not imply failure to communicate in ordinary everyday situations since children labelled as ‘semilinguals’ are judged to be quite fluent; but it is suggested that this fluency is only superficial” (Hamers & Blanc, 2000:95). Semilingualism can manifest itself in a lexical deficit and shallow knowledge of the structure of both languages. One example of lexical deficit that can be easily observed in young Portuguese-Ukrainian bilinguals is that very often when speaking one language they will insert lexical items from the other one.

The discoveries made about the peculiarities of bilingual cognition brought new insights for methodologists and practitioners in the world of teaching; they have become aware that it is essential to work out teaching strategies which are relevant and effective in a bilingual class-room context. In the 1990s this stimulated the extensive appearance of projects which came out with a new notion called “*bilingual education*”.

1.4.BILINGUAL EDUCATION

This subsection will give a reader the possibility to see how the idea of bilingualism fits the modern educational system. It will be analyzed some scientific articles in order to understand what is bilingual education, and how it is viewed in a teaching-learning world.

Bilingual education existed through centuries and can be traced back to Greek and Roman times. It has been characterized as “absolutely wrong” (Reagan, 1981) or as something that “shuts doors to the larger world” (Schlesinger quoted by Cummins, 1996:11). Such an attitude was a result of the political beliefs of the 1980s, the essence of which was that any immigrant who arrived in a country has to be assimilated and only then will he or she be able to function fruitfully in the society of the country where he or she arrived. Assimilation would not be considered full if a person spoke his native language at home. Furthermore, as it was mentioned above (see subsection 1.3. Bilingualism, Intelligence, and Cognition, p.15) many scientific studies (particularly Weinreich’s) argued that bilingualism has a negative impact on a person’s identity and cognitive performance.

Nowadays, the perception of bilingualism has changed, according to Orban (2008), it is viewed as

- a right and even necessity;
- the basis for intensified cooperation between cultures and countries;
- the assurance of better access to information;
- the guarantee of survival in the conditions of constant mobility and exchange.

Such an attitude was established mainly due to the European language policies which were set by the Council of Europe in its Modern Language Project – a project which was started in order to support one of the most important ideas of the Council of Europe in terms of language learning, i.e. learning language for European citizenship. This support manifested itself in a set of activities designed to promote and improve modern language teaching and learning in Europe. The objectives of this project can be summarized as follows:

- to help national authorities to promote multilingualism and multiculturalism;
- to increase public awareness of the part that language plays in forming European identity;
- to develop ideas, approaches, and strategies to promote linguistic diversification and to improve the quality of language education;
- to promote foreign language learning from the very start of schooling, making every pupil aware of Europe's linguistic and cultural diversity;
- to develop further the intercultural dimension in language education. (Vez, 2009:11)

Between the years 1980 and 2000, a number of terms were coined to denote the process of teaching and learning when L2 is used as a means for giving instructions, among them: bilingual nursery education, bilingual instruction, content-based language teaching, developmental bilingual education, dual-focused language education, extended language instruction, immersion, language across curriculum, language bath, language-enriched education, language shower, learning with languages, etc. However, the most popular remains the term *bilingual education* which usually refers to the use of two (or more)

languages of instructions at some point in the student's school career (Cummins & Corson, 1997:11). Taking into account means and goals, bilingual education may be defined as education:

- a) where programs with dual-language instructions are used for promoting bilingualism, and
- b) where bilingualism is not promoted in the curriculum, and dual-languages instruction is an important counterpart since the children who attend the school are bilinguals on their own (Cummins & Corson, 1997:12).

Bearing in mind these two variables (that is, means and goals), there are two forms of bilingual education: *strong* and *weak* (see Baker & Jones, 1998; Cummins & Corson, 1997; Freeman, 1998; Hamers and Blanc, 2000). Weak forms of bilingual education (see Appendix 1: Table 1. Weak forms of bilingual education) are associated with the programs which contain bilingual children, though the aim is to produce monolinguals, unlike strong forms (see Appendix 1: Table 2. Strong forms of bilingual education.) where the aim lies in producing bilinguals. Weak forms basically aim to assimilate minority groups through “a transition from the minority language to the majority language, from the home culture to the culture of those with more power and status” (Baker & Jones, 1998:469). Strong forms of education fight not only to make children bilingual and bi-literate but also for maintaining minority language and culture. Resting on this, Baker in her book “*Foundations of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*” (2003:207) gives a more simplistic classification, subdividing bilingual education into transitional, maintenance and enrichment models.

The transitional educational model has a lot in common with the idea of the weak form of bilingual education, i.e. the concepts of language shift, assimilation and incorporation. As an example, De Mejía (2002:44) suggests courses in the United States (the US) which are offered to students with limited English proficiency, where at first instructions are given in the student's native language and then gradually English starts to prevail. This transition usually happens within 3 years of studying, and during this period students learn English intensively by taking English as a Second Language classes.

The maintenance educational model is similar to the strong form of bilingual education, where the key concept is to maintain cultural identity. For example, in the US, Dual Language bilingual schools, being attended by language minority students, have a mission to ensure “equality of opportunities for children from different language backgrounds”, “a community dedicated to the integration of all its children”, “a family-like experience to produce multicultural children” and “supporting bilingual proficiency, not limited English proficiency” (Baker, 2001:225)

The enrichment models shares certain characteristics in common with the maintenance model, but it goes far beyond it, and “aims toward not only maintenance but development and extension of minority languages, cultural pluralism and an integrated national society based on an autonomy of cultural groups” (Hornberger, 1991:222). As an example students can attend French immersion programs in Canada. The aim of these programs is to enhance French-English bilingualism in Canada. Classes are taught in French for the first three years, and then English classes are introduced, followed by a gradual increase in English instructions for other subjects. By the end of schooling, approximately 50 % of classes are taught in English and 50%, in French.

Ukrainian Saturday Schools in Portugal fall under the category of the maintenance educational model since the aim of this school is to preserve students’ cultural identity and to help them to become literate in terms of their native culture language, literature, and history. These schools become not only educational centres but also cultural ones since in these schools various holidays are organized. The students are apt to take an active part in these holidays, when one can hear traditional Ukrainian songs, expressive reading of poems written by famous Ukrainian poets, etc. These schools are private and no financial support is given by the Ukrainian Ministry of Education. Though the primary objective is to preserve the students’ cultural identity, there are classes of Portuguese there but they are optional, that is why the task of a second language teacher is not only to teach English but also to build bridges between the three cultural worlds: English, Ukrainian, and Portuguese, and this is possible only if to bring into the classroom context the concepts of interculturality, bilingualism, cultural diversity, the idea of otherness, and so on.

In this context, an ideal would be the transition from the maintenance educational model to the enrichment model since the latter type of schools have much more potential: on the one hand the Ukrainian pupils would be helped not to forget their roots, and on the other they would be helped not feel alien in a foreign country and to get familiar with Portuguese culture, language and traditions, which is also essential. These two ideas do not go hand in hand, which creates a huge gap, because on coming to the Ukrainian, school a pupil has to be a genuine Ukrainian, and on coming to the Portuguese school, he or she has to be a genuine Portuguese person. Besides the idea that such a transition will help to overcome the cultural barrier without losing their own identity, another outcome is possible: through tight collaboration of the teachers new teaching strategies might be worked out which might make the educational process more effective not only in terms of second language learning but also in terms of general development of bilingual students' potential. But this transition becomes an ideal which is not meant to be a reality, because it needs to be funded, and in the current economic crisis, neither the Ukrainian nor Portuguese Government is able to give any financial support.

To be frank, strong forms of bilingual education are more popular in the educational world. The best examples are the European Schools (ES) and the schools which use Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

The European School model.

The European School model is a school which does not “fit neatly into existing typologies” (Cenoz, 2009:43). It was founded in Luxembourg as a private institution and has spread around Europe (nowadays, one can count about 14 schools of this type in different European countries, namely Luxembourg, Italy, the Netherlands, the UK, Germany, Spain and Belgium) and has become a public institution controlled by the authorities of the member states of the European Union. European School has two missions:

1. to maintain a child's cultural and national identity and at the same time to develop “super national” European identity (Vez, 2009:9-10), and
2. to provide a curriculum which would allow for the possibility of further integration in any European school system and access to universities worldwide.

The ES program has not been extensively assessed so far, so we do not have enough grounds to speak about its success or drawbacks, though we can sum up Housen's *"Processes and Outcomes in the European Schools Model of Multilingual Education"* (2002), where he speaks about:

1. Academic outcomes: high success rates of ES students on the final examination leading to the European baccalaureate. In the Portuguese context, it is worth mentioning St Dominic's International School where the students' average score is higher than the average score of their peers from public schools.

2. Socio-cultural outcomes: (1) friendship became a cross-linguistic notion; (2) the students could not identify themselves with a specific national-cultural group, they saw themselves as "European" though could not specify exactly what it meant, (3) a low level of nationalistic antagonism and ethno-linguistic tension.

3. Linguistic outcomes: the research was meant to measure proficiency of the 13-year-olds in the ES in Brussels, the results were compared with results of the previous research of Canadian immersion program and of the Luxembourg system of trilingual education, the conclusion was made that levels of L2 French obtained in the ES in Brussels are comparable and even superior to those obtained the Canadian immersion program and the Luxembourg school, although in the ES children had less formal classroom contact with the language, which gives grounds to speak about the efficiency of ES.

The result of the research done in Brussels cannot be 100% reliable since Brussels is the de facto Capital of the European Union where two languages are spoken (French and Dutch) and is very intercultural and multilingual itself. Therefore it is not fair to claim that the environment in which the children were brought up did not influence their identity and effect the result of the research held in the ES in Brussels.

CLIL

During 1980-1995 methodologists in the sphere of language learning came to the conclusion that:

1. to focus on meaning alongside form to achieve better results amongst the pupils (i.e. lexical approach to language learning),
2. the requisites for success lie in exposure, and

3. to learn not for use later but to learn as you use and use as you learn.

These ideas have become revolutionary in terms of language learning at the beginning of the 21st century.

The attempts to adapt these strategies to a classroom context so they could work effectively resulted in an idea to integrate language within non-language content, i.e. to create a dual-focused language environment (multi-faceted approach) was generated. Such an approach to language learning was termed Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL).

CLIL's objectives:

- to give the opportunity to learn a subject effectively through the medium of L2;
- to give students an opportunity to use language in a variety of settings and contexts which would enable them to “survive” in a plurilingual European society;
- to develop specific linguistic skills and strategies which would help them to operate as “autonomous mobile European citizens”(Coyle, 2002:27).

CLIL's objectives have a lot in common with the European Commission's language objectives, though it should not be perceived as a tool for the realization of the European Commission's policy. Such similarities are determined by the fact that CLIL aims at “producing” a citizen who would meet European society's needs, while the European Commission, on the other hand, taking into account the economic, political and cultural situation, “dictates” what kind of personality is in demand in European society.

In the Portuguese context, CLIL manifests itself mainly in its “soft form”, though in 2011, a pilot project “Ensino Bilingue Precoce 1 CEB” was set up in collaboration between the Ministry of Education of Portugal and the British Council where CLIL. In this project CLIL reveals itself in its full form.

As we can see, there are various forms and approaches to bilingual education, but those, which aim to foster bilinguals, are more popular in the educational world and enjoy higher prestige. There are only a few schools around Europe where with weak forms of bilingual education and Ukrainian Saturday Schools belong to that small group. It is a pity

that because of lack of funding students are not given a chance to realize their true bilingual potential.

1.5. THE BILINGUAL LEXICON AND TEACHING SECOND LANGUAGE VOCABULARY

In previous sections (see section 1.3. Bilingualism, Intelligence and Cognition, p. 15), it was argued that bilinguals have a number of benefits over monolinguals in terms of educational potential in general, and particularly in terms of second language acquisition. In this section we will look at how the fact that a teacher is dealing with a bilingual class can alter or predetermine his or her teaching strategies. Of course, it is impossible within one paper to cover all the aspects of language acquisition that is why only one was chosen, which in the light of modern theories of language acquisition (lexical approach to language teaching and learning) is considered as the one of primary importance, that is, vocabulary acquisition.

Teaching vocabulary is one of the most important aspects of second language acquisition. Simplistically speaking, the more words a student knows the higher probability is that he or she will perform successfully in solving communicative tasks found in real life. That is why teachers should use any possible techniques to enlarge their students' vocabulary. One can find a number of web sites (see Appendix 9. Useful Web Sites for Teaching Vocabulary) where they would give a teacher some tips and techniques which would help the teacher to organize second language vocabulary acquisition effectively, but because of the limited timing and curriculum students are able to cover only *the most widely used English words*². However, the teacher should not miss the opportunity to go beyond the list, and it is especially easy if we speak about bilinguals, and why it is so will be described further

It goes without saying that the bilingual language system differs from the

² the 6 000 most frequently used English words is downloadable from the web site <<http://www.insightin.com/esl/>>

monolingual one, particularly in terms of lexicon, i.e. the way it is organized, stored, retrieved and produced. Consequently, a teacher of a foreign language who is dealing with bilinguals has to have at least a hazy idea about it.

Organization and activation of the lexicon in a bilingual memory. The most frequently asked question when we speak about the bilingual lexicon is if a bilingual person has two mental dictionaries (one for each language) or a single combined dictionary. Linguists have given the answer referring to the results of research where bilinguals were given a number of lexical decision tasks for visually presented words. The results of the research showed that “the bilingual has independent representations for a word and its translation equivalent at the lexical level, but a common representation at the semantic level” (Thomas & de Wet, 1998:1). The results of another study held by McClelland and Rumelhart in 1981 showed that while processing the information not only a target word with its meaning becomes active, but also the words, that share some features with this word on a phonological, grammatical, morphological or orthographical level even if these words belong to different languages. Thus, if a Portuguese-Ukrainian bilingual comes across the Portuguese word “*futebol*” a Ukrainian word “футбол [fut'bo:l]” will be activated because these two words share some common features on the phonological level. This proves that even though the mental dictionaries of a bilingual child are relatively independent a crosslinguistic interaction still happens.

Teaching implication. Taking into account the information mentioned above there are two possible situations which might happen when bilinguals are dealing with second language vocabulary.

Let us look at the situations when during an L2 lesson, two Portuguese-Ukrainian bilinguals were set the same task: to translate a sentence “this philosopher lived in Germany” into Ukrainian.

Situation 1: When a bilingual child comes across a word which has no similarities with the words from his or her native languages.

The pupil 1 is familiar with the meaning of all the words in the sentence except the word *to live* but is aware of the fact that *-ed* is a marker of the Past Indefinite Tense, the pupil is not able to translate the sentence due to the lack of vocabulary knowledge.

Situation 2: When a bilingual child comes across a word which has some similarities with the words from his or her native language.

The pupil 2 is familiar with meaning of all the words in the sentence except the word *Germany* but on the basis of phonological similarities the Ukrainian word “*Германія [ger'mania]*” (Ukrainian for Germany) is activated, and, on this level, lexical substitution may happen, and thus even without knowing the meaning of the word a pupil will be able to translate the phrase.

The situations described show how bilingualism can influence second language vocabulary acquisition, and the term coined for it is “crosslinguistic influence”. It is preferable for someone who is teaching L2 to know both of the languages of bilinguals to be able to make crosslinguistic comparison since it can help to predict learning difficulty and, more importantly, to use these two languages when referring to L2 acquisition. Though formally it is argued that effective language learning is possible only through extensive exposure to the L2, and no L1 is accepted in the classroom, it has to be admitted that it is essential to teach your pupils to make *crosslinguistic comparison* for the following reasons:

a) it will help to find the boundaries of crosslinguistic correspondence, for example you can easily tell your children: *cat* means *gato/a* in Portuguese or *кіт/кішка [kitt/kishka]* in Ukrainian. It is particularly true, when we talk about concrete nouns, because abstract nouns usually have shades of meanings which better manifest themselves in context, though sometimes it works with abstract nouns too: the word *passionate about* most likely would be translated into Ukrainian as *прустрасний [prustrasnui]* though this translation is quite rough, because unlike English, in Ukrainian you can be passionate only about somebody but not about something, that is why it would be more beneficial to draw parallels with the Portuguese word *apaixonado sobre*, since it is closer in meaning and the usage is more or less the same;

b) it is easier to remember words or phrases on the basis of associations, consequently it would be easier for your child to remember the English word *plan* if you told him/her that it is similar to Ukrainian word *план [plan]* in its meaning and pronunciation.

c) it will keep you from reinventing the wheel: because unlike England and Portugal where they use the Latin alphabet, in Ukraine, the Cyrillic alphabet is used, which is why in Ukrainian schools they devote one whole semester to teaching how to write and pronounce English letters. This is not the case in Portuguese schools since letters in Portuguese are similar to the ones in English. Although the differences do exist, it is not big enough to devote classes to teaching how to write since pupils have been taught how to do that during Portuguese classes.

The notion of crosslinguistic influence goes hand in hand with the notion of *language transfer* (also known as cross meaning). This term is used to denote the learners ability to “carry over to or generalize in their knowledge about their native language to help them learn to use a target language” (Li, 1996:760). When this influence has a negative effect on L2 learning it is termed *L1 interference*. There are lots of examples of L1 interference, and the types of the mistakes caused by L1 interference vary as they depend on the native language of the L2 learner, but there is a mistake which can be made even by the most experienced learners and regardless of their L1. It happens when a L2 learner comes across a word from a foreign language that looks like it might mean the same thing as a word in his or her native language but actually means something else, such words are called false cognates or false friends, e.g.

1. Ukrainian-English false friends:
 - accurate (meaning: precise, exact) – акуратний [aku'ratnyi] (meaning: neat punctual);
 - an artist (meaning: a person who practices one of fine arts, especially a painter or a sculptor) – артист [ar'tist] (meaning: an actor).
2. Portuguese-English false friends:
 - an abstract (meaning: a summary of a text, scientific article, document, etc.) – abstracto (meaning: conceptual, absent-minded);
 - an agenda (meaning: a list, plan, outline, things to be done, etc.) – agenda (meaning: diary)

Children are apt to transfer more from the language which is typologically closer to that one which is learned. This rests upon the idea which was introduced by Swan

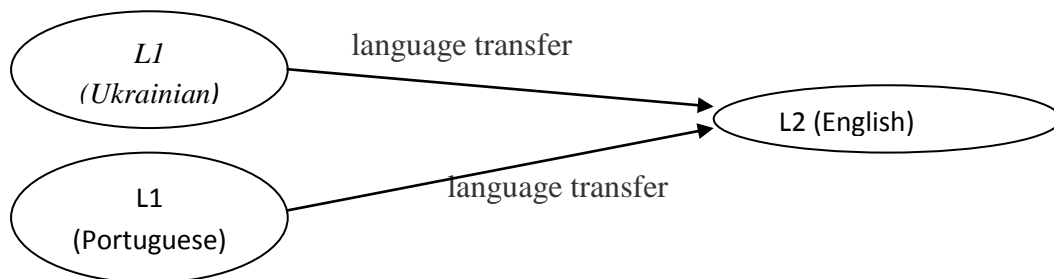
(1997:163) in his article “The influence of the mother tongue on second language vocabulary” where he claims that language distance (meaning phonological, grammatical and lexical distance) can have some effect on the amount of transfer that can be made. A Portuguese learner of Spanish will learn Spanish faster than a Ukrainian one since the Portuguese language has much more in common with the Spanish language than Ukrainian and a Ukrainian learner of Russian will be more successful than a Portuguese learner of the same language on the basis of similarities (grammatical lexical and phonological) between the Ukrainian and Russian languages. Therefore the Ukrainian learner will benefit from language transfer.

All the theory described in this chapter can be narrowed down to our bilingual context.

1. Language transfer.

When we speak about the bilingual child (in our context it is Ukrainian-Portuguese bilingual), the process of language transfer may look like this (see Fig. 1 Language transfer model for bilinguals).

Fig. 1 Language transfer model for bilinguals

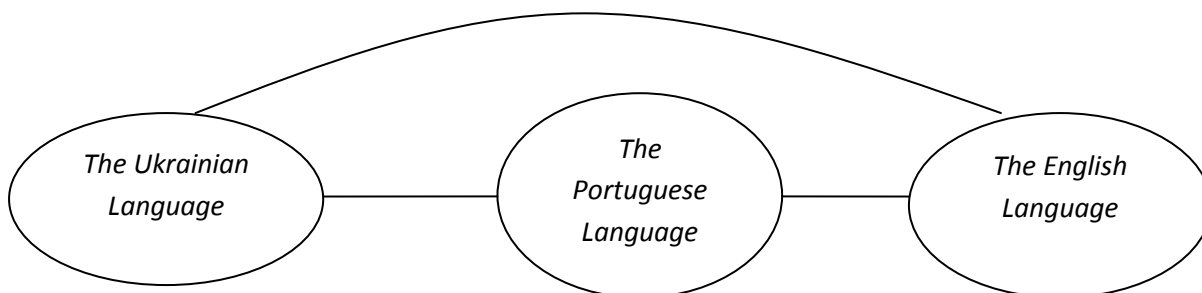


Thus with bilingual children, you have got two sources of language transfer, which means that two languages will influence acquiring L2.

2. Language distance.

The language distance between English, Portuguese, and Ukrainian can be roughly represented like this (see Fig. 2 Language Proximity between English, Ukrainian, and Portuguese).

Fig.2 Language Proximity between English, Ukrainian, and Portuguese



Ukrainian is closer to Portuguese (one can find lots in common, especially on the grammatical level), Portuguese is closer to English (one can find lots in common, especially on phonological and lexical level), Ukrainian and English are quite remote though one can still find some similarities on the lexical level.

3. Crosslinguistic comparison.

Crosslinguistic analysis of the languages we are interested in (viz. English, Portuguese, and Ukrainian) can be made on various levels: grammatical, lexical, phonological, syntactical, semantic, etc. As an example, we will make crosslinguistic comparison on the lexical level.

a) Ukrainian – English.

- *Borrowings* (that is words, phrases or individual morphemes which entered the language from another language). Into Ukrainian, borrowings entered by two ways:

1. either directly from English. This happened a lot during the 20th century when English speaking countries (the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand) became to be associated with economic strength and technical expertise.

e.g. бізнес [busnes] (from English *business*), дилер [diler] (from English *dealer*), менеджер [manedger] (from English *manager*), консенсус [konsensus] (from English

consensus), корупція [korrupsiya] (from English *corruption*), приватизація [privatizatsiya] (from English *privatization*), сокси [skoksu] (from English *socks*), etc.

2. or, from Latin or Greek, but in the two languages (English and Ukrainian), these words mainly deal with biology or other sciences, such as astronomy, chemistry, etc.

e.g. біологія [biologia] (in English – *biology*), фізика [física] (in English – *physics*), демократія [democratiya] (in English – *democracy*), соціологія [sotsiologia] (in English – *sociology*), etc.

- *Loanwords*. These are those which adjust their form to the rules (grammatical, morphological, phonetical) of the language which they entered but preserve their meaning. There are various types of loanwords (e.g. those which have not assimilated grammatically or those which have not assimilated morphologically) but a teacher should be particularly interested in those which have not been assimilated phonetically – in the words which have preserved their original pronunciation, because such words have tighter links with the Ukrainian or Portuguese correspondent. As mentioned above on the basis of other similarities, a lot of other words will be activated. The tighter the links between a target word from L2 and the one offered by a bilingual memory as an alternative, the greater the probability that this alternative will suit the context.

e.g. коледж [koledg] (from English college), меню [menu] (from English menu), etc.

b) Portuguese – English cognates (cognates are considered to be those words which derived from the same word in an ancestral language). Because of shared Latin roots there are lots of Portuguese words which can be easily transformed into English ones, by means of changing prefixes or suffixes.

e.g. *mente* → *ly*: *automaticamente* – automatically;

completamente – completely;

tradicionalmente – traditionally

dade → *ty*: *autoridade* – authority;

cidade – city;

oportunidade – opportunity;

çao → *tion*: *educação* – education

definição – definition

observação – observation
ário→*ary*: aniversário – anniversary;
 dicionário – dictionary
 vocabulário – vocabulary
ável→*able*: adaptável – adaptable;
 irritável – irritable;
 miserável – miserable;
ante→*ant*: elegante – elegant;
 importante – important;
 restaurant – restaurant;
ência→*ency*: agência – agency;
 emergência – emergency;
 urgência – urgency;
ção→*sion*: admissão – admission;
 conclusão – conclusion;
 progressão – progression;
acia→*acy*: burocracia – bureaucracy
 democracia – democracy.

If a learner comes across the words which belong to the groups described above, he or she will be able to translate these words even if they had never seen these words before. Due to the similarities (in this case phonological and orthographic ones) these words (which might be cognate words, borrowings, or loanwords) will be recalled in the learner's memory as those which are already known.

On having made a crosslinguistic analysis, a teacher may work out several simple tasks with an objective to teach his students to find language differences and similarities, to show how by means of managing these differences and similarities it is possible to enlarge their vocabulary, e.g.

1. Teacher can read aloud the text and students have to raise their hands when they hear loanwords, cognates or borrowings, then the teacher stops reading and the students start discussing the peculiarities of the word: find the differences and similarities (e.g.

phonological, orthographical, grammar behaviour, etc.) between the English word and its correspondent in Ukrainian or Portuguese, discuss the meaning of the English word and its Ukrainian or Portuguese equivalent;

2. Find pairs of English-Portuguese cognates and loanwords and borrowings which entered the Ukrainian language from English;

3. A teacher introduces a list with pairs of words (English-Portuguese cognates and borrowings and loanwords which entered the Ukrainian language from English), students have to find the difference by encircling the letters;

4. The students are given a list of words in Ukrainian (loanwords and borrowings) and Portuguese (cognates), and they have to try to transform these words into English, etc.

These various techniques can be applicable to monolinguals too, but as was mentioned above they can be less successful since they (monolinguals) will have only one source to transform from, that is to say, their native language.

Summing up we can conclude, that a teacher who is dealing with bilinguals like any other teacher has to look for those strategies and techniques which would be beneficial for their students. Above is given an example of how crosslinguistic analysis (as a teaching strategy) can benefit from pupils' bilingualism in terms of teaching vocabulary. To go further, a lot of other alternatives can be suggested which may help the student to use his or her potential, e.g. the extensive usage of multi-linguistic, problem- and rule-solving tasks, etc. The most important thing in this context is that these tasks and strategies should meet your students' needs.

On giving a critical analysis of the literature which deals with bilingualism, an attempt was made to understand the nature of this complicated notion and to relate the discoveries made in this sphere to our teaching-learning context. We tried to look at bilingualism from two perspectives: bilingualism as a linguistic notion and bilingualism as a teaching reality. Discussing the notion of bilingualism, we had to touch upon several other concepts which go hand in hand with the notion of bilingualism, e.g. bilinguals, classification of bilingualism, bilinguals' intelligence and cognition, bilingual education, language influence, language transfer, etc. All that made us realize that bilingualism as a

part of a teaching-learning process can on one hand open new horizons for both teachers and learners and on another can be a real challenge.

PART 2. ACTION RESEARCH

This action research is a logical extension of the Part 1. Literature Review, where we came to the conclusion that bilingualism can contribute to the second language vocabulary acquisition, due to the specificity of the word retrieval processes within a bilingual memory, particularly the possibility of lexical substitution if the lack of vocabulary knowledge happens. Thus in this small-scale action research we will try to see if the usage of native languages can become a back-up which would facilitate fast vocabulary acquisition, through the usage of (1) English-Portuguese cognates and (2) loanwords and borrowings which entered the Ukrainian language from English.

2.1 PROCEDURE

Step 1. *Selecting Participants*

Out of 86 pupils of different nationalities and backgrounds attending the school, this action research took only 12 because of the selection process used. They were selected by taking into account the following variables:

- age – children between the age 16-17 (16 and 17 included) were selected;
- school grade in Ukrainian school – the pupils of the age group indicated above usually are in the 10 – 11th grades in school.
- mother language of parents – though, according to the Constitution of Ukraine, the official language of the state is Ukrainian, very often it happens that in Ukrainian families one of the parents speaks Russian and the other Ukrainian. Such a situation is determined by the fact that up till the year 1991 Ukraine was a part of the Soviet Union, where the official language and the language of schooling was Russian. That is why for some people it became a mother tongue, especially when we speak of Eastern Ukraine. In Western Ukraine, the situation was a little bit different: despite the constant attempts of the Soviet Government to force out the Ukrainian language, people still used it as their native tongue.

For the sake of the purity of the research families were selected, where there was no mixture of the languages, that is to say, both parents spoke Ukrainian, and consequently the mother tongue of the child would be Ukrainian. This is a very important aspect to look at

since if the parents speak different languages, a child will speak two languages as well, plus the language of the society (i.e. Portuguese) which means that in such a situation we would be dealing with trilingualism which would add an extra variable to the research.

- level of proficiency in Portuguese and Ukrainian: in this research, the pupils who took part have been in Portugal no less than 5 years and their average score in Portuguese is between 15-20 (according to Portuguese school grading system where the students' academic standing is graded on a 20-point scale) and in Ukrainian it is not less than 8 (according to the Ukrainian school grading system where the students' academic standing is graded on 12-point scale). Taking into account these factors, we may presume that their level of Portuguese and Ukrainian is very similar.

The following variables were ignored:

- social background;
- level of proficiency in English;
- school grade in Portuguese school.

Summing up, the group of children who took part in the action research have the following profile:

Children between the ages of 16– 17 (that is, 10– 11th year of schooling) who belong to a family where both parents speak Ukrainian and whose average score in Portuguese and Ukrainian is no lower than 15 (for Portuguese) and 8 (for Ukrainian) and who have been living in Portugal no less than 5 years. However, they have different social back grounds, their level of proficiency in English differs and they might belong to different grades in a Portuguese school.

The children were selected on the basis of the results of the questionnaire (see Appendix 2. Student Questionnaire), which had been worked out so that it could provide us with the information (that is, age, grade in a Ukrainian school, mother language of parents, etc) which was essential for our action research.

Step 2. *Setting up the research.* The research was set on 1st November, 2011 and it lasted for period of 5 months. Not to violate ethical principles, the parents of the children

who took part in the action research were informed about it, and were informed about its objectives and goals. They were also asked to give written approval (for a translated example see Appendix 3. Permission from Parents). The students themselves were not aware of the action research happening since it could influence the results of it, and this influence would be sooner negative rather than positive since knowing the purpose of the research and its goals could influence their objectivity in terms of task performance. The tasks were delivered during the English language lessons and were woven into the context of the lesson.

The tasks were worked out on the basis of a crosslinguistic analysis of the three languages (i.e. English, Ukrainian, and Portuguese) which was done above (see section 1.5. Bilingual Lexicon and Teaching Second Language Vocabulary). Consequently, they had two components: (1) Portuguese-English cognates and (2) loanwords and borrowings which entered the Ukrainian language from English. It has to be emphasized that the pupils were not trained to deal with this type of language vocabulary which is why we were interested in seeing how they would perform on solving the tasks.

To get the full picture of the students' performance on solving the tasks with cognates, loanwords and borrowings, it is essential for the cognates, loanwords and borrowings to be looked at from two different perspectives: as a part of receptive vocabulary (receptive vocabulary comprises the words which the students recognize when they hear or them) and as a part of productive vocabulary (productive vocabulary comprises the words which the students can use when they write or speak). Consequently, the tasks which were offered to the students were of two types:

Type I tasks –students had to deal with cognates, loanwords and borrowings as a part of receptive vocabulary;

Type II tasks–students had to deal with cognate, loanwords and borrowings as a part of productive vocabulary.

Step 3. *Working out tasks.*

Type I tasks (receptive vocabulary)

Task1. This was worked out as a table (see Appendix 4. Type I – Task 1), which has 100 words: 45% of these words are Portuguese-English cognates (marked black on the copy in Appendix 4), 45% are loanwords and borrowings which entered Ukrainian from English (marked blue on the copy in Appendix 4), and 10% (a control group) are words which have no relationship either with Ukrainian or with Portuguese, that is, unrelated English words (marked red on the copy in Appendix 4). The words belong to different spheres of human communication, viz. business, policy, science, day-to-day life, etc., and different word classes, that is, verbs, nouns (both abstract and concrete), adverbs, adjectives. It has to be emphasized that the words have been decontextualized as that would enable the learners to guess the meaning from the context. The students had to fill in the table without using a dictionary within 25 minutes. The answers could be given either in Portuguese or Ukrainian.

Objective of the task: to see if the pupils can understand the meaning of words (cognates, borrowings, and loanwords) on the basis of their previous language experiences and knowledge.

Data analysis: Out of 45% of English-Portuguese cognates, 39% fell into the category “I do not know this word, but I think it means...” and 38.2% were properly translated. 3% fell into the category “I definitely know that the meaning of this word is...” and in 2.8% of the cases the meaning was indicated correctly. With the translation of loanwords and borrowings (English-Ukrainian), the students performed less successfully: out of 45% -35% fell in the category “I do not know this word, but I think it means...” and 32% were properly translated meanwhile 4.4% fell into the category “I definitely know that the meaning of this word is...” with 2.4% of correct answers. Out of 10% of the words from the control group, 6 % were translated where only 4% with a correct translation.

Note: while translating the words, the students were apt to change the grammatical category of the words, e.g. the English word *consult*, they translated as a *консультація* [konsultatsia] which is a noun but not a verb and the English correspondent of which is *consultation*. This was not to be considered a mistake for the following reasons:

1. the English words which were in the list did not have any markers (e.g. articles – to indicate that it is a noun, or particle ‘to’ – to indicate that it is a verb) which could prompt the grammatical category of the word;
2. if the words were contextualized, this might not have happened;
3. in most cases students managed to grasp the concept of the word and it was given more value to the meaning knowledge) rather than orthographical or phonological knowledge or, like in the case described above, to the knowledge of the word class.

Task 2. The children were given a text (see Appendix 5. Type I – Task 2) which was full of cognate words, loan words and borrowings (on the copy in Appendix 5 Portuguese-English cognates are written in blue and borrowings and loanwords which entered the Ukrainian language from English are shown in red). The text was selected taking into account the following variables:

- the topic of the lesson during which the task had to be delivered (in this case the topic was “Being in Danger”);
- authenticity of the text (i.e. the text written solely for the use of target language speakers);
- the existence of words which belong to the type of vocabulary we were interested in (that is, cognate words, loan words and borrowings) to ensure that a crosslinguistic comparison of the vocabulary in the text could be made.

The pupils were given a twofold task:

- a) to look through the text and to circle the words the meaning of which they did not know (the students had to do this individually). The students had to do that within 5 minutes and to hand it in;
- b) to translate the text orally the same text (the students had to read and to translate the text in turns and the teacher was monitoring the process). The decision to have this task done orally was determined by the fact that the text is quite long and it is less time consuming to do it orally rather than in a written form. Besides, it was easier for the teacher to observe how the students performed on translating the vocabulary we were interested in. Also, an important factor is that written translation gives more time to think about the sentence the learner is translating and to organize the translated variant better, which in our

case will influence the purity of the results, since spontaneous tasks breeds spontaneous and uncontrolled answers which are usually made on the subconscious level.

Objectives of the task:

- analyzing the data got from the task 3a (to circle unknown words), to count which percent of all the unknown words will be comprised by loanwords, borrowings and cognates;
- to see if the words to put in the context will it cause some difficulties?

Data analysis:

Task 3a. Only 8 % of unknown words comprised loanwords, cognates and borrowings, the percentage was counted by means of the following formula:

$$\frac{S1ULBC + S2 ULBC + \dots + S12 ULBC}{S1U + S2U + \dots + S12U} * 100\%$$

In this formula:

$S1ULBC + S2 ULBC + \dots + S12 ULBC$ - is the sum of all the unknown cognates, loanwords and borrowings of all the students, and

$S1U + S2U + \dots + S12U$ - is the sum of all the unknown words of all the students.

The index is quite low, which give us grounds to hypothesize that with bilinguals, loanwords, cognates and borrowings are less often termed unknown even if they might doubt the meaning of the word.

Task 3b. If in the first task, the pupils could rely only on their language experiences only, in this task they have another source which could prompt the meaning of the word, a context in which the word is used. It was described above that pupils, when translation word in isolation, were apt to change the grammatical category of the word. This did not happen, when the words is used in the context since in the context one can find grammatical markers of the class.

For example, if the English word *battle* (a cognate of Portuguese *batalha*) would be translate in isolation a child would eventually presume that it has to be translated like a

noun *batalha*, but in the text which has been handed out to the children (see Appendix 5), they come across this word in the following context:

"Within five minutes, one or two of them were on board, fully armed and in full combat battle dress."

The children could see that it might be translated as an adjective.

One interesting point was that when the children were spontaneously asked to translate some word, they would automatically translate it into the language where they would find a cognate, loanword, or borrowing. For example, if they were asked to translate the English word *coast*, they would use Portuguese as a medium, because in Portuguese there is a cognate word *costa*, but translating the word *manoeuvre*, Ukrainian was used as a medium, since the word with the similar meaning and pronunciation: *маневрувати* [manevruvatu] is easily recalled.

Task 3. A list of 40 words (see Appendix 6. Type I – Task 3) was given to the students. The task was to translate the words into English (the expected answers are written in italics in the copy in Appendix 6). To do this task, students had 25 minutes. The list contained:

-
- 20 words written in Ukrainian, 15 of them are loanwords and borrowings and 5 words are original unrelated Ukrainian words (marked in red in the copy in Appendix 6);
 - 20 words written in Portuguese, 15 belong to the group Portuguese-English cognates and 5 words are unrelated original Portuguese words (marked in blue in the copy in Appendix 6).
 - 5 original unrelated Ukrainian words and 5 original unrelated Portuguese words served as a control group.

Objective of the task: to see if the students are able to transform Ukrainian and Portuguese words (i.e. loanwords, borrowings, and cognates) into English.

Data analysis. The results of the task can be summed up as following:

- on average, students managed to transform 36% of the Ukrainian words which were borrowed from English;
- 30 % of the Portuguese words were transformed correctly into English;
- 75% of the words from the control group were translated properly.

It has to be mentioned that students were not trained to perform this kind of task. In performing this task, they had to rely on their previous language experience particularly the ability to generalize.

Note: When looking through the students' answers, it was found that even if the student knew the proper translation they had difficulty to write the words with accurate spelling, thus it is possible to suggest that if they had had to perform this task orally, most probably they would have been more successful.

Type II tasks (productive vocabulary)

Task 4. Task 4 had two sections which included several minitasks.

Objectives of the task:

- a) to see if it is easier for the students to remember loanwords, borrowings and cognates or those words which have no similarities with the words from their native languages;
- b) which group of words is better stored in short term memory;
- c) which group of words is better stored in long term memory.

Section 1. The students were given a list of 20 words (see Appendix 7. Type II – Task 1(a)). These were loanwords, borrowings (50%) and cognates (50%), and the students had to remember as many words as they could (minitask 1). To do that, they had 10 minutes to memorise them. When the list was taken back from the students, they were set some other tasks to distract their attention from the previous one. Fifteen minutes later, the students had to reproduce those words (not only the English variant but a translation too to see if they remembered both the form and the meaning) from the list which they managed to remember (minitask 2). The translation should have been written in the language in which it was written in the list given out to the students. They were given 10 minutes to do that. A week later, they had to make up sentences using the words from the list which they

still remembered (minitask 3). To do this task, more time (15 minutes) was allowed than for minitask 2 since the students had to write sentences – this is considered to be more time consuming than just listing words.

Section 2. In a lesson, the students were given another list of 20 words (see Appendix 8. Type II – Task 1 (b)) but that list contained no loanwords, borrowings or cognate words. They were set the same tasks, i.e.

- a) within ten minutes to remember as many words as possible (minitask 1a);
- b) fifteen minutes later, to reproduce these words in a written form (timing – 10 minutes) (minitask 2a);
- c) a week later, to make up sentences using those words from the list which they still remembered (timing – 15 minutes) (minitask 3a).

Notes:

✓ Words in the two lists belonged to different spheres of human communication, but there were no other factors which would predetermine the choice of lexical items (except that they were loanwords, borrowings and cognates).

✓ The list given in minitask 1 contained words with their translations where loanwords and borrowings were translated into Ukrainian, and cognates were translated in Portuguese. This was done to be coherent since in the previous tasks students had to translate words on the basis of phonological similarities, this was why in minitask 1, the students were given a translation which was phonologically or orthographically close to the English word.

✓ In minitask 3 (a and b) the sentence was considered correct if the target word in the sentence showed the proper meaning and had no spelling mistakes.

Data analysis. After analyzing the results of minitasks 1, 2 and 3, it was concluded that, all in all, 56% of words were stored in short-term memory, of these 32% were loanwords and borrowings, and 24% were cognate words. The results of minitask 2 showed that 28% of the words were stored in long-term memory: 21% were loanwords and borrowings, and 7% of the total were cognate words. Data analysis of the data which had been got from minitasks 1a, 2a and 3a showed that a total of 44% of the words were stored in short-term memory and 21% - in the long-term one.

Summing up, we can suggest that students do better at remembering and recalling loanwords, borrowings, and cognates than the words which have no correlation with their native languages. We have to confess that the results of minitask 3 are lower than was expected, which is why it is fair to claim that for the loanwords, borrowings, and cognates to pass from short-term memory to long-term memory, the words still need to be practiced. However, it takes less effort for the students to remember cognates, loanwords, and borrowings and to start using them.

2.2. DISCUSSION OF OUTCOMES AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE ACTION RESEARCH.

The results of the action research showed that students did use their native languages as a back-up to facilitate vocabulary acquisition, even though they have not been trained to do so, in other words they did it subconsciously. It has been noticed that they perform better in solving Type I tasks (receptive vocabulary) than the Type II tasks (productive vocabulary), which means that it is easier for them to deal with loanwords, borrowings and cognates as a part of receptive vocabulary. The difficulties in solving tasks from Group II might have been caused by lack of experience in the English language, that is to say, they are not proficient enough in English to be able to conform foreign words (in our context, borrowings, and loanwords, which entered the Ukrainian language from English and English-Portuguese cognates) to the rules and standards of the English language. Analyzing the data which has been got from the Type I tasks, it is also possible to conclude that students learn words easier when they can attach a new word in their L2 to the word they know in their L1s, i.e. it enables the newly learned words to pass faster from short-term memory to long-term memory.

Though the results showed that the students are apt to refer to their previous language experiences subconsciously, for better results they still need to be trained how to recognize lexical similarities. It might be useful to work out a set of lessons which will help to make the students aware of what cognates, loanwords, and borrowings are, how they appeared and how they function in the languages in question. As in the case of Portuguese-English cognates, the rules of how to transform Portuguese words into English could be

shown. Another piece of practical advice is that for the students to perform better in recognition tasks, the teacher has to develop their predictive and anticipatory skills. All this will help to double the vocabulary size of the students without great effort. The techniques described above would probably work better only with older or adult learners; with young learners (6-12 years) there is no sense in going deeply into explaining terminology. It would be more efficient to show examples which would help them to understand how similar words may sometimes be. We should not expect that through getting familiar with these similarities, the productive vocabulary of a young learner will necessarily be enlarged, but it should indeed happen with their receptive vocabulary.

Another aspect which should not be omitted, though it was omitted in our action research, is the area of *false cognates*. We did not refer to this notion in our action research since the objective of the action research was not to teach students to deal with cognates, loanwords and borrowings but instead we tried to see what their performance would be like when solving the task where the bulk of the vocabulary comprised loanwords, cognates and borrowings. But if the teacher sets as an objective to train his pupils to recognize and to use this layer of vocabulary (meaning loanwords, cognates and borrowings), he or she has to make them aware of false friends and to give examples of the most common ones (in this case for both the first languages, i.e. Ukrainian and Portuguese).

Teaching language similarities might also be beneficial from another perspective: it can help:

- to break down language barriers and show that a foreign language is different but not alien. This is particularly true when we speak about monolinguals since they are less experienced in accepting a foreign language and culture;
- to show how the students' native language can help them to perform better in their L2 acquisition;
- to teach students' to draw parallels, to guess and to compare which might become useful in other subjects as well.

It is also important to mention that teaching language similarities – although in our case it was vocabulary similarities, there might be others, e.g. grammatical, phonological, orthographical, etc., might be helpful for monolinguals too. However, the difference is that

using this technique, the vocabulary of monolinguals cannot be enlarged to the same extent as the vocabulary of bilinguals for one simple reason: unlike bilinguals, monolinguals have only one source for the language transfer.

By using the results of this action research properly, they might be of a real pedagogical value, but it is unfair to claim that through teaching how to deal with cognates, loanwords and borrowing will teach the language. Teaching cognates, borrowings and loanwords is only one of the effective means which will help a teacher to enlarge substantially the students' vocabulary, especially when we talk about bilinguals since they have a large and wide language experience and better developed predictive and anticipatory skills.

CONCLUSION

Led by the bilingual context, a project was design with the following objectives:

- to become aware of what bilingualism is;
- to understand how bilingualism correlates with a person's intelligence and cognition;
- to come to understanding how bilingualism fits into modern educational system;
- to grasp to what extent bilingualism might be beneficial or harmful when dealing with acquiring second language vocabulary.

To fulfil these objectives, the research was held in two directions: (1) theoretical research which was realized by means of critical analysis of the relevant literature and (2) practical research which was realized with the help of the action research.

The theoretical research showed that the notion of bilingualism has become one of the new trends in the sphere of applied linguistics, where linguists implicitly set the idea that to develop bilingualism and to foster bilinguals is of primary importance. One can find an enormous number of publications where bilingualism is looked at from different perspectives, and bilinguals are claimed to be better developed in terms of cognition and intelligence. This is indeed so, and it is difficult to argue with this. But some linguists go to extremes trying, for example, to persuade the reader that a person who speaks two accents of the same language is already bilingual (if it is so then at least 99% of the inhabitants of the British Isles are bilinguals since it is possible to imagine they can speak both British English and American English). On finishing this project, the following definition of bilingualism could possibly be given: *bilingualism* is knowledge of two languages and *both* of them were acquired in the same language patterns as the language of a monolingual speaker and I consider a bilingual is be a person who acquired each of their languages in the same language patterns as a monolingual. In this respect, the ideal is a process of bilingualisation from birth up till the age of 6 (the critical period for language development).

It was possible over fifty of the most widely discussed scientific papers about bilingualism but none of them gave me the answer to the main question of this paper: *how*

to deal with bilingualism and bilinguals in a classroom context. In this respect, there is a huge mismatch between theory and practice. Linguists claim that bilingualism is beneficial, but this idea is not reflected in practice, because one can hardly find any practitioners who have worked out teaching-learning strategies to benefit from bilingualism. As a proof of everything mentioned above, it has to be mentioned that on deciding to write about bilingual education I was sure that I would be able to find some papers where they would talk about schools where they teach bilinguals (as in my case), with a description of techniques, teaching and learning strategies they are using there, and so on. Instead, I came up with the descriptions of schools where to foster bilingualism and bilinguals is set as the objective. It would be unfair to state that all the papers about bilingualism are of no pedagogic value, but it was the feeling that they were written by linguists for linguists, with texts full of terminology and endless sentences which an ordinary teacher in practice (like myself) has to read at least twice to find a grain of sense in it. To change this situation, we should encourage practitioners to share their experiences in terms of teaching bilinguals (I am sure that my school is not unique and a lot of teachers are working in a similar context). To do this is possible by means of a special web site, where teachers could offer their ideas about how they manage bilingual classrooms, to share thoughts about bilingualism not from the scientific point of view but from a point of view of a person who is close to the classroom context. On the same site they could also describe the problems which they run into when dealing with bilinguals and suggest possible ways out. To my mind, such a web site could compensate for the lack of practical material connected with this subject.

The practical research showed that bilingualism may be helpful in L2 acquisition, though only one aspect of language acquisition, vocabulary acquisition, was looked at. The essence of the action research was to see how bilingual students perform on solving tasks where they had to deal with Portuguese-English cognates, loanwords, and borrowings which entered the Ukrainian language from English. This very type of language vocabulary was chosen as one which potentially might enrich students' vocabulary. This assumption was made on the basis of a cross-linguistic comparison. The students were quite successful in performing the tasks, even though they were not trained to deal with this cluster of vocabulary. It is suggested that students used their previous language experiences in order

to solve the tasks and this was done on the subconscious level. The results of the action research could be more reliable if:

- there were two additional groups: one with monolinguals and one with bilinguals who were trained to deal with cognates, loanwords and borrowings. They could be set the same tasks and thus we could compare the results and come out with more information;
- the group of participants was more homogeneous (for example, a group of sixteen-year-old girls/boys only with the same level of proficiency in English, Portuguese and Ukrainian);

The pedagogical value is that it shows how a teacher by means of crosslinguistic comparison can benefit from bilingualism when teaching second language vocabulary. This whole research gives the insights to suggest that special courses should be organized where teachers would be taught how to teach bilinguals, otherwise, all the potential of a bilingual memory, intelligence, and cognition can be wasted because usually teachers (not only L2 teachers) are apt to use the same teaching and learning techniques with bilinguals and monolinguals, even though the bilingual brain organization differs from that of monolinguals. Furthermore, sooner or later, teachers will have to deal with the products of the global policy of bilingualisation, which is why it is essential to start thinking about how to change the educational process so it could be beneficial for bilinguals as well. If not, the right to have an effective education might well be violated.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: Weak and Strong forms of bilingual education

Table 1. Weak forms of bilingual education.

Weak forms of bilingual education	Aim	Method
Submersion education	The majority language is learned, the minority language plays no role at all. Language shift, assimilating minority speakers into mainstream society	Majority language is content and medium of education.
Submersion with withdrawal classes	Majority language education through compensatory education. Separate instruction in majority language, support teachers.	Majority language is content and medium of education.
Segregationists education	Monolingual education in the minority language; majority language is excluded	Minority language is content and medium of education
Transitional bilingual education	Assimilation of learners in majority language and culture. Acceptance of home ethnic group is discouraged	Majority language is content and medium of education, in the beginning the minority language can also be medium of education. Specific language lessons.
Mainstream education with foreign language	Limited broadening of the learners' linguistic	Target language is content and medium of

teaching	knowledge of other languages	education.
Separatist education	Education in a minority language as a means of dissociation from the majority language	Minority language is content and medium of education.

(adapted from Encyclopedia of Bilingualism and Bilingual Education
 Colin Baker, Sylvia Prys Jones
http://www.cng.edu/TTI/Bilingual_Education/Weak%20Forms%20of%20Bilingual%20Education.pdf)

Table 2. Strong forms of bilingual education.

Strong forms of bilingual education	Aim	Method
Immersion bilingual education	Development of bilingualism and biliteracy, pluralist attitudes.	Target language is medium of education. Learning through a language, not learning a language.
Maintenance and heritage language bilingual education	Improvement of the learners' academic proficiency in the majority language	Minority language is content of education
Two-way/ dual language bilingual education	Native speakers of different languages jointly learn the language of their fellow students.	Both languages are medium and content of education.
Bilingual nursery education	Monolingual nursery education that develops bilingualism.	Target language is medium of interaction.
Learning and teaching non-language subjects through a foreign language	Acquisition of a foreign language aiming at high linguistic proficiency	Target language is medium and content of education.

(adapted from Encyclopedia of Bilingualism and Bilingual Education
 Colin Baker, Sylvia Prys Jones
http://www.cng.edu/TTI/Bilingual_Education/Weak%20Forms%20of%20Bilingual%20Education.pdf)

APPENDIX 2: Questionnaire

Name:

Surname:

Grade:

Age:

1. Where are you from?
2. How many years have you been living in Portugal?
3. How many languages do you speak?
4. What is your mother tongue?
5. What is the first language of your mother?
6. What is the first language of your father?
7. What is your average score in Portuguese?
8. What is your average score in Ukrainian?

APPENDIX 3: Permission from Parents

I, _____ (name and surname of a mother or father),
am not against of my son/daughter's (name and surname of a son/daughter) taking part in
the action research held by the teacher of English Iuliia Grigor. I also give my permission
for the data related to my son/ daughter (name and surname of a son/daughter) to be used in
her project work.

Signature:

Date:

APPENDIX 4: Type I-Tasks 1

Name _____

Surname _____

Grade _____

№	Word	I do not know the meaning of this word	I do not know this word but I think it means...	I definitely know that the meaning of this word is...	I can use this word in a sentence (write a sentence)
1	Function				
2	Plan				
3	Tourist				
4	Bar				
5	Football				
6	Sandwich				
7	Doctor				
8	Computer				
9	Astronomy				
10	Biology				
11	Box				
12	Business				
13	Democrat				
14	Director				
15	Document				
16	Philharmonic				
17	Farmer				
18	Hamburger				
19	Genetics				
20	Geography				
21	Gymnastics				
20	Golf				
22	History				
23	Credit				
24	Literature				

25	Music				
26	Sportsman				
27	Stadium				
28	Student				
29	Stewardess				
30	Theatre				
31	Communism				
32	Cosmos				
33	Volleyball				
34	Giraffe				
35	Bistro				
36	Journal				
37	Beefsteak				
38	Capital				
39	Article				
40	Confusion				
41	Information				
42	Vision				
43	Leader				
44	Trolleybus				
45	Snob				
46	Slang				
47	Lynching				
48	Athlete				
49	Interesting				
50	Jam				
51	Cocktail				
52	Comfort				
53	Total				
54	Map				
55	Problem				
56	History				
57	Fruits				
58	Banana				
59	Chocolate				
60	Animal				
61	Hospital				
62	Capacity				
63	Opponent				

64	Important				
65	Favor				
66	Security				
67	Patience				
68	Flexibility				
69	Arbitrary				
70	Usually				
71	Comment				
72	Imagine				
73	Complete				
74	Dance				
75	Celebrate				
76	Generous				
77	Famous				
78	Delicious				
79	Admirable				
80	Error				
81	Imaginative				
82	Descriptive				
83	Mobile				
84	Contrary				
85	Metallic				
86	Pacific				
87	Pillow				
88	Vivid				
89	Economic				
90	Embarrass				
91	Marmalade				
92	Fate				
93	Turkey				
94	Rainbow				
95	Bear				
96	Splendid				
97	Adoptive				
98	Daffodil				
99	Interview				
100	Consult				

APPENDIX 5: Type I-Task 2

Surviving the **pirates** off the coast of **Nigeria**

The Abu Dhabi Star is the latest ship to have been **attacked** in the Gulf of Guinea in recent weeks, **highlighting** a growing threat in the **region**.

A total of 40 attacks have been reported this year - many others are hushed up.

News that the vessel was carrying **petrol** from Nigeria to the US has also raised eyebrows.

Nigeria is a major **exporter** of crude oil but **generally imports** its refined fuel **products**.

Some of the 23 crew described the terrifying **moment** when, in the darkness, they realised the pirates were approaching.

"Our **radar** picked up four unlit boats. They were much bigger than the **standard** boats here. They had twin engines and approached very fast. They were on both sides of the ship and each boat had about five well-armed people on board," Capt Aron Chandran told the BBC.

"Within five **minutes**, one or two of them were on board, fully **armed** and in full **combat** battle dress."

The crew had been **trained** for such a **scenario** and they all locked themselves in a safe room, known as a citadel, out of reach of the **gang**.

The pirates smashed the glass windows to get access to the bridge in an effort to take **control** of the 183m (600ft) -long vessel.

Call for help

"I think they are **professional**. They knew what to do. They started reducing the speed of the engines and then stopped them," said Capt Chandran.

"With the **communication equipment** and the **satellite** they knew **exactly** what to break and what to disable."

Out of sight of the pirates, some of the crew then climbed up to the funnel deck where they could get a mobile phone **signal**. After the call for help, it was a **long** and anxious wait.

"It was very disturbing. We knew what to do but **mentally** we were very, very disturbed," **chief engineer** RajbirDhankhar recalled.

"From the funnel, the **captain** and I were monitoring the **situation** as we didn't want a **collision** or **pollution** so we were watching to ensure there was no **accident**. We still had **control** of the engines and the steering so we could manoeuvre a little bit," he said.

Grateful

Throughout the ordeal they would have been aware that during previous attacks in the Gulf of Guinea crews have often been treated **violently**.

Unlike piracy off the coast of **Somalia**, where the seafarers are used as bargaining chips to secure a hefty ransom, in this **region** the gangs are after the **cargo** and so the welfare of the crew is of little **consequence** to the pirates.

The crew of the Abu Dhabi Star noticed that the manifold was open so **suspected** that the cargo was being offloaded.

"At around 11 o'clock in the morning - almost 12 hours after the attack - a **naval helicopter** started circling the ship," the **captain** said. But by that time, the **pirates** had already left, some two or three hours earlier.

The **Nigerian** navy had **initially** said its intervention had prompted the pirates to flee the **scene**. Even though the **pirates** had **long** gone, the crew were nevertheless grateful when the help came.

Source:<http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/world-africa-19555334>

(last accessed on 08/12/2011)

APPENDIX 6: Type I-Task 3

Task. Translate the following words into English.

The list of words which was offered to the students	The expected answers
1. Інвестиції [invest'tytsii]	<i>Investments</i>
2. Ноу-хау [nou'hau]	<i>Know-how</i>
3. Метро ['metro]	<i>Metro</i>
4. Менталітет [mentali'tet]	<i>Mentality</i>
5. Суїцид [suit'syd]	<i>Suicide</i>
6. Долар ['dolar]	<i>Dollar</i>
7. Спонсор ['sponsor]	<i>Sponsor</i>
8. Ксерокс ['kseroks]	<i>Xerox</i>
9. Трилер ['triler]	<i>Thriller</i>
10. Парламент [par'lament]	<i>Parliament</i>
11. Опозиція [opo'zytsia]	<i>Opposition</i>
12. Шейпінг ['feiping]	<i>Shaping</i>
13. Комп'ютер ['kompiuter]	<i>Computer</i>
14. Республіка [res'publica]	<i>Republic</i>
15. Мітинг ['mityng]	<i>Meeting</i>
16. Будівельник [budi'velnyk]	<i>Builder</i>
17. Співати [spi'vaty]	<i>To sing</i>
18. В'язниця [viaz'nutsia]	<i>prison</i>
19. Буряк [buri'ak]	<i>Beetroot</i>
20. Бухгалтер [bu'galter]	<i>Accountant</i>
21. Moral [mo'ral]	<i>Moral</i>
22. Eternidade [iterni'dadə]	<i>Eternity</i>
23. Feminismo [feme'nizmu]	<i>Feminism</i>
24. Dentista [den'tiʃta]	<i>Dentist</i>
25. Turista [tu'riʃta]	<i>Tourist</i>
26. Paciência [pasiensia]	<i>Patience</i>
27. Favor [fa'vor]	<i>Favor</i>
28. Adjectivo [adze'tivu]	<i>Adjective</i>
29. Agente [a'zentə]	<i>Agent</i>
30. Anomalia [anoma'lia]	<i>Anomaly</i>
31. Vívido [vi'vidu]	<i>vivid</i>
32. Condição [kondi'sao]	<i>Condition</i>
33. Dialeto [dia'letu]	<i>Dialect</i>

34.Erro ['ero]	<i>Error</i>
35.Evento [i'ventu]	<i>Event</i>
36.Gaveta[ga'veta]	<i>Drawer</i>
37.Ameixa[a'meifã]	<i>Plum</i>
38.Alface[al'fasə]	<i>Lettuce</i>
39.Cavalo[ka'valu]	<i>Horse</i>
40.Cortar[kor'tar]	<i>Cut</i>

APPENDIX 7: Type II-Task 1(a)

1. Annual – anual
2. Battery – bateria
3. Cause – causar
4. Direction – direção
5. Figure – figura
6. Photocopy – fotocópia
7. Phrase – frase
8. Equal – igual
9. Moment – momento
10. Plastic – plástico
11. Transport – транспорт
12. Toilet – туалет
13. Client – клієнт
14. Provider – провайдер
15. Printer – принтер
16. Producer – продюсер
17. Match – матч
18. Jazz – джаз
19. Realtor – ріелтор
20. Remake – рімейк

APPENDIX 8: Type II-Task 1(b)

1. Garbage – сміття
2. Wasteful – шкідливий
3. Squirrel – білка
4. Scornful – зневажливий
5. Database – база даних
6. Obey – коритися
7. Crew – команда
8. Bribe – хабар
9. Beetroot – буряк
10. Reckon - покладатися
11. Lyrics – letras
12. Mustache – bigode
13. Wheat – trigo
14. Complain – queixar-se
15. Cradle – berço
16. Fireman - bombeiro
17. Climb – subir
18. Reply – responder
19. Foster – alimentar
20. Peaceful – pacífico

APPENDIX 9: Useful Web Sites for Teaching Vocabulary

1. Teaching Vocabulary: Two Dozen Tips and Techniques;
<[http://people.bu.edu/jpettigra/Articles and Presentations/Vocabulary.htm](http://people.bu.edu/jpettigra/Articles_and_Presentations/Vocabulary.htm)>
2. Teaching English language vocabulary: eslflowwebguide;
<www.eslflow.com/vocabularylessonplans.html>
3. Teaching Vocabulary: Reading Rockets;
<<http://www.readingrockets.org/article/9943/>>
4. Teaching Vocabulary – 1;
<<http://www.mansioningles.com/profesores06.htm>>
5. Vocabulary Development;
<<http://www.colorincolorado.org/educators/teaching/vocabulary/>>
6. Teaching Vocabulary–Pinterest;
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