

provision throughout primary and secondary schools, only modest staffing increases have been forthcoming. Bearing in mind the high level of parental support for Manx in schools, it is essential that the IOM Government, through DoE, makes a commitment to ensuring that the teaching of Manx in Manx schools is given a higher priority.

While the current DoE programme is providing an invaluable service in terms of promotion and understanding of Manx Gaelic, it is unlikely that it will produce many, if any, fluent Manx speakers. Through the significant work of Moinjer Veggey, a growing number of parents wish to send their children to a Manx medium primary unit, where their children would be taught through the medium of Manx Gaelic. A new organisation 'Parents for Gaelic Medium Education' has been lobbying the DoE for the establishment of such a unit with the parents of over 20 children committed to, or very interested in sending their children to a Manx Gaelic Medium Unit (MGMU).

In similar units in Scotland, children become fluent understanders of Gaelic in their first year in the unit and rapidly become competent speakers thereafter. The effect of just 10 years operation of a fairly small MG MU would be to yield up to 80 fluent Manx speaking children - at least 12 times the number of children who became fluent in the last 10 years.

Such children would be the teachers, writers, playgroup leaders, etc.. of the future and would ensure the long term survival of Manx. If we are to achieve this reproductively significant number of fluent Manx speaking children, then the DoE must support the establishment of this unit.

Moinjer Veggey – Moinjer Veggey currently operates at four different locations throughout the island, has over 60 children registered and employs 15 members of staff. Moinjer Veggey shows clearly how Manx medium education is successful and has parental support, as well as demonstrating the potential economic and social development which can be achieved through Manx Gaelic based initiatives.

Moinjer Veggey currently relies on very high levels of voluntary work from its committee and staff to ensure its success. Recent expansion of the group could lead to an undermining of Moinjer Veggey's achievements so far, unless paid administrative and development workers are employed by the group. Moinjer Veggey has been lucky to receive funding from MHF and DoE, however, this support is very small when compared with the funding available to similar groups in Scotland and Wales. Guaranteed funding for general preschool work as well as higher levels of specific Gaelic grants for preschool education is essential if Moinjer Veggey is to achieve its full potential.

General – There remains considerable scope for development and expansion in the voluntary sector in terms of adult education. We desperately need more courses for teaching Manx, particularly intensive and immersion courses, and a centrally based comprehensive resource centre housing all currently available material would reduce the amount of time wasted in producing resources which already exist. Yn Cheshaght Ghailckagh and/or Caarjyn ny Gaelgey must work in conjunction with Government agencies to ensure that these important issues are addressed.

Economic Development

In trying to win the argument for greater support and development of Manx Gaelic, the ways in which the language can be used to bring medium to long term economic benefits to Mann are of fundamental importance. Use of Manx in cultural tourism, the work of MNH, in business as a 'branding' tool, and the increasing need for adequate support services for education and fluent speakers (including publishing, broadcasting and IT) will generate new employment and small business opportunities.

Media, arts and culture

To understand the significance of Manx it must be clearly identified at the heart of our native culture. If people are to be drawn to Manx Gaelic it must be demonstrably an essential element of contemporary culture and artistic life in Mann. Language planners use the promotion and development of cultures associated with minority languages as an invaluable way of reestablishing links between communities and their disregarded languages. We will use similar methods to promote better access to, and understanding of Manx Gaelic through folklore, music, literature (including Manx-English) and the arts.

The use of Manx in broadcasting, publishing, festivals and other promotional events has been increasing in recent years. The second development officer, suggested earlier in this paper, would have responsibility for ensuring that the growth in these areas would continue, providing an improving service for fluent speakers and learners.

Social and Political Development

It is important that a greater understanding of the roles which Manx can play, socially and politically be promoted in the Isle of Man. Manx certainly can be, and indeed is already being, used as a branding tool both inside and outside the Isle of Man. For example it is harder for a monoglot English speaking offshore island with no culture to speak of to defend its semi-independent political status, than it is for an island with its own strong language, culture and heritage. While this is a fairly clear cut matter to the 'Gaelophile' it is perhaps the most difficult area to convince the cynic as the arguments are less clear cut and often more subjective than objective.

An example of this difficulty is shown by the following : a Manxman who argues strongly that he can be truly Manx without Manx Gaelic has as valid a case as another Manxman, or a new resident for that matter, who argues the opposite. There is no clear answer here as both are right in their own context, however, to many Manx residents (99.9% of respondents to my survey of Manx speakers and learners) the belief that Manx Gaelic is an essential part of Manx identity, is fundamental to their support of the language.

That said the potential roles for Manx in this area include continuing to strengthen community and political identity, building links with Celtic neighbours and other minority language regions in Europe and helping to build greater political, social and cultural awareness in Mann. This area builds on the work already being done by MNH to bring cohesion to our collective understanding of what the Isle of Man and its people are and where we have come from, as well as indicating how this can be used beneficially in the future.

Concluding remarks

The writing of this Integrated Development Programme has provided an opportunity to secure the future of Manx Gaelic whose declining fortunes are only just beginning to be reversed. An important theme throughout the programme is that the development of Manx Gaelic is not purely a linguistic matter, but a highly relevant, contemporary, cultural issue. I have not attempted to draw up a programme to restore the language to its ancient form, but rather tried to create the conditions which will nurture a vibrant, 'relevant' language which can be used for the social, political, cultural and economic benefit of the Isle of Man.

On Simplifying the Lexical Tagging of Cornish Texts

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Abstract

Work has begun on a new computer-aided analysis of the Cornish texts, using *Kernewek Kemmyn* as a standard comparison instead of Unified Cornish. Suffixed and mutated words need to be related to a head-word, but instead of tagging every such word, they are identified using the principles of relational data-bases; only homographs in the standard text need be tagged. Details of this labour-saving procedure are given.

Introduction

In the discussion about the CELT project at XI-ICCS in Cork in 1999, the remark was made that metatextual grammatical tags had been added to scarcely any Celtic texts, because of the volume of work involved. The work may be prohibitively onerous for syntactic tagging, but for lexical tagging it is not. The labour may be much reduced, because there is no need to tag every mutated or suffixed word in a text. Instead, only the homographs need to be tagged, to differentiate them, and recourse may be had to the principles of relational databases to deal with the rest of the exercise.

Cornish was spoken traditionally as a vernacular until the end of the eighteenth century, and was revived in the twentieth century. The first computer-aided analysis of traditional Cornish texts was carried out by the present author (George, 1988), resulting in a large data-base, used primarily in order to study the phonological history of Cornish (George, 1984). Because the spelling of traditional Cornish was not fixed, it was helpful to have a standardized orthography to which the textual spellings could be related. Nance's Unified Cornish (1929) was used for this purpose; the analysis showed, however, that Unified Cornish could be improved (George, 1986), and a new orthography, known as *Kernewek Kemmyn*, was introduced to replace it.

The data-base was later used in the compilation of a new dictionary using *Kernewek Kemmyn* (George, 1993). In this dictionary, a tripartite authentication code was devised and given for each head-word. This included an indication of where and how often a given head-word was attested. It was the first time that such detailed information had been provided in a Cornish dictionary, and the idea received widespread acclaim. Nevertheless, the authentication codes were not always complete or correct, as pointed out by Edwards (1999). The relevant files have been edited in order to improve the authentication codes, in anticipation of a new edition of the dictionary. Rather than continue with this piecemeal approach, however, the time has come to carry out another detailed analysis of the texts.

Nessa Tremem – a new analysis of the Cornish texts

The new computer-aided analysis is known as *Nessa Tremem* ‘Second Pass’, the first pass being the analysis carried out in the early 1980s. George (1988) noted that “If the work were to be done again, it would be better to use a phonemic orthography as a comparison standard”. *Kernewek Kemmyn* is not completely phonemic, but is much more so than Unified Cornish. Dunbar and George (1997, p. 11) described the idea of *Nessa Tremem* as “using an iterative technique to produce an ever more accurate solution”.

Since the first analysis, computers have become much more powerful, large and common. Whereas it was previously necessary to process texts line by line, reading and writing data sequentially to work-files, it is now possible to read the entire extant corpus of traditional Cornish (< 2 MByte) into memory. A new suite of more efficient programs (in FORTRAN) is being developed to process the data. Another improvement is the more judicious arrangement of the texts into blocks; e.g. the Ordinalia are separated into their three separate plays, because they were written by different scribes.

In the texts, words are spelled in variable orthographies; they may show initial mutation; nouns may show plural or singular suffixes, and verbs may be conjugated. In a dictionary, words are in a fixed orthography, and words with suffixes, if shown at all, are attached to a head-word. A key aspect of *Nessa Tremem* is the reduction of the words in traditional Cornish texts to a form suitable for publication in a dictionary. The process may be divided into three steps, from level 5 to level 2 in the following table:

<i>LEVEL</i>		<i>EXAMPLES</i>
1	ROOTS	
	determine the morphology	
2	HEAD-WORDS	<i>kemmeres</i> ‘to take’
	split into head-word and suffixes	
3	UNMUTATED TEXT	<i>kemmeras</i> ‘he/she/it took’
	remove initial mutations	
4	STANDARD TEXT	<i>gemmeras</i>
	put the word into <i>Kernewek Kemmyn</i>	
5	ORIGINAL TEXT	<i>gemas, gemerays,</i> <i>gomas, etc.</i>

Although there are no plans at present to go above level 2 in *Nessa Tremem*, it would be possible to go one stage further, and split words into their constituent morphemes (level 1).

Original text

Andrew Hawke kindly provided the author with computer-readable forms of most of the Cornish texts in their original spelling. After completing the corpus, reference numbers were added to all the lines (about 18000 of them). As an example, the following is the opening stanza of *Beunans Meriasek*, written by Radulphus Ton in 1504, with a literal translation into English appended.

BM.0001	me yw gylwys duk bryten /	I am called the Duke of Brittany,
BM.0002	ha seufs a goys ryel /	and risen from royal blood,
BM.0003	ha war an gwlascur cheften /	and a ruler in the kingdom,
BM.0004	nessa 3en myterne vhell /	second to the high king,
BM.0005	kyng conany /	King Conan;
BM.0006	aye lynneth purwyr y thof /	I am very truly of his lineage,
BM.0007	gwarthevyas war gvyls ha dof /	master over wild and tame,
BM.0008	doutis yn mysk arly3y /	feared among lords.

Standard text in *Kernewek Kemmyn*

The first problem is that the orthography is not fixed. This is not obvious from the eight lines shown here, but becomes so on reading a larger sample; e.g. for 'to the', Ton sometimes wrote *3en* (as here), and at other times *then*. Each word therefore needs to be referred in the first instance to the equivalent word in a standardized orthography. A double file was therefore made of each block of text, with the original text (level 5) on the left and the standard text in *Kernewek Kemmyn* (level 4) on the right. At the time of writing, not all blocks have yet been finished. The author is indebted to Keith Syed for making available versions of texts in *Kernewek Kemmyn*.

BM.0001	me yw gylwys duk bryten /	My yw gelwys Dug Breten,
BM.0002	ha seufs a goys ryel /	ha sevys a woes ryal,
BM.0003	ha war an gwlascur cheften /	ha war an wlaskor chyften;
BM.0004	nessa 3en myterne vhell /	nessa dhe'n myghtern ughel
BM.0005	kyng conany /	King Konani:
BM.0006	aye lynneth pur~wyr y+th~of /	a'y linyeth pur wir yth ov,
BM.0007	gwarthevyas war gvyls ha dof /	gwarthevyas war wyls ha dov,
BM.0008	doutis yn mysk arly3y /	doutys yn mysk arlydhi.

Since the division of words is not always the same in both versions, the original text has been marked so as to correspond to the text in *Kernewek Kemmyn*. The marker ~ is used to split a word, and the marker + is used to join two words. Thus the three words *purwyr y thof* is rewritten as *pur~wyr y+th~of*, so that the division and number of words corresponds to the four words *pur wir yth ov* in the standard text. The other modification made at this stage is to remove all punctuation and most capitalization from the standard text, giving the following:

BM.0001	me yw gylwys duk bryten /	my yw gelwys dug Breten
BM.0002	ha seufs a goys ryel /	ha sevys a woes ryal
BM.0003	ha war an gwlascur cheften /	ha war an wlaskor chyften
BM.0004	nessa 3en myterne vhell /	nessa dhe'n myghtern ughel
BM.0005	kyng conany /	king Konani
BM.0006	aye lynneth pur~wyr y+th~of /	a'y linyeth pur wir yth ov
BM.0007	gwarthevyas war gvyls ha dof /	gwarthevyas war wyls ha dov
BM.0008	doutis yn mysk arly3y /	doutys yn mysk arlydhi

Direct lexical tagging

Direct lexical tagging would involve adding markers or tags to all words in the standard text which are not in the form of a head-word, to reduce them from level 4 to level 2. This process might produce a text like the following:

```
BM.0001 my bos>S13 gelwel>PP dug Breten
BM.0002 ha sevel>PP a{of} 2<goes ryal
BM.0003 ha war an 2<gwaskor chyften
BM.0004 nes>CP dhe'n myghtern ughel
BM.0005 %king Konani
BM.0006 a'y{of his} linyeth pur wyr yth bos>S11
BM.0007 gwartheyvas war 2gwyls ha dov
BM.0008 doutya>PP yn mysk arloedh>PL
```

Here words with suffixes have been replaced by the appropriate head-word, followed by the symbol > and a code to denote the form of the suffix; words with initial mutation have been replaced by the root form, preceded by a number indicating the type of mutation and the symbol <; and homographs have been distinguished by putting the English meaning after the word in curly brackets. In addition, the word *king* has been marked by the symbol %, denoting an unassimilated English word.

The more efficient alternative to direct lexical tagging

It is clear that to add lexical tags like these to the whole corpus would be a time-consuming task. Fortunately, there is no need to go down this road. The alternative, which involves much less labour, is to tag just the homographs. When these tags are included, the stanza becomes:

```
BM.0001 me yw gylwys duk bryten /          my yw gelwys dug breten
BM.0002 ha seuyys a goys ryel /           ha sevys a7 woes ryal
BM.0003 ha war an gwlascur cheften /      ha war an wlascur chyften
BM.0004 nessa 3en myterne vhell /        nessa dhe'n myghtern ughel
BM.0005 kyng conany /                     %king konani
BM.0006 aye lynneth pur-wyr y+th~of /     a'y2 linyeth pur wir yth ov
BM.0007 gwartheyvas war gvyys ha dof /    gwartheyvas war wyls ha dov
BM.0008 doutis yn mysk arly3y /           doutys yn mysk arlydhi
```

The only two words which have been tagged are *a* and *a'y*. Cornish has several words spelled *a*, here distinguished by numerical tags: *a0* 'O' (vocative, causing lenition); *a1* 'ah' (no mutation); *a2* (verbal particle); *a4* 'if' (causing provection); *a6* 'goes'; *a7* 'of'. The phrase *a'y* can mean 'of his' or 'of her', these being distinguished respectively by the numerical tags 2 and 3 (because these are the numbers referring to the mutations which they provoke).

In order to relate level 4 to level 2, it is necessary to set up a file which lists every different word at level 4. For this file unmutated and mutated forms (e.g. *penn* 'head', its lenited form *benn* and its spirantized form *fenn*) are listed separately. The file is known, rather prescriptively, as LAW.TXT (i.e. List of Allowable Words). The following small extract includes the word *gelwys* 'called', which appears in the stanza from *Beunans Meriasek*.

2	gelmi	hm			2kelmi	
7	gelwel	H	VN		gelwel	***
1	gelwes	d	73	OM.2774	gelwel	
2	gelwir	d	18		gelwel	
1	gelwis1	d	31	RD.0271	gelwel	
1	gelwis3	d	33	BM.4428	gelwel	
27	gelwys	H	AJ		gelwys	***
7	gemmer	dm	13		2kemmeres	
1	gemmera'	dmv	11	OM.1208	2kemmeres	
6	gemmeras	dm	33		2kemmeres	
1	gemmerav	dm	11	OM.1234	2kemmeres	
9	gemmeres	hm			2kemmeres	

The present state of the file is by no means definitive, since not all of the corpus has been processed. The extract does, however, give an indication of the methodology used. The columns represent, from left to right:

- the number of occurrences of the level 4 word (incomplete at present);
- the level 4 word, as it appears in the standard text, with tagging for homographs;
- a three-letter code denoting the status of the level 4 word:
e.g. H = head-word, hm = mutated head-word, d = derivative, v = variant;
- a two-character grammatical code:
e.g. VN = verbal noun, AJ = adjective, 11 = 1st person singular present indicative
- the line-number of *hapax legomena* (because the file is not yet complete, some may be false)
- the level 2 word, preceded where appropriate by a number denoting initial mutation:
2 = lenition, 3 = spirantization, 4 = provection, 5 = mixed (as in text-books); here <g-> represents lenited /k-/ as well as /g-/.
- for the head-words, up to three stars showing in which edition of the dictionary the word will appear.

In this small extract, the following are noteworthy:

- The word *gelwis* is ambiguous, since it can mean 'I called' or 'he/she/it called'; it is therefore necessary to append a tag; here the numbers 1 and 3 are used respectively.
- Although the word *gelwys* 'called' is the past participle of *gelwel* 'to call', it is treated in the dictionary as a head-word and an adjective.
- The phrase *ny gemere* (level 5) found at *OM.1208* means 'I take not'; it is a variant of the lenited form of the 1st singular present indicative of *kemmeres* 'to take', the variation being occasioned by the loss of [-v].

There is no need to tag every occurrence of each suffixed word; instead, the referencing of such words to the relevant head-word is done in the file LAW.TXT. For instance, instead of separately tagging the six instances of *gemmeras*, the referencing of this word to its head-form *kemmeres* is done once and once only. This idea, which is used in relational data-bases, saves work. Should it be nevertheless be desired to append lexical tags to each suffixed word, then software could be written to do this by machine.

Conclusion

A new computer-aided analysis of the Cornish texts, known as *Nessa Tremen*, will use *Kernewek Kemmyn* as a standard orthography for comparison. In relating individual words in the texts to the appropriate head-forms in a dictionary, it will not be necessary to add lexical tags to every mutated or suffixed word. Instead, the principle of relational data-bases is used, with purpose-written programs. This reduces the work-load considerably.

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Welsh Intensive Language Learning Centres

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Abstract

There has been much controversy about Intensive Language Learning Centres over the past twenty years. Whilst they have fallen out of favour in England, they have continued to receive support in many areas of Wales. This short article explores the reasons for this apparent success.

During the nineteen sixties and seventies Intensive Language Learning Centres were set up in English conurbations (Coventry, Bradford, etc.) to meet the challenges posed by an influx of new in-migrants. The Language Centre was therefore the most common provision encountered by the Bullock Commission (1975). Bullock, himself believed that no ordinary school was equipped to meet the challenge – specialist language teaching being crucial to ensure success. Language acquisition was too important to be left to chance.

The report however conceded that there were weaknesses. For example, pupils could lose both academic and social contact with their ordinary day school and a retreat could be unsettling for in-migrant children. The same concerns were voiced in a Welsh Language context. For example, in a hitherto unpublished survey of parental opinion, the fact 'that all primary schools don't have their own Welsh Language' was often regretted. And whilst conceding that attending a Centre could be a holiday for some, for others 'it was rather unsettling to have so many changes of school in quick succession...'. But to the more pragmatic, although 'ideally... the centre should be local', ... 'that would be impossible'. Bullock was also concerned about methodology fearing a disparity between the Centres and mainstream teaching. The work of the centre could appear to occur 'in complete isolation from the child's school, and ... his other teachers, including his head, may be unaware of what he is learning and of the methods used to teach him'. Other facets to the same problem were continuation and progression which are especially crucial in the field of language learning. The alternative view is that 'special language teaching is unnecessary', and 'that the children will pick up English' without much assistance.

Bullock's (1975) final conclusion was a compromise – an 'arrangement ... where the immigrant children [we]re not cut off from the social and educational life of a normal school' (t. 289) but given linguistic assistance and support by specialist teachers. It was an arrangement that quickly found favour in the light of experience. Over time, specialist teachers drifted from the Centres to ordinary schools – to sit in on classes, analyse pupil

needs, and strengthen the provision. This undoubtedly was their role in the Swann Report: *Education for All* (1985). The CRE Report: *Teaching English as a Second Language* (1986), also argued strongly for integration and against any concentration in Language Centres. Not only did it believe the arrangement to be uneducational but surmised that it might even be transgressing the Race Relations Act (1976).

But having such ideals and realising them are two different things. For example, in the *Survey of the Teaching of English as a Second Language*, (DES,1988) it was observed that the Swann ideal 'was rarely observed in practice and demanded careful planning and organisation, genuine co-operation and frequent review and evaluation to be effective'. Even where first and second language learners were taught together, with a language specialist available to provide guidance and support, 'advice on ways of providing this support in the classroom remain[ed] vague at national and local levels' (*Bilingual Pupils Project* : NFER 1985/88). But despite such failings Intensive Language Centres were replaced in England by mainstream provision.

Several factors underpin and explain the English position. Firstly, the second language being taught in the Centres was the majority language. It was also being learnt within an **additive** context. Secondly, the target language pupils were rarely acquainted with the learners mother tongue and could not therefore offer assistance when conversations lapsed. Thirdly, the schools under review were mostly urban with a staffing capacity that could assimilate specialist language staff. In a converse situation, such as Wales, it is easy to understand the attraction of the Language Centres. The context is **subtractive**, the target language pupils can speak the learner's mother tongue, and the schools are mostly rural with a staffing shortage. In such a context in-migrants would have a much more significant impact on the teaching situation. The following teacher comment captures the mood:

Already many of our country schools, as a result of the in-migration, have been turned into English-medium schools. By now the threat has come to the most Welsh areas of the county ... and there is great danger that these areas will also deteriorate ... The headmasters foresee that things can only get worse during the next few years with more and more non-Welsh speakers moving into their districts.

It was in such circumstances that the Welsh Intensive Language Centres of Wales (Canolfan[nau] Iaith) were established. The first of these was established in 1984 at Caernarfon 'on the pattern of similar Centres ... on mainland Europe' (Gwynedd Report, 1989). But nowhere is the exact model adequately identified. Other centres followed, scattered throughout Wales, for similar reasons. The system briefly works in the following way. When in-migrants first visit a school, both pupil and parents are interviewed by the school's headmaster. Their attention is immediately drawn to the language of the school, the working language being Welsh in many areas. The pupil is then offered a free intensive language course in order to be able to participate. Each centre (in the main an adjunct to an ordinary school) is normally staffed by two language specialists, and has a teacher/pupil ratio of 10/12:1. Their task is to teach the pupils enough language, in ten weeks, to enable them to join the Welsh-medium mainstream of ordinary schools. Attendance at each centre is entirely voluntary. During his/her stay at the Centre, to maintain contact, the pupil will periodically visit the future mainstream school. Contrary to the English experience, the Language Centres

of Wales have retained their widespread support. The remainder of the article explores why this is so.

In a study, conducted during the nineties, the Centres were found on the whole to be highly efficient and the attitudes of both teachers, pupils and parents towards them favourable. Teachers maintained that

'The Centres have been a blessing that cannot be over-emphasised especially in the small schools. Since they were established I don't get any English speaking kids in my school. What I get are new children from London and Birmingham who can speak quite good Welsh. Without the Centres I doubt whether I would have the time to give them enough attention ...'

The same attitude was often echoed in the parental and pupil responses:

'It has already been of advantage in our small Welsh-speaking community'. 'My child now employs Welsh as a medium of communication with local children'. 'I can see only a positive result from the experience. It appears easier for them to communicate and understand what is said at local events, e.g. plays, pantos, etc.' 'I feel that my children will benefit from knowing Welsh as we are living in a very Welsh community' (parents). 'Mr X kept on making us laugh and things like that ...'; 'it was good ... the teachers ... playing games and things ...'; 'The way they taught Welsh it was easy to understand and it was enjoyable ...'; 'It was brilliant' (pupils).

Another contributor to the success was the learning atmosphere. Charles A. Curran (Blair:1982) found that all learners considered language learning to be intimidating, describing their 'complex personal involvements' in 'counselling interview' terms. The most common problems were: a feeling of 'personal threat'; anxiety, 'personal confusion' and 'emotional conflicts'; a feeling of insecurity and inadequacy; a feeling of frustration; a feeling of not belonging; and boredom. Constant efforts were made in the Centres to minimise such 'problems'. The chief instrument of any success was the language teacher. It was he/she who ensured that the teaching conditions were right. All manner of strategies were used to allay pupil fears, the aim, at all times, being to create a relaxing classroom atmosphere:

The first thing I do during the first week is to ensure that they like it here ... that they don't come here because they are learning Welsh. They come here because they like it here.

Parental comments again provide corroborative evidence. According to one, the centres thrived, because the pupils felt so much 'at home', whilst the fact that the learning regularly occurred 'in a non-threatening way' was cited by another. Yet another thanked the teachers 'for their sympathetic... approach'. The pupils again endorsed the parental view, stressing the fact that they got much 'more attention in learning Welsh'. The centre was also 'friendlier than an ordinary school'. One pupil thought that her centre was:

More peaceful than where I've come from, it's lovely ... From the word go I thought, this is going to be a lovely school ... I'd love to stay here. It's a lovely school, and we have nice teachers, and I like it.

The main ingredient seemed to be the warm teacher/pupil relationship, the essence of which is summarised in the following statements:

We have to be big kids don't we, because when these children go back to their own schools we hope that they will be able to play in Welsh in the school yard and be able to live their life fully in Welsh. And if that is the case they want someone to practise on don't they?

The relationship is a close one. They are allowed to say 'You're old', 'you're silly', 'you're ugly' to us and after about four weeks some sometimes tend to go over the top. But, we are willing to suffer because they receive so much benefit from it.

In other responses, the teacher is sometimes compared to a 'sister', or a 'mother' and, at other times, to a research 'companion' or 'friend'. This inevitably affects the nature of the experience, leading to much less conscious learning than occurred in the past. In the words of one teacher; 'A mother never tells a child – "now we're going to learn", she merely lets the learning happen naturally'.

The pupils were also individually linguistically engaged, teachers knowing when to be tolerant and when to be demanding:

When a child is dying to tell me something – being ill or hurt – he will use his first language naturally. I'm not the kind of person who insists, when someone has broken his arm that he informs me in Welsh!

Pupils were often urged into expression with the words 'try to say it again'. But the basis of the relationship was the praise that each endeavour elicited – 'very good'; 'excellent'; 'clever'; 'thank you very much' – and the smiles that greeted all manner of communicative attempts.

The relationship was also manifest in gentle teasing that was a daily leavening occurrence in the Canolfannau Iaith. It was referred to by one teacher as:

... teasing and joking all day every day, from the minute they come here for the first time to the time they go to the taxis on the last day of term, and the kids love it because **they** are the centre of attention in such activities, **they** are the important ones.

Teasing was even used when monitoring language. Teacher attitudes to the mother tongue are obviously crucial and can profoundly affect the pupil/teacher relationship. The perennial dilemma is condensed in the following statements:

I don't want to speak too much English with them ... or they will expect me to speak English with them all the time.

Some teachers think that they are kind to the children when they speak English to them ... but they're not.

The extremes are over and underuse of the mother tongue and the consequence of both (according to the centres) is usually failure. In the former the second language is seldom used ; in the latter the pupils are often linguistically overwhelmed. Neither is it easy to strike a balance between the extremes, the aim being to be quite firm but not overbearing. This, in essence, was the policy in the language centres. Early on, English was often used as an explanatory tool but, even then, the activities were conducted in the second tongue. The first tongue was only used when all else failed. The extent to which it was used depended entirely on such factors as – the nature of the children, their background, linguistic abilities, nature of the work, etc. As time went on, proceedings would increasingly occur in the second language, being eventually jointly monitored by pupils and teachers , the former sometimes even mimicking teacher admonitions. In a different atmosphere such conduct could very easily produce negative results.

Joviality is not a feature that is easily time tabled its spontaneous nature being conveyed by the following event. One wet day, the children of a centre stayed in to play. But during the break they were seen to be eavesdropping on adult conversation. This was used by the language teachers for their own ends. They started talking willy nilly about imaginary friends whilst at the same time asking the pupils to cease eavesdropping! In the 'story' one of the teachers was having a relationship with a superstore girl whose antics on a daily basis became more colourful. One day she had soundly punched a bully at work, and bitten an astonished co-worker on another occasion – the linguistic boundaries being extended in the wake of the tales. In the words of one teacher 'When you come to think about it, we learn a great deal of our language whilst listening to talk. The attraction of listening to the forbidden was an added incentive'.

Such banter also performed another role. Cummins (1981) divides language learning into (i) the Basic Interpersonal Communicative Stage (BICS) and (ii) that of acquiring Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). Both stages are equally important and essentially sequential. Rushing through BICS can serve to weaken our grasp on CALP; over-concentrating on CALP can weaken our interpersonal communicative skills. The results are learners who are often uncomfortable in both. The Welsh Centres believed they could be developed simultaneously the competencies being 'evolving, dynamic, interacting and intricate' (Baker: 1996). The result was a much fuller and more balanced linguistic product.

Another facet of the learning atmosphere was the language support – which was to be seen within the classrooms in many guises. Faced with doubt, the learner inevitably turns to his mother tongue. He will only avoid such a course if given a lifeline. This was why the Centres taught – the incidental language of the class, the language of enquiry, the language of problem solving, – What is the Welsh word for ...? How do you say ... in Welsh? May I have a rubber, Miss? May I go to the toilet, etc. The aim was to ensure that the first language did not unduly impinge on the learning atmosphere.

Classroom walls were also decked with supportive material: charts; strips containing the main constructions in daily use (May I ...?; Excuse me ...; I don't know how to ...; Will you help me? How do you say ...?; How do you spell ...?; I've finished, etc.); the basic vocabulary

of various fields (clothes; colours; the body; time – day's of the week, the months of the year, the weather; the key words of a theme, etc.) and a variety of songs. Early in the 'course', eyes would frequently scan the room for visual assistance, but as time progressed, the walls began to be merely a means of display.

Support could also be offered by curricular choice. For example, the first unit of many programmes was a visit to the Zoo, primarily because the context was rich in cognates. The situation was chosen 'because much of the vocabulary is already familiar to the children, i.e. similar to English. It will therefore be possible to focus on learning the structures'. Many centres also extensively made use of sport, because it 'lends itself, like science, to repetition and the patterning of language'. At times too a taught structure would be underpinned with actions or 'experience'.

The main strength of the Centres was the balance that was kept between freedom and licence. There was also a balance to be seen between stimulation and support. The sensitive nature of the interaction is exemplified below. The words in bold are the meanings being taught by the Welsh language teacher (T). 'P' is used to denote pupil contributions:

- T: Look at these counters. I call these 'glas' (**blue**), not glass as in the windows, but 'glaaaas'.
- P: Glaaas.
- T: Let's see, these are 'melyn' (**yellow**) ones (taking them out one by one) melyn, melyn, melyn, etc. Are you helping me?
- P: melyn, melyn, melyn, etc.
- T: (Pointing to other counters) What do I call them?
- P: Orange.
- T: Ie (**yes**), oren (**orange**). Oren, oren, helpwch fi (**help me**).
- P: Oren, oren, oren, etc.
- T: Which ones am I going to start with?
- P: Melyn.
- T: (Counting the yellow ones, and placing them on the table. Drawing attention to the numbers on the wall) Un ...(**one**)
- P: Un.
- T: Dau (**two**).
- P: Dau.
- T: You can say it better than me. Bendigedig! (**wonderful**). (puts another one on the table): tri, (**three**) the same sound as tree.
- P: Tri
- T: Faint, is – how many? Faint? (taking one away).
- P: Dau
- T: Faint? (taking two off).
- P: Un.
- T: Faint (putting two counters back)
- P: Tri.

Using the yellow counters, the teacher then introduced the numbers up to nine:

T: 'Naw' (**nine**) is a special figure. If you add another 'melyn' to it, it becomes a 'glas' one. So 'glas' is 'deg' ten.

Two columns were then created on the table, a blue counter being placed in one, yellow counters in the other. In this way the pupils were taught the numbers eleven, twelve, etc. The teacher then briskly continued until he reached a hundred. The word for hundred was then taught and two hundred, three hundred, etc. By now there were three columns. Three dices were now being thrown to get combinations one of which was the number 632.

T: What are you going to call that now?

P: Chwech cant tri deg a dau...
(One dice was accidentally dropped on the floor).

P: O, bechod! (**O, what a shame**).

The next step was to lessen dependence on the mother tongue, by providing them with an activity **with which they could cope**. It developed into a lively pupil/teacher competition. There followed a competition between the pupils themselves. The aim of the game was to obtain the highest number which they could correctly name. What is of interest is that the teacher, although introducing mathematical concepts, seized upon every second language opportunity, stepping back into the first language only when there was no other choice.

The use of the second language was quite deliberate based on an acceptable but clearly defined pupil/teacher relationship. It was never an arbitrary sop to the language learner. Its basis was the notion that the teacher is the embodiment of the second language ('When they deal with us and when we are engaged in an activity with them, the language is Welsh'), and the knowledge that help would be forthcoming should a problem occur. It should also be stressed that as the **'lesson'** progressed the learning increasingly occurred in the second language. The same could also be said in relation to the **term**.

The main ingredients of success may be summarised as follows – a non-threatening learning atmosphere; the setting of clear, attainable targets; clarity of presentation; sensitive teacher support; engaging and interesting activities. But as always they are better captured in a pupil response: 'The way they taught Welsh it was easy to understand and it was enjoyable ... and each day you knew a little bit more Welsh and you could sort of measure your progress ...'

Developing a Welsh Terminology Dictionary

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Abstract

This paper describes the background and principles used in the development of the Welsh language *Y Termiadur Ysgol* (School Terminology Dictionary). Linguistic and computational issues are discussed and the way in which objective criteria were used to resolve some problems are analyzed.

Introduction

In 1998 *Y Termiadur Ysgol* (Prys and Jones) was published by the Qualifications, Curriculum, and Assessment Authority for Wales (the statutory curriculum authority in Wales and usually referred to by its Welsh acronym: ACCAC). *Y Termiadur Ysgol* is a Welsh>English and English>Welsh terminological dictionary covering all school subjects and it includes about 35000 entries in both languages. These are the terms that are recommended by ACCAC for use in the classroom and for classroom resources and assessment materials.

Technical dictionaries to support Welsh medium teaching have been produced for many years (Prys, Jones, and ap Emllyn 1995); these have been published principally by the University of Wales Press and by the Welsh Joint Education Committee. In 1964 there was a significant publication *Geiriadur Termau* (Williams Jac L (ed)) and until recently that has been the only comprehensive technical dictionary. More recently *The Welsh Academy English-Welsh Dictionary* (Griffiths B, Jones D G, 1995) was published and this is an invaluable resource, providing wide-ranging translations of words and phrases. Nevertheless the need to standardize technical terminology, in particular to serve Welsh medium education, was identified. This article describes how that was done at the Centre for Welsh Terminology at the University of Wales, Bangor.

The need for standardization

Continuing developments

The *Geiriadur Termau* was published in 1964 and many other technical dictionaries were published more than 15 years ago, since that time there have been extensive developments in science and technology (in particular in Information and Communications Technology) and this has led to an increasing need for new terms. Also Welsh medium education has developed, not only in the extent and breadth of the subjects taught, but also subjects are

taught to a higher level in schools and colleges. This too has meant an increasing demand for standardized terminology.

Inconsistencies in terminology

Developments in Welsh technical terminology and in the vocabulary of Languages for Special Purposes (LSP) in the past have taken place in a somewhat haphazard manner. Different bodies developed terminology for their own subjects without due regard to developments in cognate disciplines. For example two words were in common use for *pressure*: these were *gwasgedd* and *pwysedd*. Both terms are acceptable conceptually and linguistically but many teachers felt that requiring pupils to use two separate labels for the same concept in different contexts (namely physics and meteorology) was unacceptable.

There were also inconsistencies in orthography. Dr Bruce Griffiths, the principal editor of *The Welsh Academy English-Welsh Dictionary* in a lecture to the National Eisteddfod (Griffiths, B 195) stated the many terminology lists were 'alive with mistakes of orthography and gender'. The rules of Welsh orthography are well established (Lewis 1987, Thomas P W 1996, Thorne 1993) but problems arose with neologisms and, in particular, with borrowings from other languages. This led to *copper sulphate* having many versions in Welsh depending on whether *copr* or *copor*, *sylffad*, *sylffat*, *swlffad* ... were used.

The lack of objective criteria

Most of the terminology lists had been developed on an ad hoc basis. Sometimes they were produced by individuals and sometimes by groups of people. The individuals and the groups had specific subject expertise and linguistic expertise but they tended to operate without objective criteria. By now there are international criteria (see below) that can be used as a basis for terminology.

Languages for special purposes

Although Welsh is well provided with general dictionaries, in particular *Geiriadur Prifysgol Cymru* and *The Welsh Academy English-Welsh Dictionary* neither gives detailed and accurate technical definitions which can be used by subject specialists.

Lack of Welsh>English terminological dictionaries

With the exception of *Geiriadur Termau* (Williams J L, 1973) most of the terminology dictionaries were English>Welsh only. This happened because most of the users, such as teachers in schools, had received their subject specific education in English and wanted to know what the Welsh versions were of terms, which were already familiar to them in English. However with the development of Welsh medium education the demand for Welsh>English dictionaries was also growing.

Modern terminology in Wales

Two policy decisions were made in the Centre for Welsh Terminology at the University of Wales, Bangor about the way in which the work would proceed. These were:

- that the work would be based, as far as possible, on objective criteria;
- to use computer based lexicographic methods.

Using Objective Criteria

The terminology criteria published by the International Organisation for Standardization (ISO) have been used as a basis for the work. Two documents in particular have proved invaluable: *Principles and methods of terminology* (ISO 704: 1987 (E)) and *Terminology work – harmonization of concepts and terms* (ISO 860: 1996(E)). The main criteria are that a term should:

- be linguistically correct;
- reflect the characteristics of the concept;
- be concise;
- be productive of other linguistic forms;
- be monosemous.

Aspects of some of these criteria are discussed below.

Linguistic correctness

There were two principal areas of work: orthography, and morphology. It was decided that *Geiriadur Prifysgol Cymru* (University of Wales Dictionary) would be used as the standard for orthography. This in turn uses the rules set out in *Orgraff yr Iaith Gymraeg* (1987). However the first parts of *Geiriadur Prifysgol Cymru* were published in 1950 and the work is as yet unfinished; consequently many of the technical words and neologisms, which have entered the language during the last 50 years, do not appear in the dictionary. The editor and staff of *Geiriadur Prifysgol Cymru* were always ready to advise us when there were problems. Some illustrations of the type of problems we encountered are described below.

Welsh spelling is generally phonetic and reflects the sound of the word more than its derivation. This can lead to problems with words borrowed from other languages, particularly Latin based and Greek based words borrowed through English. For example the English word *cytology* has been rendered in Welsh as *cytoleg* and *seitoleg*. The pronunciation of the second spelling is more readily recognisable aurally because c in Welsh is pronounced [k], whereas the first spelling is more readily recognised visually. This has been discussed by Hughes (1985) and Williams (1985). In general it was decided to use a spelling (and pronunciation), which reflects the commonly recognised English (and other widely used languages) spelling. However when a word is commonly used in everyday speech its pronunciation, and consequently its spelling is usually influenced by the English spelling rather than by the derivation and no attempt was made to change this usage; examples include *meicroffon* (=microphone), *bronceitus* (=bronchitis).

The Welsh alphabet does not include the letters k, q, v, x, and z. Nevertheless some published terminology lists contained Welsh words, which included these letters. These were usually scientific terms such as *kilogram* which translated into Welsh as *kilogram*. The rationale for this was that the international representation *kg* should reflect the spelling. This was based on the misconception that the representations were abbreviations whereas the guidance given by the *Conférence internationale du poids et mesures* indicates clearly that

representations such as *kg* as symbols and not abbreviations (McGlashan 1971, Metrication Board 1977). For this reason the Welsh spelling *cilogram* was used; similar considerations were used to determine the spelling of chemical elements such as *crypton* and *fanadiwm*. (Prys and Jones, 1994).

Other grammatical issues, such as those relating to gender and plurals, needed to be resolved. There is always conflict about what is correct or acceptable, some authorities will decree according to conservative and traditional criteria while others take a more tolerant and liberal view. The recent grammar *Gramadeg y Gymraeg* (Thomas P W, 1996) describes a 'liberal standardized' form of written Welsh and this was used as a guide to our work.

Welsh and English use plurals in different ways. A *tent exhibition* and an *exhibition of tents* in English both convey the same meaning. However in Welsh *arddangosfa pabell* and *arddangosfa pebyll* convey different meanings, *pabell* is singular and *pebyll* is plural so *arddangosfa pabell* (= *exhibition [of] tent*) implies that there is only one tent to be seen. So the translation *magnetometr proton* (for *proton magnetometer*) has been rejected in favour of *magnetometr protonau* using the plural form *protonau* rather than the singular *proton*.

Welsh nouns have two gender classes called masculine and feminine. In some instances the gender will vary with dialect, in which case both forms are accepted. This can on occasions lead to problems with compound noun phrases. For example the noun *diweddeb* (= *cadence*) can be either masculine or feminine. The gender of a noun affects the initial consonant mutation of a modifying adjective. So when *diweddeb* is combined with *perffaith* (= *perfect*) and *diweddeb* is treated as a masculine noun one gets *diweddeb perffaith*, but if it is treated as feminine one gets *diweddeb berffaith*. Listing all these varieties of noun phrases was impractical so an arbitrary decision was made to choose one of the forms while making it clear that both are acceptable. In some instances the noun's gender indicates its meaning so *de* (masculine) = *south*, and *de* (feminine) = *right (side)*.

Plurals of nouns are formed from the singular in a variety of ways (Thorne, 1993, Thomas P W, 1996); these include the addition or elimination of endings, internal vowel changes and combinations of these. For this reason it was decided that plurals would be shown fully in the dictionary. Some polysemous singular nouns have different plural forms, for example *llwyth* (= *load*) forms the plural *llwythi* (= *loads*), whereas *llwyth* (= *tribe*) gives *llwythau* (= *tribes*).

Productive forms

The well-established Welsh word for *television* is *teledu*. But if native speakers are asked for the Welsh equivalent of *televisions* or *to televise* they will have a problem and offer suggestions such as *setiau teledu* (= *television sets*) and *darlledu* (= *broadcast*). The word *teledu* is not productive of other forms. The reason is probably associated with its ending in -u; this is normally a verb-noun ending and such words do not normally form plurals. The criterion that a word should be productive was used to choose between some synonymous forms. Both *egni* and *ygni* can be used to translate *energy*, but it is easier to form an adjective (*egniol*) and a verb-noun (*egniö*) from *egni* rather than from *ygni*. Thus in a technical context *egni* is preferred, though *ygni* is perfectly acceptable in a non-technical context.

Monosemous terms and disambiguation

The fundamental principle used to standardize terminology was that the term should reflect the concept rather than reflecting the English words used to describe the concept. There are two terms used in Welsh for *database*, these are *bas data* and *cronfa ddata*. *Bas data* is a word by word rendering of the English and does little to convey the meaning whereas *cronfa ddata* (= *reservoir of data*) is more expressive and was adopted.

Termau bioleg, cemeg a gwyddor gwlad (Hughes, 1982) distinguishes between two meanings of the word *salt*. For the everyday meaning of *common salt* (chemically: sodium chloride) the word *halen* is used; but the word *halwyn* was designated to mean *salt* (= a substance formed when a metal displaces hydrogen from an acid). Similar considerations apply to the translations of the word *pole*. *Pegwn* is a well-established word used in geographical and metaphorical contexts, but the word *pôl* was also used at times and in some contexts. It was decided to retain *pôl* in a scientific context to refer to electrical and magnetic phenomena; this was done to allow concepts to be distinguished and because *pôl* is more productive of forms corresponding to *dipole*, *quadrupole*, *polarized* etc.

The terms for *speed* and *velocity* required some attention. In everyday language *speed* and *acceleration* are synonymous, but in the context of physics they are carefully distinguished. *Speed* is a scalar quantity (i.e. it is a measure of magnitude only) whereas *velocity* is a vector quantity (it is a measure of both magnitude and direction). *Acceleration* is also a vector quantity and is related mathematically to *velocity*. In order to reflect this mathematical relationship the related words *cyflymder* and *cyflymiad* were used for *velocity* and *acceleration* and the somewhat uncommon word *buanedd* was designated to mean *speed*. However in everyday speech *cyflymder* is used to mean *speed* and teachers and pupils were confused as to whether it was 'correct' to use *cyflymder* to mean *speed*. This problem was resolved by stating that the accepted translation of *speed* in general context is *cyflymder*, but if it is necessary to distinguish scalars and vectors then *buanedd* should be used. Similar issues relating the words used to translate *melt* and *dissolve* had to be resolved.

Computer based terminology

A database structure was developed which includes separate fields for the English term, the Welsh term, grammatical information, short disambiguators in both languages, and other information such as source and notes. The structure conforms to the evolving international standards for terminological databases. From the database it has been possible to produce Welsh > English and English > Welsh lists.

A major issue with the Welsh > English list was the alphabetical sorting. The Welsh alphabet uses the digraphs ch dd ff ng ll ph rh th as single letters. The digraph ch comes in between c and d and ng comes between g and h; consequently the correct alphabetical order for the following words is *cath*, *ci*, *chwaer*, *deg*. Similar considerations apply when the digraphs occur in the middle of words so the correct order for the following words is: *agos*, *angel*, *ail*, *anaf*. The situation with ng and rh is made more complex because in some words they are digraphs and in other words they represent n+g or r+h. A computer program was written to allow the output from the database to be sorted according to the usual conventions of the Welsh alphabet. As there are no simple algorithms that can be used to distinguish between ng

and n+g or rh and r+h, words including these combinations had to be listed in the sorting program.

The use of a database has also made it possible to make the resources available electronically; this has been described in more detail in another paper to this conference. (Prys and Morgan , 2000).

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Manx Gaelic: Chengey-ny-Mayrey Ellan Vannin – A Language on the Edge

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Abstract

Manx Gaelic is most often described as "the extinct or former language of the Isle of Man." Whilst it is true that the language has been pushed to the edge, Manx speakers are now determined to show the world that it has not jumped or fallen, but on the contrary, it is fighting back as a modern, living and vigorous tongue that remains the language of choice for many. However, the help and expertise of other Celtic countries is required to speed up the process.

Beyond the Edge

"Manx Gaelic passed into oblivion as a native spoken language on the 24th December 1974 with the death of Edward Maddrell, the last reputed native speaker of the language. With him an Indo-European language disappeared, the first this century, one branch less on the tree."
(1)

Such chilling words are commonplace reading for speakers of Manx Gaelic. They have heard the death knell for the language being continually sounded, not only in recent times, but also for many generations past. Today, the tolling of the bell persists in a variety of forms but mainly through a general misrepresentation of the state of the language in dictionaries, encyclopaedia, journals, reference works and even, as in the above example, on the Internet. All portray the same dark and dismal picture of Manx Gaelic - the stench of decline, decay and corruption is all-pervasive.

However, Manx speakers are not unduly surprised by this interpretation of the state of their language, indeed, they are inured to it, for the Manx language has had high profile detractors from early times. In a letter to John Wesley, the preacher George Holder expressed the desire to publish a Manx Hymn Book. In reply, Wesley wrote to him in November 1789:

"I exceedingly disapprove of your publishing anything in the Manx language. On the contrary, we should do everything in our power to abolish it from the earth, and to persuade every member of our Society to learn and talk English."
(2)

Again in 1853 an observer was apparently content to report in a guidebook describing the Island's language in the following manner:

"The Manks is now only spoken in the north-western parishes and at a few localities along the western coast, though, with few exceptions, the natives are able to converse in the English language. The services in the parish churches are given alternately in the Manks and English languages, though the Manks is not taught in any of the parochial schools; and it is very probable that in the course of the next generation it will become utterly extinct, like many other of the early languages, before the masterly refinement and progress of the Anglo-Saxon race." (3)

It cannot, unfortunately, be asserted that all such assaults on the language were from careless or uninformed outsiders, as the homegrown sentiments of Edward Callow in 1899 clearly demonstrate, the attacks came also from within:

"Unlike the Welsh people, they (the Manx) have had the good sense to see the advantages of bringing up their children to use the English tongue, and only English is taught in the schools." (4)

Such then was, and to a lesser extent still is, the poor perception of the Manx language, that even less than a decade ago, one member of the Manx Government thought it proper, when appearing on a United Kingdom television channel, to expound his personal views regarding the proposal for teaching of the Manx language in schools in the following terms:

"There are more important priorities such as pre-school training, such as the serious development of modern languages, for example Spanish. I find this (the teaching of Manx) to be a somewhat costly indulgence." (5)

Typically, for him, as for many in the Isle of Man, the understanding of the language's worth was to be evaluated in purely monetary terms. His comments demonstrated not only a total lack of comprehension of the national and international significance of the Manx language culturally, but also served as an indictment of the paucity of his own values and perceptions whereby any language other than Manx appeared to have some intrinsic usefulness. These sentiments, although totally misdirected, are still a cause both for great sadness and annoyance to Manx speakers, in that they know such assertions to be entirely inaccurate and misleading. If the language can be portrayed so negatively at home, in what light do we expect the rest of the world to perceive it?

In many ways that same spirit of self-deprecation is not yet dead. Every ensuing generation unflinchingly brings forth its harbingers of doom. They are prepared to disparage, denigrate and belittle, not only the efforts of those determined to promote a positive attitude towards learning the language, but the very language itself. Such a detrimental self perception should come as no surprise to Manx speakers, and although largely confined to a certain age group and mind set, such an attitude has been an undeniable hindrance to the favourable development of the language in general.

On the Edge

That the Manx language has been to the edge and looked over, is amply demonstrated by the census returns showing the numbers of speakers during the twentieth century.

1901	4,419
1911	2,382
1921	896
1931	531
1941	--- no census
1951	355
1961	165
1971	284
1981	--- no language question on census
1991	634

By the 1960s the outlook for the language was certainly dire, but by the 1970s a sea change in attitudes had occurred which has resulted in a steady increase in interest over the following thirty years. Such has been the rate of change that a leading article in a local newspaper was able to report the following:

"A gradual but significant change in the political climate has resulted in a new initiative designed to ensure the survival, and hopefully revival, of the Manx language. For too long the political will necessary for the proper promotion of the language simply did not exist. Manx was regarded as a cultural hobby, as quaint and pointless as folk dancing, with little relevance to the modern world. Gaelic may not be much of a tourist attraction, but without it Manx heritage has no heart. It is the most complex, distinctive and unique feature of that heritage." (6)

It seems likely that the next census will show an increase to approximately one thousand speakers, even if the number of schoolchildren who have been learning Manx since 1992 is disregarded.

Retreat from the Edge

The main initiative taken in response to the change of public and political attitude was the creation of the Manx Language Unit as part of the Isle of Man Department of Education. This was established in 1992 with the aim of introducing the teaching of Manx within the Island's schools, and is supported by central government funds.

- To coordinate the teaching of the Manx Language throughout the Island's schools.
- To develop, manage and monitor the Manx Language programme for schools.
- To ensure the teaching of Manx in accordance with the policies and schemes of work approved by the Department of Education.
- To manage the curriculum development of the programme, and the methods and resources used.
- To undertake and organise such research as is required by the programme.
- To contribute to the training of other teachers, and to seek to increase the numbers of teachers capable of teaching the language.
- To develop the uptake of learning the language in the secondary schools.
- To develop, manage and implement systems of accreditation for learners of Manx.
- To liaise with Manx Language groups in the community.

- To promote positive attitudes to the language in the local community and further afield.
- To serve the language learning needs of existing speakers of the Manx Language to ensure enhanced standards.
- To provide a translation facility in liaison with Coonseil ny Gaelgey.
- To contribute to strategic planning for the further use of the language.
- To disseminate the information on all of the above activities as widely as possible.

Bearing in mind that these objectives were to be met initially with a team consisting only of a Manx Language Officer and two peripatetic schoolteachers, the scale of the task can be envisaged. However, vigorous efforts have been made to raise the profile of the language, particularly outside Mann. In the last year alone, members of the Manx Language Unit have had introductions to the U.K. Ministers of Education for both Scotland and Northern Ireland, and recently the Minister of Education for the Republic of Ireland. In addition members have visited, and formed useful contacts and ongoing links with Gaelic speakers in Skye, Belfast and Dublin. A liaison has also been formed with the island of Jersey, which is currently undertaking a similar language programme to Mann within its schools. In September 1999 the establishment of the Manx Language Unit was increased to a Manx Language Officer and three peripatetic teachers.

Recent Information and Communications Technology initiatives within the Island's schools have focused the need for the provision of readily accessible Manx material in electronic form. It is the Isle of Man Department of Education's stated aim "to prepare pupils for life in an information age and to enhance the process of teaching and learning." In order to achieve this the department will: -

- Continue to implement its ICT Strategy to create a National Grid for Learning.
- Ensure an adequate training programme for teachers and equip them with laptop or desktop computers for their own use.
- Enhance the ratio of modern computers to pupils to a target of 1:7 at Key Stage 1 and 2 and to 1:5 at Key Stage 3 and 4 by December 2000.
- By December 2001, training for teachers should ensure that all are confident with using ICT and know how to apply it in their subject.

It is self evident that if Manx is to increase, let alone maintain, its position and status within the school curriculum, it must be able to create and deliver modern attractive computer programs providing material of relevance and quality. It is important that Manx material should be equal to, if not better than, that which is now readily available for foreign language teaching. Technology has brought the hope that some of the expectations can be substantially fulfilled, but of course the use of technology is not without its own problems when only a small number of people are involved in its production and operation. To date the application of computer technology to Manx language teaching has been utilised in the following areas;

- The free provision of Manx language learning material on the World Wide Web.
- The provision of spellcheckers.
- Searchable and downloadable dictionaries.
- Downloadable phrase books and lessons.
- Provision of Manx language courses to assist distance learning.
- The use of some basic interactive learning for Manx.