

**An exploration of the attitudes and beliefs of teacher trainers and
teacher trainees concerning the use of the L1 in the EFL
classroom**

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1. Introduction

English is the most widely taught language today (Eurostat, 2021). Due to the extensive demand for the teaching and learning of English, knowing how to best instruct new learners of the language is of utmost importance. Best practice approaches to teaching and learning foreign languages have always been widely discussed in academia. One important conflict within English language teaching methodology is concerning the use or exclusion of learners' first languages (L1) when learning English.

Over 40 years ago, Bolitho (1976: 113) vehemently professed that “[t]he mother tongue has as little to do with foreign-language learning as has any other subject on the school time-table and it has no place whatsoever in the foreign-language class, whether in the form of the spoken or of the written word, or even in the pupils' thoughts”. Although a strong stance, Bolitho was certainly not alone in his thinking. According to Phillipson (1992: 185), at the 1961 Makerere conference held in Uganda, with the aim of establishing and disseminating recommendations for the teaching of English as a foreign language, five central principles were determined, which, in turn, have strongly guided the teaching of English. These principles, as formulated by Phillipson (ibid.) were: “English is best taught monolingually; The ideal teacher of English is a native speaker; The earlier English is taught, the better the results; The more English is taught, the better the results; If other languages are used too much, standards of English will drop”. Although the conference took place 60 years ago, these are popular assumptions which, despite since then continually being put into question in the academic field of second language teaching, still prevail in the beliefs of many teachers of English today. Phillipson talks at length in his 1992 publication, *Linguistic Imperialism*, about the fallacies he deems these assumptions to be and reiterates this in his 2009 book, *Linguistic Imperialism Continued* (Phillipson, 2009: 12). This thesis is particularly interested in one of the aforementioned tenets of English language teaching, that English is best taught monolingually.

Through the development and reassessment of various language teaching theories and methodology over the years, views concerning the role of the learner's first language in the process of learning a second language have

oscillated back and forth between acceptance, disapproval or even vilification of the first language. For example, with the earlier language teaching approach of the Grammar-Translation Method, considerable amounts of translation between the two languages were part and parcel of language learning. However, through the move away from this method and development of the Direct Method, the learner's first language was seen to play, if any, only a minor role in language learning. Naturally, the approaches developed by scholars of language teaching influenced the teachers of those periods of time and continue to influence language teaching after the methods are no longer on-trend, usually caused by further developments in the academic field of second language teaching. In general, the latter years of the 20th century were dominated by "absolutist monolingualism", namely the goal of complete eradication of learners' L1 from the foreign language classroom, whereas "the first decade of the 21st century has seen increased interest and support for the use of the students' own languages" (Cook, 2010: 37). This apparent inconclusiveness concerning the use of the L1 in the L2 classroom is not restricted to scholars of the subject but also trickles down to those teaching it in practice. In a survey conducted by Mahboob and Cruz (2013), teachers' responses to the question of whether learners' L1 should be used in the EFL classroom were remarkably diffuse, with 38.4 per cent saying 'no', 37.9 per cent saying 'sometimes' and 23.7 per cent saying 'yes', indicating a lack of consensus.

This thesis aims to delve much deeper into the understanding of L1 use or exclusion in the foreign language classroom. Indeed, "there are very few periods of teaching that have resolved this conflict of opinion" (Kelly in Butzkamm, 1973: 12). Perspectives on the topic can be positioned along a spectrum, few scholars seeing the issue as completely black or white. They range from those in favour of complete avoidance of the L1 in the EFL classroom, constantly striving for an exclusively L2 classroom to those who believe in the value and learning benefit of allowing and, to some extent, encouraging the use of all manner of languages available to the learner. Arguments pertaining to both sides of the spectrum are manifold, hence the difficulties in resolving this difference in perspective. Those advocating for a monolingual classroom draw, for example, on the ideas of the Natural Approach and the belief that the best way of teaching a second language is replicating how a first language is acquired. This would be achieved by means of creating

a sort of “virtual reality” (Macaro, 2009: 36) in which the foreign language classroom is transformed into a foreign language community in which only the L2 is spoken and the learners are then surrounded by extensive L2 input. Arguments pertaining to the other side of the spectrum postulate that this notion of language learning is wholly skewed to the idea that monolingualism is the norm and that the native speaker represents the epitome of language learning and the authority on the language in question. They advocate for the acceptance of the multilingual individual as the norm and, thus, the acceptance of different languages in the EFL classroom in order to make use of all linguistic resources available to the learner.

This thesis focuses on the teaching of English as a foreign language in Germany and more specifically the federal state of North Rhine Westphalia (hereafter NRW). A common phrase in the English core curricula in NRW is “*das Prinzip der Einsprachigkeit wird als funktionale einsprachige Unterrichtsgestaltung realisiert*” (the monolingual principle is to be implemented as functional monolingual teaching) (Ministerium für Schule und Bildung des Landes Nordrhein-Westfalen, 2004: 12; *ibid.*, 2007: 12; *ibid.*, 2004^b: 12). This understanding of the monolingual principle is that English foreign language lessons in NRW are to be primarily conducted using the L2 but the L1 is acceptable for certain functional purposes. What these purposes could be, however, is not elaborated on. The core curricula are to be understood as a guideline on how a subject ought to be taught in schools, allowing for interpretation and pedagogical scope. In NRW, following the completion of a Bachelor and Master’s degree in two school subjects and educational studies, prospective teachers of English are educated during an 18-month intense teacher training period by being put through their paces by teacher trainers of English. It is required of the teacher trainees to have five visits from their teacher trainer for the subject of English, during which they show what should be a model lesson. The teacher trainer then guides the trainees in reflecting on the lesson’s success, or lack of it as the case may be, and helps them come up with options for how they could perform better next time and better reach the learning goal of the lesson.

As experts in the teaching of English, teacher trainers offer an extremely valuable and never before explored resource of knowledge concerning the use

of the L1 in the English language classroom. This knowledge is then passed on by them to the prospective teachers of English who they mentor during the 18-month teaching training period. This thesis aims to provide an in-depth exploration of the attitudes and beliefs of teacher trainers and teacher trainees concerning the use of the L1, as well as other potential languages, in the English language classroom. With this, the thesis aims to ascertain the opinions of those educating future teachers and those just on the forefront of becoming teachers to see what views are being fed into the school system concerning language use in the English language classroom to further address the education of teachers in NRW. This thesis offers a first insight into teacher trainers as a group of English language teaching experts concerning this topic and is also the first approach to look at teacher trainees in combination and in comparison with teacher trainers.

2. Terminology

This section pre-emptively explores terminology that will be of central importance for understanding the literature surrounding the topic of the thesis and the interviews conducted with participants. The section is separated up into six parts: first language, second/foreign language, monolingualism, multilingualism, English as a foreign language and finally, code-switching/translanguaging. These are all concepts of which an understanding cannot be taken for granted due to their sometimes contested nature. It is therefore of importance to take the time and space to set the basis for a profound understanding of the terminologies.

2.1. First language

A person's first language (L1) is often seen synonymously as being their native language, "[t]he child learns to speak like the persons around him. The first language a human being learns to speak is his *native language*; he is a *native speaker* of this language" (Bloomfield, 1933: 43). The L1 is also, more so nowadays in non-academic discourse, referred to as the mother tongue. The term, mother tongue or mother language, is purposefully avoided in this thesis due to the difficulty with its meaning. Mother tongue encourages the understanding of language as a static, irreplaceable entity of gendered origin,

implying that only that one language has the possibility of having an affective component, which is then supposedly lacking in any subsequently learned or acquired languages (cf. Yildiz, 2012: 9-14). This understanding of the term, mother tongue, goes against the notion of languages as fluid and dynamic entities. What the terms mother tongue and first language share, however, is the common understanding that this is the language or languages which are acquired very early in life, usually from birth (Saville-Troike and Barto, 2017: 4). According to the much debated critical period hypothesis, which suggests a relationship between age and ability to achieve native-like proficiency in a language, the acquisition of a first language would have to commence during the first few years of life (cf. Penfield and Roberts, 1959). There are, however, multiple critical periods, or more accurately named sensitive periods, pertaining to various aspects of language learning. The idea of sensitive periods is a more accurate assessment of the processes at hand due to the lack of evidence pertaining to clear cut-off points in time that the terminology “critical periods” would suggest (cf. Singleton and Ryan, 2004). The area of phonology, linked to differentiating sounds and achieving native-like pronunciation, has a much earlier and shorter sensitive period than, for example morphological or syntactic elements of language acquisition (Brehmer and Mehlhorn, 2018: 20). For importance for this thesis, the vast majority of the learners being referred to will have commenced their learning of English outside of these sensitive periods. According to the critical period hypothesis, the learners of English in NRW will have considerable difficulty in reaching native-like competence in the majority of aspects of language learning. Although, it is of importance to consider whether this, in fact, should be the ultimate goal of foreign language learning, therefore putting into question the relevance of these sensitive periods for the vast majority of language learners.

Monolingualism is not the norm in the world. It has, however, long been used in the field of linguistics as the exemplary situation of language acquisition, “[l]inguistic theory is concerned with an ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogenous speech community” (Chomsky, 1965:3). Although there is an awareness of the ubiquity of multilingualism in the world, it has such been the case that the “analyst cannot cope with the complexity of the bilingual situation” (Cook, 2009:56). This status quo of seeing everything through the monolingual lens has to be critically addressed in academic work on the subject. It is, hence,

of utmost importance for this thesis, which delves into language learning, to consider the meaning of multilingualism and multiple first language acquisition.

One can differentiate here between bilingual first language acquisition (BFLA) and early second language acquisition (ESLA) (cf. De Houwer, 2009). In BFLA, a further language is learned from birth, meaning that the child has two first languages, referred to as Language A and Language Alpha, avoiding any chronological implication about the time of their acquisition (ibid., 2). ESLA, on the other hand, is the introduction of a second language after the acquisition of a first language has already begun. Generally speaking, BFLA occurs in the home and ESLA occurs when a child is introduced to an educational setting from a young age in which a different language is spoken (Serratrice, 2019:16). It is, however, suggested that ESLA also has a sensitive period of up to six years of age. Languages learned following this period, coinciding with or following the introduction of literacy programs, would no longer be classified under ESLA, but rather be seen as belonging to formal second language acquisition (cf. De Houwer, 2009: 5). The language learned at home, typically from birth, spoken by one or both of a child's parents, which differs from the majority language in a country, is referred to as a heritage language and those who speak the language, heritage speakers. Following the beginning of education in the majority language of the country a child is residing in, the heritage language runs the risk of weakening, leading in some cases to instable bilingualism (cf. Brehmer and Mehlhorn, 2018). Certainly, what looking at the various terminologies for first languages and first language acquisition shows is that there is great diversity in the linguistic history of all individuals and societies. Relevant for this thesis is how this highlights the need for teachers to recognise the diversity of linguistic backgrounds of learners in the English language classroom.

2.2. Foreign language, second language and target language

Foreign language (FL) refers to a language learned at a later stage in life, usually in an educational setting. The term second language (L2) learning is also used, broadly defined as, "the learning of any language, to any level, provided only that the learning of the 'second' language takes place sometime later than the learning by infants and very young children of their first language(s)" (Mitchell and Myles, 2019: 1). A distinction can be made between

the terms foreign and second language. With a foreign language, the language does not tend to be spoken in the community beyond the walls of the classroom, such as learning French at a German school, also referred to as formal L2 learning (Saville-Troike and Barto, 2017: 2). In comparison, the term second language is sometimes reserved for a language learned by actually moving to and then living in the country where that language is spoken and is societally dominant, such as learning French in Paris after moving there for work, also referred to as informal L2 learning (Saville-Troike and Barto, 2017: 2). It can be argued that, beyond its use from a sociological perspective, the distinction between the two terms has little meaning from a linguistic point of view, seeing as the setting of learning another language does not have an effect on the overall underlying processes of learning that language although it can have an effect on overall proficiency (VanPatten and Benati, 2015: 2). In a foreign language learning setting, this language can also be referred to as the Target Language (TL). Target language can be defined as “any language that is the aim or goal of learning” (Saville-Troike and Barto, 2017: 2). Due to the use of L1 throughout this thesis to denote the German language, L2 will be used to refer to the English language, in line with Mitchel and Myles’ (2019: 1) aforementioned broader definition of an L2 which sees this second language as being any language learned at a later point in time than the first.

The selection of a foreign language to be taught depends on numerous factors pertaining to the relevance of that language for its learners. “The foreign language may be one that has an important status as a means for international communication, or it may be one that has more local national or regional significance” (Knapp, Siedlhofer and Widdowson, 2009: 3). As noted by Ehlich (2009: 23) in his chapter on what makes a language foreign, he highlights the interesting German meaning of the word foreign, *fremd* – meaning “strange” or “unusual”. These connotations of the word help pinpoint what are actually the main barriers when learning a foreign language, not necessarily the words and grammar themselves. On the contrary, in comparison to these arguably more trivial aspects of learning a language, the “strangeness” of the language is what presents the bigger challenge. This notion of “strangeness” comes from the idea of the language being “other”. Languages carry a plethora of culturally loaded nuances of understanding. These nuances are what give languages their richness of meaning, but they run the risk of being reduced in significance in a

foreign language learning institutional setting. Having a profound understanding of what a foreign or second language is and what it means to learn this additional language is important to understanding the basis of processes occurring in the English language classroom.

2.3. Monolingualism

This thesis asks questions concerning the notion of the English language classroom as a monolingual or multilingual space. Here, the concept of monolingualism will briefly be discussed. In short, monolinguals can be defined as “individuals who use one language and may be proficient at using a number of different varieties of the language together with different registers in the variety or varieties they know, and of switching between varieties and between registers in the appropriate context” (Kemp, 2009: 13). Cook refers to individuals who have the ability to function in only one language as possessing a “monocompetence”, a system in which one language is known. He refers to it as “the state of the mind with only one grammar” (Cook, 1992: 558).

In his work on bilingualism, Grosjean states that although there may be monolingual individuals, it is very challenging to find any truly monolingual society and that multilingualism is, in fact, the more wide-spread linguistic phenomenon (Grosjean, 1982:1). Nonetheless, there has historically been a disproportionate amount of academic focus placed on monolingualism and first language acquisition (Saville-Troike and Barto, 2017:8). Cook refers to this as the “monolingual perspective”, a way of looking at language which generates research and methodology emanating from a backdrop of monolingual native speakers’ abilities and experiences (Cook, 2016: 3). Kachru calls this the “monolingual bias” (cf. Kachru, 1994), the idea of looking to monolingual, “native-speaker” linguistic practices as representing the norms and standards against which all production in that language should be measured, a notion which still prevails in certain fields (May, 2014: 10). The monolingual bias makes the “assumption that monolingualism is the default for all human communication and [values] nativeness as a superior form of language competence and the most legitimate relationship between language and its users” (Ortega, 2014: 32). In this vein, the comparison, multilingualism, is subordinated, seen as a “less natural form of knowing, doing and learning language than monolingualism” (Ortega, 2014: 35). Pennycook describes this

as being nothing more than an “elite rouse, distracting us from the diverse, centrifugal linguistic practices in evidence everywhere we turn” (Pennycook and Otsuji, 2015 in Gramling, 2016: 4).

In her book, *Beyond the Mother Tongue*, Yildiz critically examines the far-reaching influence of the monolingual paradigm. She sees monolingualism as constituting “a key structuring principle that organises the entire range of modern social life, from the construction of individuals and their proper subjectivities to the formation of disciplines and institutions, as well as of imagined collectives such as cultures and nations” (Yildiz, 2012: 2). She sees, however, a turn in discourse surrounding the topic of mono- and multilingualism, the former of which still enjoys an ongoing dominance. Hence, she coins the term “postmonolingualism” (Yildiz, 2012: 4) to denote the move away from but continuing influence of monolingualism. This can also be seen reflected in the multilingual turn in SLA research which will be touched upon in the following section. Despite these critical views of the concept of monolingualism, it is important to understand the definition of the term because measuring language acquisition against the basis of monolingualism is still prevalent in the European context (Jessner, 2008: 27). In the guidelines to teaching English in NRW this view still is dominant, as can be seen in the reference to monolingualism in the core curricula, which offer no further explanation or exploration of the term (Ministerium für Schule und Bildung des Landes Nordrhein-Westfalen, 2004: 12; *ibid.*, 2007: 12; *ibid.*, 2004^b: 12). Therefore, understanding this bias is paramount to the aim of this thesis of ascertaining the attitudes and opinions of two groups of individuals active in the teaching of English concerning the role of the English language classroom as a monolingual and/or multilingual space.

2.4. Multilingualism

In applied linguistics, multilingualism can be seen as the “topic du jour” (May, 2014: 1). One of the central goals of the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language in the educational system of NRW is the development of multilingualism, albeit individual multilingualism: “Die im vorliegenden Lehrplan formulierten Standards sollen in einem Englischunterricht erreicht werden, der dazu beiträgt, individuelle Mehrsprachigkeitsprofile auszubilden“ (Ministerium für Schule und Bildung des Landes Nordrhein-Westfalen, 2004: 12). Although the core curricula for NRW do not go into any further detail concerning their

understanding of the terminology used, it is important that this is done here for the purposes of this thesis.

In short, multilingualism denotes the “ability to use two or more languages” (Saville-Troike and Barto, 2017: 8). Some scholars differentiate between bilingualism and multilingualism, only making use of the latter when three or more languages are present (Kemp, 2009: 13). Early understandings of multilingualism saw it as “a series of autonomous languages that conformed to certain prescriptive norms, a ‘parallel monolingualism’” (Garcia and Lin, 2018: 82-83). Coulmas goes into great detail about the meaning and origins of the term multilingualism in his book on the topic. Discussing the term’s development over time he names the Second World War and the migration processes in its aftermath as a catalyst in changing the significance and understanding of the term, “[i]t was in this context that multilingualism became a matter of general interest, as opposed to an individual capacity or pursuit” (Coulmas, 2017: 27).

Multilingualism is notoriously difficult to define and has been described as “one of the most daunting research questions of current linguistics” (Jessner, 2008: 20). Jessner subsumes definitions of multilingualism into three main categories: definitions by origin, which look at multilingualism in terms of development, definitions by competence, which consider linguistic proficiency in multiple languages and functional definitions, which look at the various functions a language serves in a community or for an individual person (Jessner, 2008: 30). Also of note, Coulmas highlights the discrepancy between the terms multilingualism and its German counterpart, namely “*Mehrsprachigkeit*” which refers to a “state of affairs rather than an attitude or policy as implied in the ‘-ism’” (Coulmas, 2017: 28). Recent sociolinguistic understandings of multilingualism renounce the notion of “languages as separate bounded entities to a view of communication in which language users employ whatever linguistic features are at their disposal to achieve their communicative aims” (Blackledge, Creese and Takhi, 2014: 192).

As mentioned above, a statement in the core curricula for English referring to multilingualism stresses the aspect of individual multilingualism (Ministerium für Schule und Bildung des Landes Nordrhein-Westfalen, 2004: 12; *ibid.*, 2004^b: 12; *ibid.*, 2007: 12; *ibid.*, 2011: 8; *ibid.*, 2014: 11). Here, one can differentiate between individual and societal multilingualism. The individual multilingual can

be referred to as a polyglot, “the individual who has command, to various degrees, of two or more languages” (Coulmas, 2017: 81). In this individual case, the linguistic condition is sometimes referred to as plurilingual rather than multilingual (Kemp, 2009: 15). This person is also said to possess a “multi-competence”, referring to the notion that “all the languages form part of one overall system, with complex and shifting relationships between them, affecting the first language as well as the others” (Cook, 2016: 2). In societal multilingualism a nation may have numerous official languages making the entire nation, not merely the individual, multilingual (cf. Coulmas, 2017). Of difficulty when it comes to identifying an individual as bi- or multilingual is the notion of competency. For years, linguists have grappled over the definition of who is bi- or multilingual ranging from definitions of multilingualism as the state of possessing native-like abilities in two languages equally (Bloomfield, 1933, 56), to others defining an individual as being multilingual when they are able to achieve minimum proficiency in merely one of the four competences (reading, writing, listening or speaking) in a second language (Macnamara, 1967 in Hamers and Blanc, 2000, 6). More recent definitions are more in line with the latter, that the person does not have to be proficient to the level of a native speaker in a second or subsequent language to be classed as being multilingual (Kemp, 2009: 19). Baker (2021: 3) elaborates and details the complexities of bilingualism and multilingualism by discussing numerous dimensions which play a role in defining the terms, such as *ability* and *use*. *Ability* denotes a continuum along which bi- and multilinguals find themselves with their capabilities in the respective languages. *Use* entails the purposes and domains in which the individual’s languages are used. These aspects, among others discussed by Baker, highlight the strong individual aspect of bi- and multilingualism and the difficulties in establishing a definition which encompasses the situation of all bi- and multilinguals.

Ideologies related to multilingualism usually take on one of two main, polarised positions. Some favour a monolingualism, both societal and individual, “[t]hese ideologies overvalue the dominant language and devalue other languages and their speakers” (Fuller, 2019: 123). This, however, is widely opposed in academic discourse, where multilingualism is seen as something positive, an opportunity for both individuals and the societies in which they reside. In fact, “[m]ost people in the world are multilingual, and most of this

multilingualism is naturally acquired in the process of socialization” (Knapp, Seidlhofer and Widdowson, 2009:3). Hence, for many people, learning a new language does not fall into the field of second language acquisition but rather third language acquisition. Contrary to the use of L2 to describe the status of English as a foreign language in the EFL classroom, English, for a large number of people represents the L3 (Jessner, 2008: 27). However, “[t]he fact that most learners of English living in Europe already possess knowledge of at least two other languages has been partially neglected in second and foreign language acquisition research” (Jordà and Pilar, 2005: 1). This is due to the fact that the study of the potential influence of all languages available to a learner on a subsequent language is relatively new, with previous work in the field merely focussing on the influence the L1 has on subsequently learned languages (De Angelis and Selinker, 2001: 42). It was, hence, not widely considered that anything more than the L1 played a role in the learning of a new language. However, studies have now shown that multiple factors play a role in the extent to which all previously acquired languages can have an influence such as their degree of similarity to the new language, the learner’s level of competence in the previous languages, the setting in which previous languages were learned (e.g. languages learned in a natural setting seem to have more influence over subsequently learned languages than those learned in institutional settings) and different types of language phenomena which have been shown to be more readily influenced by either the L1 or the L2 (Hammarberg and Williams, 2009: 18-19). Many linguists now propagate a move towards accepting multilingualism as the norm and the basis on which language teaching should be developed (cf. Jessner, 2006: 141). As Cook says, “[w]e should never forget that the L2 user is not an outsider lurking on the outskirts of society but is in the main throng of humanity today” (Cook, 2016: 19). This development in thinking surrounding the topic of multilingualism is referred to as the multilingual turn (cf. May, 2014; Conteh and Meier, 2014; Ellis, 2021) and can be seen reflected in the European Union’s efforts to promote plurilingualism (Council of Europe, 2001). In spite of these clear messages from both academia and policy makers concerning an acceptance of multilingualism and the fostering of multilingual competences, there still appears to be a discrepancy between this and the practical implementation in the classroom, shown by a study conducted by Marx (2014) in which she concludes that true multilingual pedagogical approaches

are still clearly lacking in the German school system. Of interest for this thesis is to discover the extent to which this debate and development in thinking towards multilingualism and the multilingual learner has found its place in the English foreign language classroom.

2.5. English as a foreign language

English is the most widely spoken, written and taught language in the world today (Kachru and Nelson, 2001: 9). Over the duration of 500 years, English has developed from being a national language spoken by approximately 3 million speakers, reserved predominantly to the United Kingdom, to a global language learned by an estimated 2 billion people (Rose and Galloway, 2019: 3). High levels of English proficiency can be seen as important capital in a global world, rendering those who do not speak English at being at a disadvantage on the job market (Elsner, 2018: 18).

Rose and Galloway (2019: 3) describe four distinct channels as the cause for the spread of the English language around the globe. Channel One is from settler colonisation in countries, such as Australia, New Zealand, the United States and Canada. With Channel Two the authors describe the expansion of the English language due to slavery where English was forced upon speakers of African languages. Channel Three was established through the colonialization of nations, such as is the case in India, Hong Kong and Singapore. Finally, Channel Four has seen the expansion of the English language caused by processes of globalisation, rendering English a language of global prestige and economic power. Specifically in Europe, Phillipson (2009: 18-20) sees the factors contributing to its increased use as twofold, namely structural and ideological. Structurally, he sees the widespread use of English as being a result of globalisation and the increase of English as a language of study and communication at institutes of higher education across Europe. Ideologically, changing attitudes towards multilingualism and the association of English with success and influence are seen by Phillipson as contributing to its increased use. Due to the widespread prevalence of the English language, “English as a second language (ESL) education has gained an increasingly important role in career development in science, business, and industry on the global stage” (Alonso, 2011: vii). One can make the distinction between the learning of a language for instrumental or for integrative purposes. A scientist,

for example, may learn English for the specific purpose of being able to talk about and publish their work. A person emigrating to an English speaking country, on the other hand, has the motivation to learn the language to belong and fit in in the new community they have moved into (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill and Pincas., 2003: 5).

Those learning the language today are likely to conduct many of their interactions with other people also speaking English as a second language. In this way, English can be considered as a lingua franca, “any lingual medium of communication between people of different mother tongues, for whom it is a second language” (Samarin, 1987 in Seidlhofer, 2011: 7). The idea has been advanced that English is spoken in three circles, an ‘inner circle’, including the United Kingdom, Ireland, the United States, New Zealand, Australia and parts of Canada, an ‘outer circle’, comprising former colonies in which English served as a second language, such as Hong Kong, India and Jamaica and, finally, the ‘expanding circle’, denoting countries with no colonial ties to the language, but in which English is seeing increased usage as a lingua franca (cf. Kachru, 1992). With this, non-native varieties of English have developed, displaying differences in grammar, vocabulary and syntax (Grimm, Meyer and Volkman, 2015: 5). It is now of importance to “relinquish the idea that there is but one standardised English” (Garcia and Lin, 2018: 84) and move towards the acceptance of other “Englishes” (cf. Jenkins, 2006). The development of discourse surrounding the topic of English as a lingua franca and an overall move away from a focus on standardised English also influenced the understanding of the role of EFL learning and led to further complexities concerning the goal of English language learning. Widdowson expands on this notion by looking at the terminology used, seeing the term EFL as denoting something different to the English of native speakers, implying that “what is to be taught is not English as it is already spoken, but English as expressly designed for those who do not yet speak it but are learning to do so” (Widdowson, 2003: 114).

The spread of English as a school subject across Germany began in the 19th century with the introduction of the language in both girls’ and boys’ grammar schools (Surkamp and Viebrock, 2018: 3). When English became the mandatory first foreign language to be learned at all types of secondary schools

across the Federal Republic of Germany in 1964, a further milestone was reached (ibid., 4). Today, according to the European Statistical Office, English is the most commonly taught language at both primary and secondary school levels across Europe. In many countries, either all or nearly all pupils take part in English lessons at primary school. Nowadays, approximately 60 per cent of primary aged pupils are learning English at school. In upper secondary general education, 94 per cent of school pupils are being taught English as a foreign language (Eurostat, 2021). In Germany, there was a 1.7 per cent increase in the amount of pupils learning English since the last European Statistical Office data collection in 2011, bringing the current total to 94.5 per cent of secondary school pupils (Eurostat, 2021). For this thesis, the ubiquity of the learning of English as a second language both globally and in Germany highlights the importance of questioning teachers of the language and discovering how the language is best taught in practice.

2.6. Code-switching and translanguaging

The notion of “code” has often been used to denote the idea of language, “the addressee of a coded message is assumed to be in possession of the code and through it he interprets the message” (Jakobson and Halle, 1971: 28). Despite a more modern, post-structuralist view on language, seeing languages no longer as distinct and separate codes but rather being much more fluid in nature (Pennycook, 2010: 1-3), the term code-switching has prevailed. Hence, code-switching is essentially the switching of codes or languages. It is a widespread linguistic phenomenon commonly observed in individuals or groups of people who are able to speak more than one language. Although the study of code-switching is predominantly reserved for speaking acts of multilinguals, monolinguals also code-switch, alternating not between different languages but between different registers, also referred to as style shifting (Bullock and Toribio, 2009: 2). Code-switching can occur in a multitude of forms, for example, one speaker starts in one language and the fellow interlocutor replies in the other, the language can be switched between sentences, also referred to as inter-sentential code-switching, mid-sentence, or merely just for the use of one word, also referred to as intra-sentential code-switching (Myers-Scotton, 2006: 161). Code-switching is also employed for a plethora of reasons, whether they be conscious or unconscious, for example, to fill lexical or pragmatic gaps,

to express identity, and/or to achieve particular discursive aims, to name a few (Bullock and Toribio, 2009: 2). In short, being able to speak more than one language often leads to having to choose which language to use in a certain situation. Rare is the case that one language is chosen and the other excluded entirely, but rather speakers of two languages tend to alternate back and forth between them (Coulmas, 2013: 121).

In the past, code-switching has been deemed a display of language incompetence, coming from a lack of knowledge in the languages being used (Coulmas, 2013: 123). Pejorative terms have often been used to describe the act of code-switching, such as *Français* or *Finnglish* (Bullock and Toribio, 2009: 4). Numerous arguments are now established which refute the previously held assumption of lack of proficiency being the root of code-switching (Heredia and Altarriba, 2001: 165). Coinciding with a turn towards accepting multilingualism as representing the norm in society, multilinguals' ability to effortlessly switch between the languages available to them nowadays is even referred to as "remarkable", leading to a lot of scientific interest in analysing the linguistic phenomenon (Bullock and Toribio, 2009: 1). Moreover, code-switching is often presented in current literature as a valuable skill which allows social actors a multitude of meanings, both social and pragmatic (Bailey, 2007: 264). A more commonly held notion today is that the "languages in a multilingual's repertoire complement one another to produce the type of composite language competence that suits their needs" (Kachru, 1994: 797).

More recently, despite already being coined in 1994 to describe the linguistic practice of Welsh-English bilinguals, the term *translanguaging* has increasingly been used to denote a general ability of bilinguals and multilinguals to draw on and flexibly make use of resources pertaining to their multiple languages (García and Flores, 2014: 154-155). It can be defined as "the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, gaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages" (Baker, 2021: 78). The notion of *translanguaging* diverges from the meaning of *code-switching* in that it distances itself from the understanding of languages as separate codes to be switched between, but rather focuses on the way in which bilinguals use their languages as interwoven resources to construct meaning in sociolinguistic situations (*ibid.*). The notion sees multilinguals as having a "unitary language repertoire" which cannot be

partitioned (Garcia and Lin, 2018: 85). With this, the proponents of the concept of translanguaging even go as far as to pit themselves against the notion of code-switching, stating that the ongoing fixation of language codes, as found in the concept of code-switching, neglects the deeper understanding of social meanings (Blackledge et al., 2014: 193). Translanguaging “moves the linguistic agency and power from the nation state that starts with imposing a standardised way of speaking [...] to the multilingual speaker who becomes the agent of their linguistic repertoire” (Garcia and Lin, 2018: 85). It can be said to showcase the “linguistic hybridity” (Rose and Galloway, 2019: 9) of multilinguals.

Over the years, code-switching has prevailed as an area of great academic interest in the field of bilingualism (Bullock and Toribio, 2009: 1). Classroom code-switching represents one of these areas of academic interest. This discourse has developed in parallel to the general discourse surrounding the phenomenon of code-switching (Simon, 2000: 311). Classroom code-switching has been defined as “the alternating use of more than one linguistic code in the classroom by any of the classroom participants (e.g. teacher, students, teacher aides)” (Lin, 2008: 273). Despite code-switching being a term widely used to describe this linguistic classroom phenomenon, some scholars would claim that this, in fact, does not represent true instances of code-switching (Coulmas, 2013: 126-127). These scholars are often of the opinion that the term code-switching should be reserved for use to describe naturalistic settings of language use (Cook, 2010: xxii). This thesis, however, follows the logic of other scholars in the field of classroom code-switching who argue that the foreign language classroom represents an authentic language situation in which the teacher and pupils, by sharing at least the L1 and to a certain extent the L2, are part of the same speech community (cf. Tian and Macaro, 2012: 369). In addition to or instead of “classroom code-switching”, a further label used for the phenomenon is “recourse to L1”, however this can be seen as denoting the practice as “undesirable or to be regretted” (Macaro, 2005: 64). This thesis, therefore, chooses to adopt usage of the term classroom code-switching along with many scholars in the field (cf. Lin, 2013; Cook, 2002; Cook, 2010; Macaro, 2005). The thesis also uses the term “L1 use”, which is seen as being synonymous with the phenomenon of “classroom code-switching”. A more in-depth look at classroom code-switching will be offered in a later part of this thesis in order to create a solid foundation of understanding before delving into

the interviews with teachers and teacher trainees concerning their attitudes and beliefs towards the use of L1 in the English language classroom.

3. Theoretical background

The following section of the thesis addresses the theoretical background in order to conceptualise and articulate the research purpose and questions. Firstly, the history of English language teaching in terms of methodological teaching approaches shall be taken into consideration. This shall be followed by an in-depth look at the situation of English language teaching in NRW today with a focus on the core-curricula of NRW. Following this, the two sides of the argument concerning the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom will be presented. The theoretical background will be rounded off by a comprehensive overview of current research on the use of the L1 in the foreign language classroom.

3.1. Second language learning

This section serves to offer an overview of the central developments and phases in foreign language teaching methodology in order to shed light on the evolution of foreign language teaching, the approaches which have influenced it and the current trends in teaching methodology. This is important for two reasons. Firstly, the contested nature of the role and use of the L1 in the foreign language classroom can be seen to stem from the back and forth of views concerning its use which can be found represented in teaching methodology. Having an overview of this allows for a more comprehensive understanding of the origins of the debate. Secondly, the purpose of this thesis is to explore the attitudes and beliefs of teacher trainers and trainees of English. It is to be expected that through their education and training, these two groups of people have been influenced by the teaching methodology doctrine of the time. It is therefore of importance, as the researcher, to be aware of and understand these potentially influencing teaching approaches to be in a better position to explore the content of the interviews.

In addition to several English language teaching methodologies which shall be discussed in this section at greater length, an overview of numerous approaches and their stance concerning the use of the learners' L1, as developed by Mahboob and Lin (2016: 28), is offered below in order to

illuminate the development of opinion. Of interest is that the majority of the approaches were developed in the UK and US, hence there being little felt need for the use of local languages when learning English. Moreover, since developments in English language teaching methodology moved away from the Grammar-Translation Method, little to no use of the L1, in other words a monolingual English language classroom, has been the desired approach.

Teaching approach	Context for development	Use of local language
Grammar-Translation	EFL (also used for other languages)	(Dominant) local languages used extensively
Direct Method	Europe and US	No use of students' vernaculars
Audio-Lingualism	US (then spread)	No use of students' vernaculars
Cognitive Approach	US	Limited use of the students' vernaculars
Affective-Humanistic Approaches	US	Varied, but limited use of students' vernaculars
Natural Approach	US	Use of vernaculars discouraged
Communicative Approach	US & UK (then spread)	Use of vernaculars discouraged

(Mahboob and Lin, 2016: 28)

A further way of differentiating the various approaches for the teaching of foreign languages is with the use of the dimensions of intralingual and crosslingual strategies. Intralingual strategies are those concerned merely with the L2, whereas crosslingual strategies take the resources of the L1 into consideration in the language teaching methodology. Kumaravadivelu (2006: 187) offers an overview of what these aspects look like in language teaching. These differences in approaches to language learning and teaching are to be seen as representing a spectrum.

Intralingual	Crosslingual
Intracultural	Crosscultural
L2 used as a reference system	L1 used as a reference system
Immersion in L2	Comparison between L1/L2
Keeping L2 apart from L1	Practice through translation from and into L2
No translation from and into L2	Grammar-Translation Method
Direct Method	Compound bilingualism
Co-ordinate bilingualism	

(Kumaravadivelu, 2006:187)

3.1.1. Grammar-Translation

The Grammar-Translation Method, originally known in the U.S. as “the Prussian Method” (Richards and Rogers, 2014: 6), was developed by German scholars and widely used from the middle of the 1800s to part way through the 20th century (ibid., 7). Its primary focus was on the reading and writing of the foreign language and little or no attention was paid to speaking or listening (ibid., 6). Of central importance for this thesis is that the medium of instruction seen as appropriate in the Grammar-Translation teaching approach is the learner’s native language. That is to say that the L1 was extensively used for all aspects of learning, such as explanations and comparisons between the two languages (ibid., 7). The goal of foreign language teaching at the time of widespread use of the Grammar-Translation teaching approach was to be able to translate written material in the foreign language into the first language with high accuracy, thereby dealing very closely with original materials (Hall and Cook, 2012: 276). There was a strong “emphasis on the correct production of structures and form, based on detailed, crosslingual comparison between languages” (Meier, 2017: 137).

The emergence of the insistence on the exclusive use of the L2 in the foreign language classroom can sometimes be seen to stem from an apparent desire to move away from this foreign language teaching method, often seen today as being old-fashioned and “widely discredited” (Auerbach, 1993: 15). The Grammar-Translation Method, firstly used on classical languages such as Greek and Latin, was seen as increasingly tedious and dull when applied to the

study of modern foreign languages, such as French and German (Richards and Rogers, 2014: 7). Moreover, it was shown to be lacking any sound basis in linguistic, psychological or educational theory (ibid., 8). Hence, the method of using translation as a central tool for language learning was “outlawed” (Cook, 2010: 3). However, as argued by Meier (2017: 137), the approach allowed for the recognition of the bilingual nature of learning a second language, “empower[ing] the bilingual teacher, as an expert bilingual role model”. Nevertheless, opposition to the Grammar-Translation Method grew and deriving from this, classroom code-switching was deemed problematic by many teachers and academics in the field of second language learning because it awakens memories of the Grammar-Translation Method, which “although it is still used in watered-down form, is currently unfashionable” (Macaro, 2005: 66). Nonetheless, despite the apparent dislike of translation found in English language teaching theory, it continues to play a key role in language learning classrooms through the common use of bilingual dictionaries, in asking fellow classmates for the equivalent first language translation for reassurance and general translation which occurs in the learners’ minds (Cook, 2010: 3).

3.1.2. Direct Method

The move away from the domination of the Grammar-Translation Method began with the Reform Movement at the end of the 19th century. Here, academics in the field of second language learning endorsed the primacy of speech, seeing the need to refocus language learning on the spoken word, and believed that information can be more successfully retained when the learner recognises links between aspects of language and events rather than by studying single sentences void of context (Cook, 2010: 4). There was a widespread demand for modern foreign languages to be “taught as living languages i.e. unlike the classic languages” (Surkamp and Viebrock, 2018: 3). One development in second language teaching, deriving from the Reform Movement, which has been very influential on current notions concerning the use of the L1 in EFL classrooms, was the Direct Method. This is seen as being the driving force behind the “the conventional wisdom that holds that monolingual teaching is the best way of getting bilingual results” (Widdowson, 2003: 151). One of the main core principles of the Direct Method, which can be subsumed under the area called “natural methods” (Richards and Rogers,

2014: 11), is that “the learner is urged to think in the L2 and avoid code-switching or mixing” (Sridhar, 1994: 802). Moreover, the input received from the teacher should also be exclusively in the L2, “untainted by the mother tongue” (ibid.). The approach then requires that “[m]eaning is to be directly related to the target language without translation from or into the L1 and students deduce rules based on examples and illustrations” (Bruen and Kelly, 2014: 369). In its essence, the Direct Method rests on the efforts of making “second language learning more like first language learning” (Richards and Rogers, 2014: 11). Proponents of the Direct Method were of the opinion that a foreign language is best taught and learned without translation or, in fact, any use of the L1 but rather by means of “demonstration and action” and “direct and spontaneous use of the foreign language in the classroom” (ibid.). Cook (2010: 8) subsumes these aspects of the approach under the pillars of monolingualism and naturalism. With the pillar of monolingualism, the Direct Method works on the assumption that language is better learned in a predominantly monolingual environment, with translation playing, if any, only a peripheral role. With the Direct Method pillar of naturalism, the approach regards first language acquisition as being the epitome of language learning, hence replicating its process would be the most successful way to learn a second language.

The Direct Method, as many such approaches at the time, “was developed in inner-circle English speaking countries” (Mahboob and Lin, 2016: 27). In that context, the learners often did not have a shared L1, coming from a variety of linguistic backgrounds (ibid.). The method enjoyed widespread acceptance and application in France and Germany and was made popular in the U.S. through its use in the Berlitz language schools (Richards and Rogers, 2014: 12), still in use today and referred to as the Berlitz Method (Berlitz Corporation, 2019). With the move towards the Direct Method and monolingual teaching, the goal of foreign language teaching and learning changed from that strived for with use of the Grammar-Translation Method. The aim was to “prepare students to communicate in monolingual environments and to emulate as far as possible the use of the new language by its native speakers” (Hall and Cook, 2012: 276). The method has, however, not escaped criticism, being deemed by some as unacademic and “a product of enlightened amateurism” (Richards and Rogers, 2014: 13). It has often been considered “counterproductive, since teachers were required to go to great lengths to avoid using the native language, when

sometimes a simple, brief explanation in the student's native language would have been a more efficient route to comprehension" (ibid.). Over time, the use of the Direct Method decreased across France and Germany, making room for a less rigid, combined use of "some Direct Method techniques with more controlled grammar-based activities" (ibid.). For Atkinson (1987: 242), the complete abandonment of the Grammar-Translation Method to teaching foreign languages in blind favour of the Direct Method was "clearly a case in which the baby was indeed thrown out with the bathwater". Nonetheless, in spite of an apparent desire to distance itself from the Grammar-Translation Method, the Direct Method still upheld some of the concepts of the previous method, "[t]hrough now conducted in the target language, teaching was nevertheless still structured by an attention to form, and a conception of the language as a set of grammar rules to be learnt" (Cook, 2010: 22). Although the strict application of the Direct Method has subsided in the majority of language learning settings, many scholars see its legacy as having an enduring effect on educators' beliefs concerning the role of the L1 in the L2 classroom (cf. Liu, 2008; Nordin, 2013; Bruen and Kelly, 2014). Indeed, "[i]n the many movements and methodologies which followed on from the early Direct Method [...] exceptions to the ostracism of translation were few and short lived" (Cook, 2010: 23).

3.1.3. Audio-Lingual Method

The emergence of other methods in the wake of or in parallel to the Direct Method have also played a role in the EFL teaching preference of avoidance of the L1. "Like the Direct Method, the Audio-Lingual Method is also an oral-based approach according to which the target language is used in the classroom, not the students' native language" (Jingxia, 2010: 11). The Audio-Lingual method originated from the U.S. during the time of the second world war and was initially referred to as the "Army Method" (Richards and Rogers, 2014: 58). The advent of the method stemmed from the desired goal for learners "to attain conversational proficiency in a variety of foreign languages", due to the need for international communication during wartime (ibid.). Similarly to the Direct Method, it was strongly characterised by "the intensity of contact with the target language" (ibid., 59). However, in comparison to the Direct Method, it did not see mere exposure as sufficient in promoting successful language learning, but rather the use of intensive practice based on a behaviourist theory of learning

(ibid., 61), which presumes that language learning is a mechanical process by which individuals learn language step by step through imitation, repetition, memorisation and either positive or negative reinforcement (cf. Skinner, 1953). The approach was based on an understanding of learning that predicates that “own language habits had to be replaced by new language habits through ‘over-learning’” (Cook, 2010: 25).

Of central importance, however, for this thesis, is the continued insistence on an exclusively L2 classroom environment. Referring to procedures to be adopted by foreign language teachers, Brooks (in Richards and Rogers, 2014: 70) states that teachers should adopt “the subordination of the mother tongue to the second language by rendering [it] inactive while the new language is being learned”. However, in comparison to the Direct Method, which sees no role for the L1 in the foreign language classroom, the Audio-Lingual method, in fact, encourages judicious comparison of the two languages, deriving from an application of contrastive analysis to language teaching found throughout the Audio-Lingual method (ibid., 60). In short, contrastive analysis, based on a background of behaviourist theories of language learning, prevailed in the 1960s and 70s as a way of explaining learner errors in language learning which it claimed could primarily be accounted for by looking at the differences between the target language and the learners’ first language (cf. Ellis, 2008: 53-56). Nevertheless, it must be noted that the initial use of contrastive analysis was merely meant to inform on differences between the two languages, “the presence of the L1 in the *process* of learning the L2 was given no pedagogic warrant” (Widdowson, 2003: 151). The idea of utilising the learners’ expertise in the L1 to support in learning an L2 was out of the question, on the contrary, contrastive analysis was used as a diagnostic and preventative tool in order to, primarily, increase the effectiveness of monolingual teaching (ibid.). The Audio-Lingual method was widely used in the U.S. up until the mid-late 1960s, at which point criticism by Noam Chomsky on the behaviourist approach to language learning called the approach into question (Richards and Rogers, 2014: 72). In short, Chomsky introduced the notion of the “creative aspect of language” (Chomsky, 1964: 8), namely that having only observed a finite number of utterances, a learner of language is then able to produce an indefinite number of utterances, including ones never heard before, suggesting

that language learning goes far beyond the behaviourist ideas of mere imitation and repetition of what is heard.

3.1.4. Communicative Approach

In a move away from the Audio-Lingual method and its strong focus on behaviourist learning styles and drill repetition, linguists began to redirect teaching methodology towards the language learning goal of “communicative proficiency rather than a mere mastery of structures” (Richards and Rogers, 2014: 84). These developments led to the advent of the Communicative Approach in the 1970s which is seen to have given way to “a more socially and culturally sensitive approach to language modelling, curriculum design, and classroom pedagogy” (Leung, 2014: 123). Although originating in Great Britain, the Communicative Approach to language learning has since expanded across the world as one of the most popular approaches to language learning (Richards and Rogers, 2014: 85).

The Communicative Approach to language learning is based predominantly on a learner-centred understanding of learning, according to which, learning is best fostered by meaningful engagement with activities closely related to the learners’ lives (Meier, 2017: 137). Through this, learner-centred learning encourages autonomous engagement with one’s own learning, changing the role of the teacher to that more of a facilitator in the individual’s learning experience. Moreover, the Communicative Approach has monolingual and intralingual principles at its core and is “modelled on first language acquisition” (ibid.). However, in comparison to the Direct Method where the use of the learner’s L1 was more frowned upon, “[j]udicious use of native language is accepted where feasible [and] translation may be used where students need or benefit from it” (Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983: 92). Moving away from a structured study of language comprising of its grammatical structures and accurately replicating these, central ideas of scholars leading to the development of the Communicative Approach were based on “an analysis of the communicative meanings that a language learner needs to understand and express” (Richards and Rogers, 2014: 85). In this sense, fluency of communication became much more important than the accuracy of the foreign language being produced. Hence, in comparison to previous methods, there was a move away native-like attainment as the ultimate goal of language

learning but rather the ability to successfully communicate in the foreign language. Although similar in its focus on language production and communication in the foreign language classroom, the Communicative Approach to language learning also differs from the Direct Method in the sense that its understanding of communication goes beyond that of direct, situational communication. Communicative language teaching aims to enable a delayed practice of communicative acts and not merely communicative acts directly following the mastery of particular structures needed in certain situations (Richards and Rogers, 2014: 87).

In general, modern perspectives on teaching are based on a learner-centred approach and the assumption that each learner is in possession of an individual set of potentials, abilities and needs concerning learning. This understanding derives from the theoretical background of socio-constructivism and implies that learning will happen in “different and unpredictable ways” (Meier, 2017: 138). Moreover, in this current understanding of learning, the teacher moves towards a different role in the classroom, namely, to “assess individual needs, provide scaffolding and provide formative feedback or dynamic assessment” (ibid.). In this way, pupils should evolve into autonomous learners, able to assess their own needs and abilities and, hence, navigate and regulate their own learning experience. The wide-spread development and application of the constructivist theory of learning is, however, not without criticism and more empirical evidence concerning the success of such approaches is needed (cf. Alanazi, 2016). Criticizing the development of methods in general, Kumaravadivelu likens the incessant search for the perfect language teaching method to Monty Python’s search for the Holy Grail, outlining the problem that every new era in language teaching methodology deems itself superior to the latter (Kumaravadivelu, 2006: 164). Moreover, he disparages the myth that teachers merely consume and apply the knowledge that theorists produce (ibid., 166). In fact, the widely felt divide between theory and practice often leads to animosity between the two parties, leading to an application of methods not true to their intended purposes due to teachers deeming them unsuitable in their purest form for everyday teaching. These ideas shall be further explored later on in the thesis when looking at the collected data on the attitudes and experiences of teacher trainers and teacher trainees.

3.2. English teaching in NRW schools today

The following section shall take a look at English language teaching in North Rhine Westphalia today. It shall give an overview of the Core Curricula (Kernlehrpläne) which serve as a guideline for teachers of the subject. In this vein, it shall look at the concept of competencies, which has become increasingly prevalent in pedagogy in general within Germany. Moreover, this section will look at overarching criteria for language teaching and learning from the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Länder in the Federal Republic of Germany (Kultusministerkonferenz) and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. Finally, the section will outline the teacher training process and trajectory of becoming a teacher of English. All of this is of importance for the purpose of this thesis. Firstly, it is of relevance to study the aforementioned documents to have an overview and understanding of parts of these documents which refer to concepts relevant to the research questions of this thesis (e.g. multilingualism, use of the L1) in order to see what is being said in an official capacity about these topics. It would be assumed that these guidelines inform the practise of teacher trainers and teacher trainees which should then be reflected in the interviews. Moreover, addressing the goals of the teaching of English at various types of schools in NRW (Hauptschule, Realschule, Gymnasium etc.) is of importance seeing as the teacher trainers and trainees interviewed do not all work at the same type of institution. It is therefore of importance to understand the goals of teaching which they are following when considering their answers to interview questions in case this transpires to have a bearing on their attitudes and beliefs. Finally, it is relevant to address the trajectory of teacher training in NRW and the role of teacher trainers in order to outline the link between the two groups of people and the professional situation both groups of participants find themselves in at the time of the interview, as this may also have an effect on their attitudes and beliefs concerning the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom.

3.2.1. Core Curricula

The learning of English begins in NRW in primary school. Here, according to the Core Curriculum, the introduction of English lessons forms the basis for life-long foreign language learning (Ministerium für Schule und Bildung des Landes Nordrhein-Westfalen, 2012: 71). During these lessons, the majority of children

will come into contact with the English language for the first time and will be instructed in the basics of the language (ibid.). Primary school aims to foster initial motivation for language learning and to introduce young learners to learning strategies which can be applied to the learning of English, as well as other languages, in their further schooling career (ibid.).

Following the completion of four years at primary school, children in NRW are separated according to abilities into different types of schools for their continued education. Primary school teachers provide parents with a recommendation as to which school they feel is best suited for a given child. In NRW, unlike in some Federal States of Germany, such as Bavaria, this recommendation is not binding and parents are allowed to register their child at whichever school they deem suitable (Ministerium für Schule und Bildung des Landes Nordrhein-Westfalen, 2020: § 8). The *Hauptschule* offers pupils a basic general education which focuses on vocational preparation. At the *Realschule* both practical skills and theoretical knowledge are taught through an extended general education. Finally, the *Gymnasium* offers an in-depth general education with the goal of completing the *Abitur* (German qualification attained after 12 or 13 years of schooling). There are also further schools in NRW which do not exactly adhere to this three-tiered system. Those are the *Gesamtschule*, the *Sekundarschule* and the *Förderschule*. The *Gesamtschule* is a school where pupils of all abilities learn together. Pupils can also do their *Abitur* at the *Gesamtschule*. The *Sekundarschule* is a new addition in NRW and offers a further possibility for all abilities to learn together along with longer school days. Finally, the *Förderschule* is an opportunity for pupils with special needs to receive specialised help throughout their education (ibid., 2019).

The English Core Curriculum for the *Hauptschule* outlines the main goals for the subject (ibid., 2011: 8). At this school, English language teaching intends to build on the skills and competencies attained in primary school in order to promote communicative competencies, primarily to prepare the learners for a vocational course of education. The Core Curricula for the *Realschule*, the *Gymnasium* and *Gesamtschule* highlight the role of English as a world language, stressing the importance of the development of communicative competencies in English language teaching and learning (ibid., 2004: 11; ibid. 2007: 11; ibid., 2004^b: 11). In the *Abitur* Core Curriculum, the importance of the

English language in the world is also emphasised. Moreover, this curriculum mentions the role of EFL teaching for preparing pupils not only for their private and professional lives but also for higher education as well as the importance of English as a scientific and academic language (ibid., 2014: 11). In Germany, the disappointing PISA study results led to a reform of educational standards and the Core Curricula, with them shifting to a focus on competencies and output rather than content and input (Thaler, 2012: 19). In each of the Core Curricula for the various types of schools in NRW, these competencies can be found. There is a great deal of overlap among the curricula with the *Grundschule*, *Hauptschule*, *Realschule*, *Gymnasium* and *Gesamtschule*, all working with the competencies.



(ibid., 2014: 20)

It is also of central importance to this thesis to look at what the various Core Curricula say concerning the use of the L1 in English lessons. These documents serve as the basis for the teaching of English in NRW and, hence, should inform the practice of the teacher trainers and teacher trainees being interviewed. The English Core Curriculum for primary school does not give any information concerning the use of the L1 or L2. In the Core Curriculum for the

Hauptschule, there is no general information offered concerning the use of language but it is mentioned as a skill to be achieved that pupils learn to use English as the working language during cooperative phases of learning in lessons (ibid., 2011: 33). The Core Curricula for the *Realschule*, *Gymnasium* and *Gesamtschule*, on the other hand, offer general information concerning the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom. They state that “*das Prinzip der Einsprachigkeit wird als funktionale einsprachige Unterrichtsgestaltung realisiert*” (ibid., 2004: 12; ibid., 2007: 12; ibid., 2004^b: 12). Although the curricula do not elaborate on the further meaning of this statement or offer any sources, it can be assumed that it is basing its recommendations concerning language use on the work of Wolfgang Butzkamm and his approach of *Aufgeklärte Einsprachigkeit* or *funktionale Fremdsprachigkeit* (Butzkamm, 1973). Butzkamm discusses the emergence of the monolingual principle in the 1950s and its application to the teaching of foreign languages (ibid., 13). In his book, he then goes on to propose an expansion of the monolingual principle to a more *aufgeklärte Einsprachigkeit* (enlightened monolingualism) which takes into consideration the important role of the L1 in learning a language. In his understanding, the dogmatic expulsion of the L1 from the classroom should be readdressed, suggesting rather the gradual reduction in the use of the L1 with the final goal of monolingual instruction. He proposes two principles of English language teaching which are relevant for this thesis and seem to inform the Core Curricula for NRW (Butzkamm, 1998: 45-52), namely the *Prinzip der funktionalen Einsprachigkeit* in which he advocates for the early introduction of the foreign language, in this case English, as being the main working language in lessons “*So viel Englisch wie möglich, so wenig Deutsch wie nötig*“. A further principle of interest put forth by Butzkamm is the *Prinzip der muttersprachlichen Vorleistung* which sees the L1 as serving as the foundation of all L2 learning and suggests that bilingual learning strategies could be effective. In practical terms, one bilingual learning strategy that Butzkamm advocates for is his method introduced as the “Sandwich-Technik” (Butzkamm, 2004: 15). This method entails the use of the learners’ L1 by sandwiching it between two L2 utterances of the equivalent word or phrase. In this way, support is offered in the L1 but still in a way which aims for adequate L2 input.

The *Realschule* and *Gymnasium* curricula additionally refer to the use of English during cooperative learning phases during pair or group work (ibid.,

2004: 27; 33; 39; *ibid.*, 2007: 29; 36; 43). Here, the *Gesamtschule* differentiates between the proficiency of their students. In the *G-Kurs* (basic course), up until the end of year 8, pupils can use predominantly German in cooperative group work phases and in the *E-Kurs* (advanced course) pupils are expected to use English as the working language in cooperative learning phases (*ibid.*, 2004^b:38). By the end of year 10, pupils in the G-Kurs are expected to use English for short, limited periods of time during lessons while working in a group or with a partner (*ibid.*, 2004^b: 48). The Core Curriculum for *Abitur* stresses the importance of a monolingual classroom saying that the English language is to be used in all phases of the lessons as the working language (*Arbeitssprache*) and language of communication (*Kommunikationssprache*) (*ibid.*, 2014: 11). Overall, the differing Core Curricula offer varying amount of information concerning the language to be used in class. However, even those curricula that mention the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom do so very briefly and without any further explanation of how this should be applied in concrete situations.

Multilingualism is also mentioned in the Core Curricula. The majority of the curricula use the term “*individuelle Mehrsprachigkeit*” and see EFL teaching as being a gateway to achieving this (*ibid.*, 2004: 12; *ibid.*, 2004^b: 12; *ibid.*, 2007: 12; *ibid.*, 2011: 8; *ibid.*, 2014: 11). Moreover, three of the Core Curricula recognise the reality of multilingualism in the classes being taught and see the importance of taking account of this, although they do not go on to say how this should be done (*ibid.*, 2004: 12; *ibid.*, 2004^b: 12; *ibid.*, 2007: 12).

3.2.2. KMK Standards

The Core Curricula in NRW are based on the standards set out by the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Länder in the Federal Republic of Germany (Kultusministerkonferenz - KMK) (cf. KMK, 2004; KMK, 2005; KMK, 2011; KMK, 2014). With the standards, the KMK aim to guarantee the quality assurance of the educational system in Germany (KMK, 2004: 3; KMK, 2005: 3; KMK: 2014: 5). The standards describe the role of the first foreign language (English/French) in education overall as well as outlining the new competences that schools and teachers should be working with when teaching the subject (KMK, 2004: 6-8; KMK, 2005: 6-8; 2014: 11-12).

The KMK standards for various stages of education do not give any concrete guidance concerning the use of the L1 and L2 in EFL teaching. There is, however, information regarding the role of the L1 and the general principle of multilingualism. All of the standards recognise the reality of the ubiquitous nature of multilingualism in today's society (KMK, 2004: 7; KMK, 2005: 7; KMK, 2011: 2; KMK, 2014: 11). The KMK standards for the *Hauptschule* stress the importance of factoring in the multilingual abilities already present in many pupils at school, stating that any already acquired skills and strategies for learning languages should be fostered and developed further (KMK, 2005: 6). The KMK educational standards for the *Abitur* see foreign language learning as key for the development of multilingualism, stressing the connection of learned languages with previously acquired languages. These can include the first language but also any further languages that have already been learned (KMK, 2014: 11). As part of the *Sprachlernkompetenz* (language learning competence), the standards emphasise the need for developing the competence to reflect upon newly learned languages by looking to and considering previously acquired or learned languages in order to expand on strategies and techniques for how to learn languages (KMK, 2014: 22). The KMK standards also offer suggestions of potential exercises and tasks to use in the foreign language classroom. In one such task, the *Abitur* KMK standards suggest incorporating further known languages into a task in order to promote multilingualism (KMK, 2014: 294). The KMK recommendations for the strengthening of foreign language competences also mention the importance of honouring previously acquired languages, also those other than German, in the early stages of learning English in primary school, stating that the knowledge and experiences of these languages should be utilised (KMK, 2011: 2). Of relevance for this thesis, it becomes apparent that the KMK, influenced certainly by the multilingual turn, is very open to the benefit and use of previously learned languages, both the L1 and earlier L2s, in the learning of a new language. The intention of this guideline is its implication in foreign language classrooms in Germany.

3.2.3. Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

A further important document which informs the Core Curricula for the subject of English in NRW is the Common European Framework of Reference

for Languages (CEFR). The framework is used all over Europe, and other parts of the world, as a guidance for curricula, examinations and teaching materials (Council of Europe, 2001: 1). It was developed with the overall aim of honouring the cultural diversity and the plethora of languages that Europe has to offer by developing and protecting them. Furthermore, it intends to inform and change policy in order to achieve ongoing cooperation and coordination concerning the learning and teaching of languages (ibid., 2). The basis of the framework is conceptually predicated on the Communicative Approach to language teaching (Leung, 2014: 123). The framework stresses the importance of developing an understanding of plurilingualism not as the coexistence of separate languages, independent from one another, but rather as building up “a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact” (Council of Europe, 2001: 4). This concept is further substantiated by examples of how plurilingualism expresses itself in everyday life, for instance, with switching from one language to another or by using multiple languages available to understand the spoken or written word (ibid.). The framework describes a “paradigm shift” (ibid., 5) away from the native speaker ideal as being the holy grail of language learning but towards the development of a “plurilingual competence” (ibid.). This plurilingual competence is described as possessing the skills and knowledge to be able to use languages for the purpose of communication in intercultural interaction. The framework stresses the meaning of this as being a “complex or even composite competence” and not the “superposition or juxtaposition of distinct competences”, moving away from a “compartmentalised” notion of languages (ibid., 168). Just as with the KMK, the Council of Europe positions itself as being very open and understanding of the multilingual reality of classrooms in Europe and intends to honour and foster this through the teaching of further languages.

3.2.4. Teacher training

The two participant groups involved in this thesis are teacher trainers and teacher trainees. It is therefore of importance to outline the teacher training process to best understand these groups’ experiences. In the German federal state of NRW, teacher training is divided into two main phases. Firstly, students have to study at least two major subjects along with Educational Studies at a university. This, since a move away from the traditional State Examination,

comprises both a Bachelor and a Master's degree. During the Master's degree, students have to complete a six-month practical phase at a school. Following the completion of the Master of Education, prospective teachers apply to do their practical training (*Referendariat*) and are assigned a teacher training institute (*Zentrum für schulpraktische Lehrerbildung*) and a school. This practical phase is concluded with the second State Examination (Grimm et al., 2015: 14). During their practical training, the teacher trainees are assigned to a group for each of their two major subjects, led by a teacher trainer (*Fachleiter*). This person visits the teacher trainee a total of five times over the course of their 18-month practical training to assess the trainee's development as a prospective teacher. In accordance with standards developed by the KMK, the Ministry of Education in NRW created a Core Curriculum for the education of future teachers. This document, in accordance with the central principle of seeing opportunity in the challenge that heterogeneity brings, outlines five central aspects which are to guide the teacher training, namely "**Unterricht** für heterogene Lerngruppen gestalten und Lernprozesse nachhaltig anlegen", "**Den Erziehungsauftrag** in Schule und Unterricht wahrnehmen", "**Lernen und Leisten** herausfordern, dokumentieren, rückmelden und beurteilen", "Schülerinnen und Schüler und Eltern **beraten**" and "im **System Schule** mit allen Beteiligten entwicklungsorientiert zusammenarbeiten" (Ministerium für Schule und Bildung des Landes Nordrhein-Westfalen, 2016: 2). These factors act as the guiding principles for the teacher training programme. A further central goal of teacher training is the development of teachers into embodying the characteristics of a reflective practitioner. As defined by Surkamp and Viebrock (2018: 48), a reflective practitioner is a teacher, who, "on the basis of their everyday practices and their experiential knowledge as well as their academic knowledge [...] ideally engage[s] in meaningful reflection and awareness raising [...] which aims at defining problems in professional practice as well as generating and assessing possible solutions".

3.3. For a monolingual classroom

The following section shall delve into arguments in favour of a monolingual classroom when teaching English as a foreign language. Considering the topic of the thesis, it is highly relevant to have a clear background understanding of the arguments surrounding striving for a monolingual classroom. These are

arguments that not only have informed language teaching methodology over the years but that also will inevitably influence the way teachers think about their use of language in the EFL classroom. A profound understanding of the arguments allows for a better understanding of the attitudes and beliefs of the interviewed teacher trainers and teacher trainees.

In short, among the widespread assumptions for successful language teaching exists the notion that L1 usage in a foreign language classroom setting should be avoided at all costs, claiming its detrimental effect to language learning. In this vein, all input and classroom discourse should take place in the L2. This stance is also known as the monolingual principle and is represented, to some extent, by the Maximal Principle which sees some limited value in the L1 but predominantly advocates for an exclusively L2 learning environment and, to a greater extent, by the Virtual Position which advocates for exclusively monolingual classrooms (Macaro, 1997: 91).

3.3.1. The Natural Approach

Throughout the academic pursuit of ascertaining how individuals successfully learn language, scholars have set the idea of the native-speaker as the bench-mark against which all other learners of languages should be measured. In order for foreign and second language learners to attain the native-like level of language proficiency, scholars have postulated that replicating the way in which a first language is learned could be the best way to go about this. This belief is represented by the Natural Approach to language pedagogy which is “based on the use of language in communicative situations without recourse to the use of the native language” (Krashen and Terrell, 1983: 9). In this way, the setting in which a first language is learned, is thought to be best replicated. Deriving from this notion, an early theory that can be used in support of the monolingual foreign language classroom is that of Krashen’s Monitor Theory and more specifically his Input Hypothesis. Krashen posited that the provision of sufficient comprehensible input, referring to second language input which is slightly more advanced than the learner’s current capabilities, is what is required to successfully learn a second language. He claimed that “if input is understood, and there is enough of it, the necessary grammar is automatically provided” (Krashen, 1985: 2). Thus, this hypothesis can be utilised to make the case for a monolingual classroom by emphasising the

importance of as much L2 input as possible as a means to best acquire a second language, the L1 merely being seen in a negative light as it denies the learner valuable L2 input.

However, Krashen's Input Hypothesis has been extensively criticised on many grounds including, among other criticisms, the ambiguous meaning of comprehensible input (Saville-Troike and Barto, 2017: 47-48). On the grounds of negative opinion concerning the oversimplified notion that language can be acquired by merely receiving sufficient input, scholars developed subsequent models to help explain the linguistic processes at hand. One such model serving to extend the idea of the importance of L2 input, as posited by Krashen, stated that input can only lead to successful language learning when it is noticed by the learner, at which point it can be referred to as "intake" (Schmidt, 1990: 138). Factors which play a role in the noticing of language are frequency of encountering items, saliency of items, teaching strategies, learners' skill level in processing and task demands (*ibid.*, 143) and learner motivation (*cf.* Gardner, 1988). This notion can also be used to advocate for a language learning environment in which the L1 is kept to an absolute minimum in order to increase the frequency and then saliency of L2 items, thus leading to more noticing and, consequently, learning.

Krashen's Input Hypothesis was also expanded at a later stage by interactionist theorists with the notion that output in a foreign language was also key to successful language development. Here, it was argued that input alone, as Krashen maintained, is not sufficient to foster successful foreign language learning. The importance of interaction for the successful learning of a second language was first proposed by Long (*cf.* 1980). He postulates that "negotiation for meaning, and especially negotiation work that triggers interactional adjustments by the NS [native speaker] or more competent interlocutor, facilitates acquisition [...]" (Long, 1996: 451-2). Further work by Swain and colleagues (*cf.* Swain, 1985; Swain and Lapkin, 1995) highlights the importance of production in second and foreign language learning. Through the use of output, learners are able to improve their L2 fluency by noticing linguistic problems and, with this information, modifying their output (Swain and Lapkin, 1995: 372-373). The combination of input, interaction and output allows learners to negotiate meaning and receive both positive and negative evidence, seen in

this approach as key components in learning a foreign language. The postulated significant importance of output for the successful learning of a foreign language can also be drawn upon as an argument for the extensive, if not exclusive, use of the L2 in the foreign language classroom because this testing of hypotheses through frequent and extensive output provides learners with the information they need to develop their linguistic repertoire in the foreign language. This information is gained through L2 production and not L1 usage.

The understanding of the input-interaction-output models as being support for the development of exclusively L2 learning environments has been perpetuated by many scholars working in the field of foreign language pedagogy. The ideas put forth by Krashen (1985) and Krashen and Terrell (1983) are reflected to a certain extent in the pedagogical idea of the “Sprachbad” which is often used in German speaking countries to denote the approach of immersive foreign language teaching of which one aim is exclusively L2 instruction (Ott, 2011: 68). This term is not only used to denote immersive language teaching but also the regular foreign language classroom. The notion of the “Sprachbad” implies the importance of surrounding the learners in as rich an L2 environment as possible during their foreign language lessons with extended phases of L2 input. As is the case for many learners, the EFL classroom represents the only space in which they have the opportunity to receive input in the foreign language, “because little opportunity exists for exposure to the L2 outside the classroom, the *quantity* of L2 input is especially important” (Duff and Polio, 1990: 154). Hawkins (1987: 97- 98) poetically draws the comparison between teaching foreign languages and “gardening in the gale”. The seeds of L2 input which are sown during the foreign language lessons are blown away and lost during the periods of time in between lessons during which no L2 input is provided, thus supporting the argument for as much L2 input as possible during the times the learners are in the foreign language classroom. The importance of teacher-input in the L2 is highlighted by the fact that “[i]n the language classroom, the teacher is the only source of spoken foreign language which the pupils experience live with the paralinguistic support which is non-existent on recorded audio tapes” (Chambers, 1991: 28). Therefore, Chambers sees the exclusive use of the L2 in the foreign language classroom as being the marker of a good language education and uncontroversial in its theoretical basis (ibid., 27). With intense exclusively L2

input and effective means of practice to allow learner output opportunities in the L2, the “teachers can feel confident that they are giving their pupils a proper chance to acquire the language in classroom conditions” (ibid., 31). As a further proponent of extensive and exclusive L2 input, Chaudron (1988: 121) supports the notion that successful language learning is achieved “by means of the teaching providing a rich TL environment, in which not only instruction and drill are executed in the TL, but also disciplinary and management operations”. If these aspects are indeed conducted in the L1, it would be to “deprive the learners of valuable input in the L2” (Ellis, 1984: 133).

Moreover, of note is that the amount of L2 input in foreign language classrooms has an effect on learning success, with more TL input being shown to have a positive effect. Following the analysis of an extensive questionnaire administered to language learners, Carroll, Clark, Edwards and Handrick (1967: 202) established the amount of L2 used by both the teacher and learner in the foreign language classroom as being positively correlated with the overall linguistic achievement of the learner. In a study looking at the language use of four teachers of French, results showed that the learners in the classes of the two teachers who spoke the most French (54 and 89 per cent of the time) outperformed the classes with the two teachers who spoke the least L2 (28 and 9 per cent of the time), concerning general L2 proficiency (Turnbull, 1999: 559). Turnbull is, however, cautious in claiming causality as further statistical analyses to hold other factors constant were not able to be conducted due to the small sample size (ibid., 557).

Further connections to the input-interaction-output hypotheses can be found in the field of cognitive linguistics. User-based models of language learning are used to describe the way language is learned through the “exposure to numerous *usage events*” (Tyler, 2017: 73). These usage-events are needed to acquire language because “[f]ull control of an item only comes after multiple exposures and multiple attempts by the learner to use it to express her own meaning” (ibid., 74). Hence, in support of Krashen’s (1985) Input Hypothesis, Long’s (1980) Interaction Hypothesis and Swain and Lapkin’s (1995) Output Hypothesis, usage-based models also posit that input, interaction and output are of central importance to the learning of a new language. Essentially, “[f]requency of exposure promotes learning” and this holds true for all facets of

language learning, “input frequency affects the processing of phonology and phonotactics, reading, spelling, lexis, morphosyntax, formulaic language, language comprehension, grammaticality, sentence production, and syntax” (Ellis and Cadierno, 2009: 118). Thus, one can see usage-based models to language learning as further support for the extensive, if not exclusive use of the L2 in the foreign language classroom.

3.3.2. Motivation and authenticity

Use of the target language has been seen by some scholars to increase learner motivation (cf. Macdonald, 1993; Wong-Fillimore, 1985). Firstly, the exclusive use of the L2 has the potential to increase learner motivation by allowing the learners to perceive the L2 as useful, as it represents the only possible means of communication in the foreign language classroom. Moreover, the use of the L2 in the classroom increases learner motivation by providing a real, practical context in which the L2 can be used. Finally, motivation is developed by providing enjoyment and immediate success by fostering new ways for learners to communicate and express themselves.

The idea of increased motivation through exclusive L2 use can also be seen reflected in the pedagogical approach of authenticity in EFL classrooms. It is one aim in EFL teaching to provide students with authentic and real situations and materials in lessons in order to increase motivation by creating genuine situations in which the English language can be used (De Florio-Hansen, 2010: 263). The Core Curricula for English in NRW make use of the word “*authentisch*” numerous times, highlighting a plethora of teaching situations in which authentic texts, conversational situations and listening activities should be utilised (Ministerium für Schule und Bildung des Landes Nordrhein-Westfalen, 2004; *ibid.*, 2004^b; *ibid.*, 2007; *ibid.*, 2011; *ibid.*, 2014). But what exactly is meant by authentic? Gilmore (2007) differentiates multiple understandings of the complex phenomenon of authenticity in foreign language learning. As well as definitions which pertain to the materials provided in the EFL classroom, certain understandings reflect “the social or cultural [classroom] situation and purposes of the communicative act” (*ibid.*, 98). In this sense, one could understand striving for exclusive L2 use in the EFL classroom as creating an authentic situation to learn English within the EFL classroom, replicating real-life English-speaking opportunities found outside of the EFL classroom, such as

living in an English-speaking country. A further differentiation in the understanding of authenticity has been made between “text authenticity” and “learner authenticity”, the latter referring to the learner’s response to the given materials (Lee, 1995: 323). In this way, authenticity cannot be reduced to the provision of authentic materials and an authentic learning environment, but taking into consideration the learners’ response to these stimuli is of utmost importance.

Some scholars then see this creation of authentic language learning situations by means of an exclusive L2 learning environment as paramount to providing optimal language learning opportunities, “maximizing the TL in the classroom will ensure a lively and engaging language experience that can approximate authentic language use and make language learning meaningful to learners” (Moeller and Roberts, 2013: 35). Moreover, “by using the TL in the classroom not only as a ‘target’ to be learnt but also for other purposes, students are more likely to perceive it as a useful medium for communication and develop more positive motivation to learn it” (Littlewood and Yu, 2011: 66). Turnbull uses anecdotal evidence to highlight the positive effect that exclusive L2 use can have on motivation, stating how his students were always grateful for his insistence of creating a monolingual classroom, albeit not in the beginning, because it over time led them to seeing how they could use the L2 in real-life communication (Turnbull, 2001: 534). In this vein, if teachers often switch languages or allow switching in the EFL classroom, learners could cease to believe in the necessity and authenticity of the language as the medium of communication in that setting. Creation of an authentic, exclusively L2 language setting is not only seen to increase motivation but also has been shown to build up students’ confidence and decrease anxiety. A study conducted by Levine (2003: 352) showed that there was a negative correlation between perceived amount of L2 usage in the foreign language classroom and L2-use-anxiety.

3.3.3. Development of coping strategies

It has been suggested that exclusive use of the L2 is beneficial for the development of coping strategies. A very important coping strategy, key to learning a language, is ambiguity tolerance. Ambiguity tolerance is defined as “the degree to which you are cognitively willing to tolerate ideas and propositions that run counter to your own belief system or structure of

knowledge” (Brown, 2000: 119). Learners’ ability to deal with ambiguity, which is rife when learning a foreign language, is “likely to hinder or facilitate language learning” (Başöz, 2015: 54). Remaining in the L2 allows learners the chance to develop a tolerance for lexical items and linguistic cues they are not familiar with and are, hence, interpreted as being ambiguous in meaning. As stated by Wong-Fillmore (1985:35), being able to “figure out” the meaning of an utterance is a key component in language learning, something which is then short-cut if a L1 translation is readily offered. This aspect of “figuring out” is something which then needs to be trained because “ambiguity-tolerant learners are likely to be happy with learning a new language in spite of its uncertainties” (Başöz, 2015: 55). If the L1 is continually used as soon as learner frustration due to ambiguity arises, then this learning strategy will not be fostered effectively. Numerous studies have shown that learners’ levels of ambiguity tolerance are positively correlated to many aspects of language learning and overall language achievement (see Başöz, 2015 for an overview), therefore providing further support for the avoidance of the L1 in the L2 classroom.

3.3.4. Interference

A further argument which has been used to advocate for the avoidance of the L1 in L2 learning is due to potential interference. This is something that has predominantly been the focus of bilingual education programmes which have “traditionally argued that languages should be kept separate in the learning and teaching of languages” (Creese and Blackledge, 2010: 104). By doing so, it is believed that “the teacher avoids [...] cross contamination, thus making it easier for the child to acquire a new linguistic system and he/she internalizes a given lesson” (Jacobson and Faltis, 1990: 4). Some scholars posit that proficiency in both languages is positively correlated with a “progressively greater success at separating the two languages” which is made possible by “the two languages being taught as separate entities in the classroom” (Murtagh, 1982: 30). This notion of separating languages has been referred to as “two solitudes” (Cummins, 2005: 588) and “parallel monolingualisms” (Heller, 1999: 34). The approach of separating languages while learning has also been supported by some psycholinguistic research on the topic which shows that “at least some elements of the L1 and L2 are stored in separate areas of the brain and processed in different ways” (Siegel, 1999: 711). Although this idea has, for the

most part, gained traction in the field of bilingual and immersion education, EFL classroom pedagogy has also based some of its common assumptions on this notion. Proponents of this idea maintain that by keeping the two languages strictly separate, using only the L2 and avoiding classroom code-switching, negative transfer, or interference, that is the “inappropriate influence of an L1 structure or rule on L2 use” (Saville-Troike and Barto, 2017: 214) can be avoided to some extent. This has manifested itself in the EFL classroom, for example, through the Direct Method (Cook, 2001: 4), as touched upon in the previous section. Three common principles of such approaches with the aim of compartmentalising languages include the beliefs that teaching should be exclusively carried out using the L2, translating between the L1 and L2 is strongly discouraged including the use of bilingual dictionaries and, finally, the two languages should be kept entirely separate (Cummins, 2005: 588).

3.3.5. Lack of a common L1

A further argument for the strict avoidance of the L1 in EFL classrooms comes from the fact that it is nowadays not as simple as there being one L1 for all learners in the classroom. According to the Bundeszentrale für politische Bildung, in 2017 there were 19.3 million people living in Germany who have a migration background. This represents 43.9 per cent of children in NRW (Bundeszentrale für politische Bildung, 2018). This means that a great deal of these children have another language, other than German, which they can also speak, for some of them it constituting the stronger language. The PISA studies shed light on the difficulties that these children face, concluding that “the educational achievement of pupils with a migration background is substantially lower than the achievement of their counterparts”, which held true even for those who had conducted all of their schooling in Germany (Ertl, 2006: 621). The close connection of migration background with lower socio-economic status was also shown to have an effect on educational success. These, among other findings, caused the so called PISA “shock” in Germany and underlined the need for changes to address the fact that the “German education system fares badly in terms of the integration of pupils with a migration background” (ibid.). In order to allow for all learners to be included and not discriminated against in EFL classrooms, it could be argued that it is of importance that the lessons be held exclusively in the L2 so as not to disadvantage learners with an L1 other

than German by offering additional assistance and scaffolding in German (Elsner, 2015: 75). In the idea of fairness, it could then be deemed necessary to restrict the use of any learners' L1 in the L2 classroom and insisting on a monolingual classroom could be best way to approach this.

3.3.6. Poor excuses

Scholars have also talked about the problems of teachers with implementing an exclusively L2 instructional approach as merely being excuses deriving from avoidance of an approach which is potentially more challenging and inevitably entails proactive forethought, planning and perseverance. Franklin (1990: 20-21) sees excuses often cited by teachers as belonging to four different categories: the nature of the class, such as class size and language proficiency, the reaction of the class, such as their behaviour, teacher confidence in own language abilities and finally, external factors, such as examinations. Moreover, opponents of L1 usage have connected the inability to conduct a foreign language class purely in the L2 as being indicative of a lack of proficiency and poor training (Harbord, 1992: 350). This point that lack of skill is a central reason as to why some teachers are likely to switch is reiterated by other scholars, "less skilled and less proficient teachers simply succumb to the ease of conducting the class in the MT [mother tongue]" (Butzkamm and Caldwell, 2009: 86).

In conclusion, the section above addresses in detail arguments in support of an exclusively L2 classroom and, hence, avoidance of the L1. This theoretical background is often drawn upon, either explicitly or implicitly, when attitudes and beliefs concerning the use of the L1 in the foreign language classroom are considered. These shall be taken into consideration when analysing the empirical data gathered for this project. At the end of chapter 3.4.9. an overview of the afore-mentioned arguments in favour of a monolingual classroom is offered.

3.4. Against a monolingual classroom

On the opposite side of the spectrum, the L1 is accepted by some as a helpful and necessary tool for language learning. The arguments put forth in this section shall contend that "an inflexible and extreme virtual position that excludes the learner's first language in communicative and immersion second

or foreign language classrooms is untenable” (Turnbull and Daily O’Cain, 2009: 182). This belief is represented by the Optimal Position which maintains that the L1 could indeed serve a pedagogical purpose in the foreign language classroom (Macaro, 1997: 91). This position is maintained by making use of various arguments and theoretical approaches which shall be considered in the following section of the thesis. Similarly to the previous section on arguments in favour of a monolingual classroom, it is of utmost importance for this thesis to present the other side of the ongoing debate concerning the place and role of the L1 in the EFL classroom in order to best explore the attitudes and beliefs of teacher trainers and teacher trainees concerning the topic.

3.4.1. Vygotskian theory

One theory often drawn on by scholars advocating for an allowance of the L1 as a tool in the L2 classroom is Vygotskian theory of cognitive development, often more commonly referred to as Socio-Cultural Theory. Vygotsky saw the importance of language for “the transformation of elementary processes into higher order ones” (Lantolf and Appel, 1994: 6). His work has been “particularly appropriate to SLA, where language is both the mediating tool and the object of learning” (Moore, 2013: 240). In his work, he stressed the importance of the L1 when learning an L2, “in learning a new language one does not return to the immediate world of objects and does not repeat past linguistic developments but uses instead the native language as a mediator between the world of objects and the new language” (Vygotsky, 1986: 161). He recognises a fundamental difference between the L1 and the L2, “[t]he acquisition of a foreign language differs from the acquisition of the native one precisely because it uses the semantics of the native language as its foundation” (Vygotsky, 1986: 159-160). It is this aspect of the L1 foundation which is of central importance when teaching a language. Ignoring the L1 in the L2 classroom, trying to avoid it at all costs, ignores this key foundation with which learners are working when encountering a new language. Recognising the use of the L1 in the L2 classroom allows for a better understanding of the L1 itself and “[t]he child’s approach to language becomes more abstract and generalized” (ibid., 160).

Swain and Lapkin (2013) use Socio-Cultural Theory to look at the use of the L1 in immersion education. Language, according to Vygotsky, “function[s] as a psychological tool that mediates, that is, regulates or organizes, our thinking”

(Swain and Lapkin, 2013: 104). In this way, language is not only “a means of communicating what is in one person’s head to another person” (ibid., 105) but much more than that. It “serves to construct the very idea that one is hoping to convey” (ibid.) and “the first language is the most powerful tool for doing so” (ibid., 113). Swain and Lapkin advocate for the allowance of L1 in moments of private or egocentric speech. For Vygotsky, private speech is of utmost importance and is a “pervasive, and profound part of the higher psychological processes; speech acts to organize, unify and integrate many disparate aspects of children’s behaviour such as perception, memory, and problem solving” (1978: 126). Due to the importance of private speech in addressing cognitively challenging tasks during which output has to be produced in the L2, Swain and Lapkin particularly advocate for its allowance in beginner and intermediate L2 learners (ibid., 122). Although Swain and Lapkin’s considerations of Socio-Cultural Theory are for the immersion setting, they can be applied, to some extent, to the EFL setting. Language is used in the EFL classroom to convey sometimes cognitively complex meaning. According to Socio-Cultural Theory, learners require their L1 to mediate cognitively complex tasks and content. A study conducted by Centeno-Cortéz and Jiménez (2004) looked at private speech and produced the results that native speakers, advanced learners and intermediate learners of Spanish used an increasing amount of their English L1 in their instances of private speech, allowing them to complete the tasks successfully. This study showed the importance of the L1 as a language-learning tool, particularly in the earlier stages of language learning.

In addition to the notion of private speech in the L1 as being important when it comes to learning a second language, communication in the L1 in general has been shown to be of importance. In a study conducted in a Spanish foreign language learning setting, Vygotsky’s ideas concerning the interconnectedness of thinking and speaking and linguistic signs, in this case metatalk between participants, as being used to organise and plan the execution of tasks were explored (Brooks and Donato, 1994). The study showed the majority of the metatalk to occur in the L1, which considering Socio-Cultural Theory is not surprising because metatalk is the “out loud” representation of metacognition which, according to Vygotsky is “semiotically constructed, primarily through language” (ibid., 267). The researchers conclude that “verbal thinking mediates ones relationship with the new language and with language itself (in this case

the learners' L1) and is quite necessary and natural" (ibid., 268). Similar conclusions are drawn by Swain and Lapkin (2000) in their work where they analyse speech with the backdrop of Socio-Cultural Theory, stating that "collaborative dialogue, in the L1 or L2, mediates L2 learning" (ibid. 2254) and by Scott and De La Fuente (2008), who suggest that the allowed use of the L1 for metatalk "reduces cognitive overload" (ibid., 100). In this way, Socio-Cultural Theory can be used to understand the importance of the L1 as a valuable communicative tool which can be used in collaborative work and private speech to allow higher order cognitive processes to occur and, hence, the successful completion of the task and production of an L2 product.

3.4.2. Interconnectedness of language

The dichotomous view of the compartmentalisation of languages and the insistence of L2-exclusivity in the foreign language classroom "flies in the face of the centrality of language interaction in the ecology of multilingualism" (Sridhar, 1994: 802). In contrast to the notion of keeping languages separate, as proposed as an argument for the implementation of an exclusively L2 learning environment in section 3.3.4., some scholars use the argument of languages being, in their nature, inextricably linked in the mind as reason to make use of the L1 in L2 learning. Looking at language learning from a cognitive perspective, "learners who have mastered their L1 are sophisticated cognitive individuals, who invariably draw upon their L1 to make sense of the world, new concepts, and a new language" (De la Campa and Nassaji 2009: 743). Moreover, "the code separation view, with its associated mental model of the compartmentalization of linguistic knowledge does not correspond to the facts of bilinguals' everyday communicative experience" (Gumperz and Cook-Gumperz, 2005: 2). Denying learners the use of the L1 would be denying them access to powerful tools for learning, "the majority of concepts for FL learners will have been experienced through the L1 and will therefore be strongly linked to L1 concepts" (Hennebry, Rogers, Macaro and Murphy., 2017: 284). Ellis and Cadierno describe the process of learning an L2 as "reconstructing a language" in the way that novel L2 information is "in direct competition with [that] of the learners' L1, and [this] may represent alternative ways of constructing the same reality" (Ellis and Cadierno, 2009: 112). The English language learning situation for the majority of people is that is they are learning it in addition to an already

available L1. Therefore, it can certainly be argued that treating the classroom as if it were a monolingual setting is not doing justice to the wealth of knowledge, linguistic and otherwise that EFL learners bring to the table.

Widely quoted when referring to the connected nature of languages is Cummins' Interdependence Hypothesis (Cummins, 1979) and common underlying proficiency (Cummins, 2000). With the Interdependence Hypothesis, Cummins puts forth an understanding of the L1 and L2 as being linked and the developed competences in each as being mutually influential (Cummins, 1979: 233). Common underlying proficiency, a further idea which supports the interrelatedness of languages, refers to the "cognitive/ academic proficiency that underlines academic performance in both languages" (Cummins, 2000: 38), maintaining that, rather than being worried about negative transfer, knowledge of the connection between languages can help "realize the benefits of cross-linguistic transfer" (ibid., 39). Cummins' common underlying proficiency is often described using the analogy of an iceberg. Above the water are the surface, less cognitively demanding, features of the L1 and L2, seen as two separate peaks of an iceberg, not touching. Underneath the surface of the water, the iceberg peaks are in fact connected and what is found below the surface, the common underlying proficiency, is much more substantial than what can be seen on the surface. Here, higher order cognitive processes take place, suggesting the importance of the interconnectedness of the two languages and the network of resources they offer the learner. The model suggests that although it may, on the surface, seem possible to separate the two languages, that is in fact a cognitive impossibility. A further model, which can be used to support the interconnected nature of languages in the mind is that of bilingual language modes which is defined as "the state of activation of the bilingual's languages and language processing mechanisms at a given point in time" (Grosjean, 2001: 3). Moreover, and more importantly for the case of L1 use, Grosjean claims that either one of any languages in the mind can never fully be deactivated (ibid., 8), once again highlighting the impossibility of complete avoidance of the learner's L1 in the L2 classroom and contradicting the idea that a bilingual individual is merely the sum of two monolinguals.

One motivation behind the compartmentalisation of languages has been the belief that keeping them separate avoids negative transfer and, in turn, errors.

Nowadays, widely accepted consensus among researchers in the field of cross linguistic influence is that “L2 learners rely on their already familiar languages to aid the learning process, and that they do so both unknowingly and strategically” (Ortega, 2019: 415). Moreover, “[w]hen students’ L1 is invoked as a cognitive and linguistic resource through bilingual instructional strategies, it can function as a stepping stone to scaffold more accomplished performance in the L2” (Cummins, 2007: 238). The academic field of cross linguistic influence has shown that language transfer cannot be reduced to being merely a cause for errors and, hence, utilised as support for the separation of languages in the foreign language classroom. Rather than being detrimental to language learning, cross linguistic influence has also been proven to “afford adult learners an acceleration of development in many areas” (Ortega, 2019: 417). Moreover, it has been shown that cross linguistic influence is not directly linked to proficiency in an L2, some influence occurring at earlier stages of learning, then disappearing and some making an appearance only later on in learning (ibid.). Finally, transfer also works as a two-way system with influence occurring from the L2 back towards the L1 (ibid.). Moreover, as found by Källkvist (2008 in Cook, 2010: 90), numerous studies “suggest that explicit contrastive information coupled with error correction enhances the learning of grammatical structures”. Further scholars have also moved away from the idea of negative transfer, rooted in monolingual thinking, to reframe the influence that the L1 can have on the L2, using the phrase “the role of the mother tongue” rather than the negatively connotated “interference” to reframe the understanding of the influence that languages have on each other (Corder, 1992: 19). Moreover, transfer has been re-evaluated to look at it not so much as a process of the L1 influencing the development of the L2 but as a multidimensional process of all languages encountered by an individual exerting influence upon each other (De Angelis, 2019: 166).

From a neurolinguistic perspective, although the L1 and L2 are shown to be separate to some extent, they also show some deal of overlap, “the area common to both L1 and L2 storage is near the Sylvian fissure in the left hemisphere (already established as the primary language area for monolinguals [...])” (Saville-Troike and Barto, 2017: 76). Furthermore, studies using MRI scans to assess brain activation during the use of L1 and L2 of late-onset, medium proficiency bilinguals found that “L1 and L2 elicited highly overlapping

activations in frontal, temporal, and parietal lobes” which the researchers see as support for the view “that L1 and L2 are mediated by a unitary neural system despite late age of acquisition” (Gandour, Tong, Talavage, Wong, Dziedzic and Lowe, 2007: 94). Therefore, it is important for teachers to move away from a one-way, simplified view of cross linguistic influence as being something negative which can be avoided by separating the languages. It is a process far more complex than this and something which is important and beneficial in many stages of language learning.

The interconnectedness of languages is also highlighted in terms of vocabulary learning in the Hierarchical Model (Kroll and Stewart, 1994: 158), which suggests that, when being confronted with novel L2 lexical items, learners make use of the L1 to access and process the new words. “It thus seems inappropriate to regard teachers’ L1 use as a source of negative interference” (Zhao and Macaro, 2016: 78). A further model put forth by Jiang (2000) and used to explain the connection between the L1 and the L2 in the case of vocabulary learning proposes three stages of vocabulary learning. Firstly, encountering a new L2 lexical item leads to the activation of the L1 translation equivalent. Following this, the connection between the two lexical items is strengthened in the so-called lemma mediation stage, during which semantic and syntactical information available from the L1 are attached to the L2. Finally, in the L2 integration stage, semantic and syntactical information specific to the L2 lexical item, which have been established through repeated exposure to the word, are integrated into the L2 item (Jiang, 2000: 50-53). Schütze describes the common occurrence of transferring meaning from a known L1 lexical item to a novel L2 lexical item as follows with the example of an American English learner of German, “[...] the concept of a house is transferred from the learners’ experience growing up in a house in North America to the German word for house (which is “Haus”), although a typical German house might look very different” (Schütze, 2016: 87). Hence, it is of utmost importance when teaching learners an L2 to recognise the extent of knowledge connected to L1 lexical items that they already possess and acknowledge that this L1 knowledge will have a profound effect on their understanding of the L2. Allowing for recognition of this fact, rather than avoiding any mention of L1 connections due to a strict L2-only policy will enable learners to establish the commonalities and differences between L1 and L2

lexical items, developing a deeper understanding and networking of lexical items in both languages. Moreover, translation is a preferred learning technique of second and foreign language learners, especially for those at a beginner or intermediate level (Harbord, 1992: 350), which is understandable concerning the models of L2 vocabulary learning outlined above and the intrinsic interconnectedness of L1 and L2 lexical items. Macaro also discusses the use of the L1 for various language learning strategies, including vocabulary learning, as being of potential benefit, “it is used both for semantic comparison, for storage of lexical items and for some aspects of syntax” (Macaro, 2001: 105).

This notion of the strong interconnected nature of languages is further proposed by Butzkamm who calls for a recognition of the importance of the L1, seeing it as being the essential “foundation for all other languages we might want to learn” (Butzkamm and Caldwell, 2009: 13). Cook (2010: 128) also sees then the benefit of the combination of the L1 and L2 for foreign language learning and advocates for an “accommodation between intra-lingual and cross-lingual teaching in which each recognises the complementary strengths of the other [...]”. It will be of interest to see how these ideas and theories concerning the interconnectedness of language find their way into the attitudes and practices of teacher trainers and teacher trainees concerning the use of the L1 in the foreign language classroom.

3.4.3. Multilingual space

Another idea relevant for this thesis is the argument for the recognition of the EFL classroom as a multilingual rather than a monolingual space. This naturally influences language choice within the classroom by the teacher and attitudes held concerning the use of the L1. As highlighted by Sridhar (1994: 800), “[g]iven that the aim of SLA is bilingualism, one would expect SLA theories to build on theories of bilingualism and use the natural laboratory of bilingual communities”. This, however, very often does not seem to be the case. In the foreign language classroom, learners tend to share a common L1, very often also have an additional L1 or a different L1 entirely and are hence learning English as either an L2 or even L3. In this way, the foreign language learning classroom arguably represents a multilingual space. Seeing as code-switching is a natural phenomenon in situations and communities where people speak more than one language, it figures that it has a place in the foreign language

classroom, a space in which people speak more than one language. Simon discusses the classroom code-switching practices found in foreign language classrooms as being characterised by a “dissymmetrical mastery of the code by the participants [...] It is clear that there is here a very real potential for code-switching to occur as the participants (teacher and learners) are aware of the linguistic resources available to them despite the constraints” (Simon, 2000: 316). Here, code-switching is considered as an option to make use of all available linguistic resources in order to enable successful communication. Moreover, code-switching is also used as part of the multilingual language community represented in the classroom in order to display a change in roles, “[i]nterventions in the native language, a shared social code, sometimes reflect a return to non-teacher and non-learner-guise in the interaction” (ibid., 317). Hence, the foreign language classroom represents a highly complex social and institutional setting in which the use of both codes are necessary on multiple levels. Denying this speech community the chance to make use of these codes could stifle the communication potential. Upholding a monoglossic ideal in the foreign language classroom, “positions languages as objects of study as opposed to means of communication, and insists on what many bilinguals and multilinguals would maintain is an unnatural and inauthentic way of speaking” (Fuller, 2019: 125). Furthermore, “as the use of L1 is a sign of learners’ sociolinguistic expression of their emerging bilingual status, it bridges their identity as speakers of L1 with the creation of a new self in the L2” (De la Campa and Nassaji, 2009: 743). Therefore, if the goal of foreign language teaching is multilingualism, as is stated in the Core Curricula for NRW (Ministerium für Schule und Bildung des Landes Nordrhein-Westfalen, 2004: 12; ibid., 2004^b: 12; ibid., 2007: 12; ibid., 2011: 8; ibid., 2014: 11), then social and linguistic practices common to multilinguals should conceivably be allowed and even fostered.

In comparison to the argument in section 3.3.5., supporting an exclusively L2 language learning setting due to the lack of a common L1, the existence of learners from various linguistic and cultural backgrounds in the EFL classroom in NRW could be taken as reason to encourage the use of the L1 so as to avoid exclusion. It is of utmost importance to honour the various linguistic backgrounds of the learners and not sweep them under the carpet. Cummins outlines how “students tend to perform very poorly in countries that have been

characterized by highly negative attitudes towards immigrants (e.g., Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Germany)” (Cummins, 2015: 99). Moreover, the acceptance of minority languages and use of them in bilingual education is shown to be highly effective for overall learning (ibid., 102) and if this is not feasible in any given schooling context the “instruction that engages students’ multilingual repertoires represents an effective tool for teachers to scaffold meaning, connect to students’ lives, affirm their identities, and enhance awareness of how academic language works” (ibid., 103). Although this approach should primarily be taken in subjects being taught using the majority L1, it is important to expand this way of thinking and apply it to the EFL context. This is what will lead to better inclusion of students with a minority language as their L1 because “there is a clear link between societal power relations, identity negotiation, and task performance” (ibid., 106). Therefore, this problem has to be addressed across all facets of education and, hence, also has to be considered in the EFL classroom.

A concept put forth by Cook to highlight a new way that we should consider multilingual learners is that of “multi-competence”. The term is defined as “the knowledge of more than one language in the same mind” (Cook, 2001: 194). With this concept, he advocates for a move away from the notion of monolingualism as the norm and puts forth the idea that the multilingual speaker “should be considered in their own right, not as a monolingual who has tacked on another language onto their repertoire” (ibid., 195). This understanding is also put forth by Sridhar under the guise of “the composite pragmatic model of bilingualism”, which he describes as a model recognising that “a bilingual acquires as much competence in the two (or more) languages as is needed and that all of the languages together serve the full range of communicative needs” (Sridhar, 1994: 802). In this vein, Cook posits that it be accepted that foreign language classrooms make use of the L1 and maintains the futility of insisting on monolingual classroom settings, “it is an illusion that having only the second language in the classroom forces the students to avoid their first language; it simply makes it invisible” (Cook, 2001: 196). Cook’s approach to language learning is reflected by other scholars, “[m]ultilinguals and learners who are in the process of becoming multilingual should not be viewed as imitation monolinguals in a second or additional language, but rather they

should be seen as possessing unique forms of competence, or competencies in their own right” (Cenoz and Gorter, 2011: 340).

Canagarajah also advocates for an overhaul of standard language teaching practices, “SLA accounts for multilingual competence one language at a time, when in reality, this type of competence is more than the sum of the parts, and constitutes a qualitatively different whole” (Canagarajah, 2007: 933). Moreover, the past goal of teaching languages to prepare learners for communication in monolingual settings is slowly becoming outdated as well as “neither useful, desirable, or attainable” (Hall and Cook, 2012: 276). Rather, the encouraged use of bilingual and multilingual linguistic strategies is much more fitting to the multilingual environments that await the majority of today’s speakers of English (ibid.). Overall, the notion shared is that of an approach to language learning more accepting of multilingualism being the norm, and hence, acknowledging the benefits of using all linguistic resources available to the learner.

3.4.4. Linguistic awareness

Furthering this idea of accepting multilinguals and their pre-existing linguistic resources in a more multilingual classroom, Jessner (2006: 3) outlines a wide-ranging group of learners, worldwide, who are learning English as a third language, indicating the increasing need to recognise the multilingual nature of language learning. Schnuch (2015: 130) outlines the importance of making use of all available languages in both regular and foreign language lessons in order to facilitate the development of language awareness. Language awareness can be seen as “helping the learners by raising awareness of language itself” (Cook, 2001: 39), which “in general helps their language learning” (ibid., 42). Donmall (1991: 108) highlights the multilingual nature of language awareness in his definition, describing it as “the point of commonality between languages, be they mother tongue, second or foreign language”. Moreover, developing language awareness has a positive effect on further aspects for multilingual learners such as learner motivation and personality development (Schnuch, 2015: 129). Jessner advocates for a re-evaluation of the multilingual learner, criticizing the notion of L1 avoidance in the L2 classroom and relating this to outdated teaching methods pertaining to the approach of contrastive analysis which predominantly considered L1 influence to be negative (Jessner, 2006: 123). She suggests that fostering language awareness by means of cross-

language approaches is advantageous and more in line with how multilinguals process their languages (ibid.). Widdowson reiterates this and questions why “assumptions of the validity of monolingual pedagogy should have survived the discrediting of contrastive analysis” (Widdowson, 2003: 151). It is of central importance to stop viewing languages as compartmentalised and start activating the prior linguistic knowledge available to so many learners in order to enable positive linguistic transfer and utilise this for learning (Schnuch, 2015: 133). For, “with more cognitive views of learning comes the realisation that learners cannot be immunized against the influence of their own language” (Widdowson, 2003: 151). In this vein, teachers need to move away from a reductionist view of language learning, shown through an insistence that the EFL classroom should be a monolingual space, perpetuating the “monolingual habitus” (Goglin, 1997: 38), towards accepting the multilingual context of language learning, so as not to “waste valuable resources for creating synergies and new qualities” (Jessner, 2006: 130). Thus, the use of the learners various L1, and not only the majority L1 of the learners, in the classroom is strongly advocated with the view of fostering language awareness, leading in turn to more successful language learning.

3.4.5. Translanguaging

One recent concept which promotes a new way of looking at language education and the multilingual space represented in the foreign language classroom is that of translanguaging pedagogy. Translanguaging is the idea of making use of all the tools available in a linguistic repertoire in purposeful and strategic ways (García and Tupas, 2018: 395). Scholars advocate for the acceptance of this linguistic practice in English as a second language classrooms (García and Kleifgen, 2018: 83), seeing it as a “philosophy of language and education” (ibid., 80). In the same vein, this idea can be applied to EFL classrooms. Accepting translanguaging practices allows the learner access to all manner of linguistic tools to promote learning. Overall, the acceptance of a more important role in the connections between languages and how these connections can be beneficial can certainly be understood as an argument for the acceptance of the L1 in the L2 classroom. “Banning L1 from the language classroom, on the other hand, would ignore the cognitive reality that connecting new concepts to pre-existing knowledge creates better chances

for language learning success” (De la Campa and Nassaji, 2009: 743). The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages represents this view of languages. It emphasises the importance of recognising the plurilingual nature of society and the individual and stresses the importance of accepting that the learner, “does not keep these languages and cultures in strictly separated mental compartments, but rather builds up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact”. Moreover, the framework clearly advocates the use of translanguaging practices, “[i]n different situations, a person can call flexibly upon different parts of this competence to achieve effective communication with a particular interlocutor [...] partners may switch from one language or dialect to another, exploiting the ability of each to express themselves in one language and to understand the other” (Council of Europe, 2001: 4).

Abney and Krulatz (2015) present numerous suggestions of how multilingual competence can be fostered in the EFL classroom by applying the ideas of translanguaging. Their suggestions encompass welcoming diversity, making use of funds of knowledge, providing a multimodality of input and facilitating multi-literacy, among other aspects. With welcoming diversity and making use of funds of knowledge the authors encourage making use of the wealth of experiences of the learners to create “linguistically and culturally rich classroom environments” (ibid., 2). In a practical sense, this could include conducting language surveys and setting up language peer-tutors and partners (ibid.). Moreover, EFL teachers could have pupils who speak other languages share short translations with the other learners in the class as an “an excellent way to bridge the different language backgrounds in the classroom” (ibid., 3). Recognising that all pupils do not learn the same is of utmost importance. In this vein, it is paramount to provide individuals with varying input depending on their needs (ibid., 4). Finally, it is argued by the authors that fostering literacy competencies not only in the English language but also in the learners’ other languages is central to the successful acquisition of all languages. They suggest using the EFL classroom as a place to provide learners with opportunities to be confronted with literature not only in English but also in their other languages. They can work with these texts in a multilingual way, finding out what words in the English books mean in the other languages available to

them and vice versa (ibid., 6). All in all, the approaches put forth by Abney and Krulatz aim at establishing and fostering a translanguaging pedagogy in the EFL classroom, allowing learners to acquire the English language through making use of the other languages already available to them, in turn building up a multilingual competence.

3.4.6. Criticism of Natural Approach

One of the main arguments for promoting an exclusively L2 foreign language classroom derives from the Natural Approach to language learning in which the L1 is to be avoided at all costs to best replicate the idealised native speaker environment for learning a language. This approach remains prevalent in the teaching of English as a foreign language, “the idea that native speakers are best placed as language models and teachers [...] is a practice that is particularly wide-spread in the world of English language teaching globally” (Meier, 2017: 137).

Putting the native speaker of any language on a pedestal and setting the attainment of that level as the ultimate goal of language learning could set foreign language learners up to fail. This monolingual principle leads to a deficit approach to language learning, one in which the language learner will hardly ever be able to attain the level of the native speaker. This has been something that has continually plagued foreign language learning, “the field of second language acquisition (SLA) has been targeted explicitly as suffering in its very core, and in particularly acute ways, from the ailments that result from taking nativeness and monolingualism as natural organizing principles for the study of additional language learning” (Ortega, 2014: 32). Holding the native speakers of a language in high esteem also stems from Chomskyan views of the native speaker as the authority on the language in question (Chomsky, 1965). This notion, however, brings up many questions concerning the ownership of language, “[l]anguage exposure from birth and primary language socialization is seen to confer the linguistic right of legitimate ownership of a language and the advantage of possessing the “purest” form of (monolingual) linguistic competence” (Ortega, 2014: 36). Scholars are now advocating, in light of the multilingual turn (cf. May, 2014; Conteh and Meier, 2014; Ellis, 2021), for a move away from the idealisation of the native speaker, “the bench-mark for learner performance is not the native speaker of the target language but the

thinking, feeling, emergent bilingual/multilingual” (Moore, 2013: 239-240). This feeling is reiterated by Ortega in her assertion that it is necessary to change the direction of the field, away from “explaining why bilinguals are not native speakers (i.e. monolinguals) and [replacing] it with the goal of understanding the psycholinguistic mechanisms and consequences of becoming bilingual or multilingual later in life” (Ortega, 2014: 37). This notion is referred to by Meier as a “language-as-deterritorialised-mobile-resource view” (Meier, 2017: 142), understanding English in light of who is speaking, where they are speaking it and for what purpose, rather than treating every use as a deficit version of native-speaker attainment. In this way, a general move away from the arguments at the core of the Natural Approach is advocated for in today’s global world and the particular role that English has to play in it. Following this notion, strict L2-only policies would go against the understanding of English as part of a multilingual context in which dated ideals of native-speaker attainment are no longer the goal.

In her work, Gass continually highlights the importance of not reducing language learning to the input provided. First and foremost, she emphasises the move away from the interest in input and the ensuing imitation as being seen as the central mechanism to language learning which happened in parallel with behaviourist theories of learning falling into disfavour (Gass, Behney and Plonsky, 2020: 390). It has become clear that looking at input alone is not sufficient in understanding the complex processes involved in learning a language, but rather we need to look at exposure to language, production of language and feedback as gained through interaction (Gass et al., 2020: 399). The complexity of interaction, however needs to be addressed and Gass underlines the pitfall of assuming that comprehension automatically means acquisition, “comprehension, in the usual sense of the word refers to a single event, whereas acquisition refers to a permanent state” (Gass et al., 2020: 404). She explores research conducted on the interactionist position and shows the difficulty in determining whether learning takes place in conversation. Whereas “low-level phenomena, such as pronunciation or basic meanings of lexical items” can be shown to be learned through interaction, she concludes that more research is needed (cf. Gass, 2003). Overall, Gass emphasises the extreme complexity of second language learning, one which cannot simply be reduced to

a presumed connection between sufficient L2 input leading to success in L2 learning.

Butzkamm (2011: 381) also offers arguments against the Natural Approach deriving from the notion that there are fundamental differences between L2 learning and L1 acquisition. He firstly highlights the disparity in the amount of time spent on being exposed to the L1 in comparison to the L2. Furthermore, the extent to which the language can be “lived” is limited in a foreign language. He continues with the comparison of a parent and child, one-to-one communicative setting, in comparison with one “accomplished speaker” and 30 learners to share them. Moreover, motivation plays a role in L2 learning like it never does in L1 learning. Finally, he proposes the difference that the L2 rarely reaches the same emotional meaning as the L1. In these ways he argues that using the way in which the L1 is learned to inform EFL teaching practice is undesirable considering the unavoidable differences between the two. Hence, if educators treat the L2 learning as what it is, without trying to mould it into something it is not, they will fare better in promoting successful L2 learning. A further aspect is that the input provided in L2 contexts has been shown to be invariably different from that in L1 contexts. The type of input provided has been referred to as “foreigner talk” which comprises such differences as slower speech, simpler vocabulary, repetitions and less colloquial language (Hatch, 1983 in Gass et al., 2020: 392).

Cook argues that “the error of monolingual teaching is that it has misunderstood how learners of English engage with their new language, [...], attempting to induct learners into a local monolingual native-speaker perspective, is deeply to misunderstand what is happening” (Cook, 2010: 49). Moreover, Widdowson highlights the necessity of the recognition of the L1 in L2 learning in order to allow for the comprehensible input to take place. He sees the L1 as playing a central role in the processing of L2 input, “act[ing] as a kind of filter: not an affective one, but a cognitive one” and that “explicit reference to the L1 would assist the learner in making the input comprehensible” (Widdowson, 2003: 153).

Furthermore, in a criticism of maximal input theories as supporting the case for a monolingual classroom, Mahboob and Lin (2016: 30) summarise and expand upon the fallacy of “Language Learning as a Zero-Sum Game”. They

put forward the notion of maximal L2 input and avoidance of the L2 as deriving from a “subtractive view of language learning: the limited cognitive processing capacity of the individual will be thinly spread over too many linguistic systems if more than one language is allowed into the classroom” (ibid.). They, hence, advocate for a more translangual approach to language learning rather than treating the languages as discrete systems that should be kept separate from one another.

3.4.7. Socio-political reasoning

There also exists an array of arguments against an exclusively L2 classroom which derive from a socio-political viewpoint. Language learning, and certainly the learning of the English language, has a history tainted by power. “It has been felt that English functions as an instrument of submersion by suppressing or replacing other linguistic knowledge and therefore constitutes a threat to the development of multilingualism on both an individual and a societal level” (Jessner, 2006: 133). In many settings, English-only has been used as a means of imposing assimilation on minority groups. Some scholars see the insistence of monolingual classrooms as a continuation of oppressive, often colonial, practices of the past, and therefore no longer having a place in today’s world. The process has been referred to by Phillipson (cf. 1992; 2009) as “linguistic imperialism”. The primacy of monolingual English language teaching can be seen as deriving historically from the impact of colonialism, “the banishment of other languages from the classroom has a long tradition in periphery-English countries” (Phillipson, 1992: 186). This can be understood as a general expression of colonial power structures within these countries. “Colonial education systems attempted to reproduce the monolingualism imposed in the core English speaking countries” and those not abiding to the English-only rule were routinely punished (ibid., 187). The monolingual methodology of language teaching “is organically linked with disregard of dominated languages, concepts and ways of thinking” (ibid.). It is important to note that the entire “ethos of monolingualism implies the rejection of the experience of other languages, meaning the exclusion of the child’s most intense existential experience” (ibid.: 189).

Phillipson criticises, among many other tenets of foreign language teaching, the belief in the superiority of the monolingual approach, stating that it is

“educationally unsound and installs or reinforces an inequitable language hierarchy” (Phillipson, 2009: 16). This notion of language hierarchy is no longer relevant for today’s, post-colonial society, “[a]cknowledging the heterogeneity of language and communication would force us to develop more democratic and egalitarian models of community and communication” (Canagarajah, 2007: 934). Moreover, the pedagogical navigation towards the monolingual principle and the perceived necessity for the avoidance of the L1 stem from their geographic origins, “[t]he fact that most of the dominant models of SLA have been developed in predominantly monolingual Western countries is not merely a historiographic curiosity: It has made them constrained by Western cultural premises” (Sridhar, 1994: 803). In this vein, scholars are advocating for a move away from this kind of approach, “we have to overcome the traditional essentialist and dichotomous ways of conceptualizing language and language pedagogies, i.e., to go beyond linguistic purist perspectives” (Lin, 2006: 287). Skutnabb-Kangas goes as far as to say that allowing the use of the L1 while learning a foreign language is a “linguistic human right” and that foreign language teachers should all know the learners’ mother tongues in order to use them when needed (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1994: 627). Forbidding use of the L1 is perhaps not as controversial in the German EFL setting, however, in many other countries that apply commonly held assumptions about English language teaching, such as the monolingual principle, the avoidance or even total exclusion of the L1 can be seen as perpetuating a linguistic power imbalance and monolingual agenda as seen pursued in the past, foremostly in previously colonised countries.

3.4.8. Native-speaker bias

Along with the move towards the Direct Method and the general shunning of the use of the L1, the demands for teachers of foreign languages changed. Along with the exclusive L2 foreign language classroom came an increasing demand for teachers whose native language was that being taught. This apparent “elevation of the native-speaker teacher has had a profoundly detrimental impact on the status of non-native bilingual teachers” (Cook, 2010: 126). Moreover, a popular, enduring assumption is that these native-speaker educators make better language teachers than their non-native counterparts (ibid.). Phillipson sees the assertion as being incorrect and refers to it as the

“native speaker fallacy” (Phillipson, 1992: 193-199). “Phillipson’s thesis is that English is taught at the expense of other languages and to the exclusion of the majority of English teachers” (Holliday, 2005: 10). He believes that the constant discrimination of non-native English teachers is unjustified and that in fact “the untrained or unqualified native-speaker is [...] potentially a menace because of ignorance of the structure of the mother tongue” (Phillipson, 1992^b: 14). Accepting not only the use, but also the benefits of the L1 in the foreign language classroom rectifies this native-speaker bias, which had hitherto caused many non-native teachers to be “relegated to a second-class status” (Cook, 2010: 127), at least to some extent by recognising the added value of having a foreign language teacher who can communicate in both the L2 and the L1. On the other side of the spectrum, Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009: 25), for example, are convinced of the superiority of a teacher who also shares the L1 with the learners and advocate for all teachers of foreign languages being bilingual.

3.4.9. Learner anxiety

A further argument for the allowance of the L1 in the foreign language classroom is that it could reduce learner anxiety and create an atmosphere more beneficial for learning. Learner anxiety has been shown to lead to poorer learner performance (cf. Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993; Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope, 1986). Harbord, for example, sees the selected use of the L1 as a “humanistic approach” (Harbord, 1992: 351), making learners feel comfortable because they are able to communicate what they want. Moreover, “lowering student anxiety and achieving a good teacher-student rapport are very desirable aims and greatly to be encouraged” (ibid., 354). This was also the result of several other studies where researchers drew the conclusion that “L1 use may also have a positive role in reducing classroom anxiety and thus in creating a classroom atmosphere where there is a positive relationship between students and teacher” (Yildiz and Yesilvurt, 2017: 93; see also Nordin, 2013; Bruen and Kelly, 2014). Several studies have shown the use of code-switching in the foreign language classroom to have benefits such as “promot[ing] a sense of class unity and shared identity”, which can also lead to improved learning (Cook, 2010: 47).

Overall, the arguments put forth outline a case for use of the L1 in the foreign language classroom. The section previous to this, however, outlined convincing arguments for the exclusive use of the L2 in the EFL classroom. It is understandable, considering the presence of persuasive arguments on both sides of the spectrum that the topic of the use of the L1 in the EFL continues to be debated among scholars and teachers to date. The arguments advocating for an exclusively L2 classroom, although they have some value, are mainly predicated on more outdated understandings of languages and how they are best learned. This thesis sees the multilingual turn (cf. May, 2014; Conteh and Meier, 2014; Ellis, 2021) as being paramount to the future understanding and teaching of languages. This can be seen in the recommendations from the KMK (2014: 11) and Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe, 2001: 168). Therefore, it is of interest to see whether the ideas of the multilingual turn and the goal of helping learners to achieve individual multilingualism by developing plurilingual competences come up in the interviews concerning teacher trainees and teacher trainers on their attitudes regarding the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom.

An overview of the many arguments put forth which either advocate for or against the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom is offered in the table below. Here all arguments can be seen at a glance, offering a clear overview of the information provided over the past sections. These arguments could be expected to arise when delving into the empirical evidence gathered for this thesis from teacher trainees and their trainers, concerning their stance on the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom.

Figure 1: Summary of arguments for and against use of learners' L1

For a monolingual classroom (against use of learners' L1)		Against a monolingual classroom (for "judicious" use of learners' L1)	
Argument	Brief summary	Argument	Brief summary
The natural approach	Foreign languages are best learned by trying to mimic L1 acquisition.	Vygotskian theory	Learners need the L1 in order to work at a higher cognitive level.
Motivation and authenticity	Exclusive L2 use leads to authentic learning environments and higher learner motivation.	Interconnectedness of language	Languages cannot be separated and treated as two monolingual entities because of they are unavoidably connected in their nature.
Development of coping strategies	Exclusive L2 use is necessary to allow learners to develop important language learning strategies when not being able to understand all linguistic input.	Multilingual space	The EFL classroom represents a multilingual space and hence, multilingual strategies such as code-switching should be allowed.
Interference	Exclusive L2 learning is important so as to keep languages separate to minimise interference from the L1.	Linguistic awareness	Use of the L1 fosters linguistic awareness which is central to the successful learning of languages.
Lack of common L1	Use of the L1 excludes learners who do not share the majority L1 of the country.	Translanguaging	Language learners should be able to make use of all linguistic tools in their repertoire when it comes to learning a new language.
Poor excuses	Teachers' use of the L1 is merely due to poor excuses and not warranted.	Criticism of natural approach	The monolingual principle behind the natural approach leads to a deficit view of language learning due to the unattainability of native speaker. status.
		Socio-political reasoning	The approach of monolingual English language teaching can be seen as deriving from colonial practices and has no place in modern society.
		Native-speaker bias	Exclusive L2 teaching puts the native-speaker teacher at an unfair advantage over other teachers of English.
		Learner anxiety	Insistence on exclusive L2 classrooms could lead to anxiety for learners.

3.5. Classroom code-switching

This section will look at the extent to which code-switching occurs and its functions in the foreign language classroom as well as attitudes towards the use of the L1 in the L2 classroom. Classroom code-switching, also referred to in this thesis as L1 use, needs to be addressed. This is of importance to understand the situations that the interviewees are referring to. The sections pertaining to classroom code-switching look at both teacher and learner code-switching, both of which are components of the interviews.

3.5.1. Taxonomies of use – teacher and learner code-switching

In order to categorise instances of classroom code-switching, researchers have attempted to establish taxonomies of the functions of code-switching. In an early look at code-switching, Gumperz established a taxonomy. He firstly distinguishes between conversational or metaphorical and situational code-switching, the first being more situation and interlocutor dependent and the second being a means to, consciously or subconsciously, express additional information (Gumperz, 1982: 61). He further differentiates between specific functions of conversational or metaphorical code-switching. Firstly, *quotations* are often a cause for switching languages, used to relay some reported speech. *Addressee specification* means that a switch may occur in order to address a specific person in a different code. *Interjections* or sentence fillers also serve as a function of code-switching. *Reiteration* refers to a speaker repeating an utterance in a different code. *Message qualification* serves to supply an utterance with additional information. *Personalisation versus objectivization* comprises communicating personal involvement or distance from the utterance itself (Gumperz, 1982: 75-80).

Several scholars have developed taxonomies that better fit instances of classroom code-switching. This section shall examine some of the early established categorisations for this type of code-switching and will then outline how taxonomies have been applied in general to later empirical work on the analysis of classroom code-switching. Canagarajah (1995) developed one of the earlier, and thereafter widely used, taxonomies to gain a more profound understanding of how “code-switching serves microfunctions inside the classroom for effective classroom management and content transmission” (ibid.,

174). Microfunctions are subsumed under the headings classroom management and content transmission. Under classroom management, Canagarajah establishes the categories *opening the class*, *negotiating directions*, *requesting help*, *managing discipline*, *teacher encouragement*, *teacher compliments*, *teacher commands*, *teacher admonitions*, *mitigating*, *pleading* and finally, *unofficial interactions* (ibid.: 179-185). Under the subheading content transmission code-switching instances were divided into the following categories: *review*, *definition*, *explanation*, *negotiating cultural relevance*, *parallel translation* and finally, *unofficial student collaboration* (ibid.: 185-190).

Another taxonomy, developed around the same time as Canagarajah's, differentiates between teacher and student code-switching in the bilingual educational context in the U.S. (Lukas and Katz, 1994). For students, the functions of classroom code-switching are *to assist one another*, *to tutor other students*, *to ask/answer questions*, *to use bilingual dictionaries*, *to write in native language* and *to interact socially*. For teachers, the functions are *to check comprehension*, *to translate a lesson*, *to explain an activity*, *to provide instruction* and finally, *to interact socially* (ibid.: 554).

Eldridge (1996: 305-308), while recognising the challenge of categorising real-life code-switching utterances, due to the ambiguity of their function and meaning and, thus, potential oversimplification of complex communication, established a further taxonomy, deriving from classroom speech data gathered by himself in a Turkish L1 EFL classroom setting. The first reason for a switch is *equivalence*, or the use of an equivalent translation for a word. The second he refers to as *floor-holding*, a form of self-talk employed to access knowledge, for example "what was it again?". *Metalanguage* describes instances of talking about the language being learned. The function *reiteration* is utilised to emphasise previously uttered information. *Group membership* is used for personal talk and sometimes humour. *Conflict control* instances of code-switching serve the purpose of avoiding or managing conflict. The function of *alignment and disalignment* describes taking on or disregarding certain roles in a conversational exchange.

3.5.2. Teacher code-switching

3.5.2.1. Amount of teacher code-switching

This section will consider studies conducted on teacher code-switching in order to ascertain the prevalence of the phenomenon. The studies in this section are from both EFL classrooms and foreign language classrooms in general. This thesis deems them all to be applicable and, hence, of interest to the topic of classroom code-switching in the EFL classroom. The prescription of “judicious use” of the L1 has been used by some scholars in discussion about the role of the L1 in the L2 classroom (cf. Lo, 2015). Macaro is more specific and puts numbers to the somewhat imprecise guideline of judicious use of the learners’ first language by stating that a suggested amount would comprise 10-15% of teacher-talk in a lesson, positing that, when it exceeds this amount, the nature of the classroom code-switching tends to change, however he emphasises the importance of further research and the difficulty in quantifying the amount of L1 usage suitable for an L2 classroom (Macaro, 2005: 82).

In a self-evaluative study of her own L1 use in the Spanish foreign language lessons she teaches, Edstrom (2006) shows that her L1 use fluctuated between a minimum of 6 and a maximum of 71 per cent of total teacher-talk, with monthly averages between January and April of 18, 22, 17 and 42 per cent, respectively. In her preceding estimate, she predicted 5-10 per cent L1 usage, so with an overall average of almost 23 per cent (ibid., 282), she underestimated her own L1 usage, and used the L1 more than the suggested amount by Macaro (2005). In the study, Edstrom recorded herself in 75 minute-long Spanish lessons with “false beginner” students at University (Edstrom, 2006: 278). She quantifies the amount of time spent speaking the L1 by using a stop watch while listening back to recordings of the lessons (ibid., 279). Although interesting, Edstrom only measures her own use of the L1. Duff and Polio (1990), on the other hand, conducted an extensive review of a multitude of foreign language classrooms at the University of California and show that during 50-minute sessions an average of 67.9 per cent of teacher-talk in the foreign language classrooms was in the foreign language with, however, a wide range of 10 to 100 per cent L2 usage (Duff and Polio, 1990: 156). To measure this, they recorded 50-minute lessons and then, in a data analysis procedure, used a stopwatch to mark every 15 seconds, recording the language being used at

each of those 15 second intervals (*ibid.*, 157). The study recognises certain external variables such as L2 proficiency of the students in the various foreign language classrooms in question but does not show causal relationships between these variables and the amount of L1 use (*ibid.*, 154). A study conducted with Korean L1 EFL classes showed a wide range in the amount of teacher code-switching, with the minimum being 10 and the maximum being 90 per cent of teacher-talk conducted in the L1, with an average of 40 per cent (Liu, Ahn, Baek and Han., 2004: 614). The researchers used 50-minute lessons and did not measure the L2 proficiency of teachers or students participating (*ibid.*, 612). The amount of L1 versus L2 spoken was measured as a percentage of the total words spoken (*ibid.*, 614).

A study conducted in a Japanese L1 EFL setting yielded relatively low overall amounts of L1 usage with 81.53 per cent of words being in the L2, hence, 18.47 per cent in the L1 (Hosoda, 2000: 75). The researchers analysed a 23-minute segment of a 60-minute recorded lesson. The classes were extremely small with only two students per group, both of whom had studied English throughout junior and high school (*ibid.*, 72). Nonetheless, the researchers report their proficiency level as being low (*ibid.*, 73). Here, counting the amount of L1 and L2 words was used as the measurement for how much of each language was spoken (*ibid.*, 75). In a study conducted with student teachers of French as an L2 in England, relatively low amounts of L1 usage were also shown (Macaro, 2001^b: 537). The classes involved students who had been learning French for 1-3 years (*ibid.*, 536). The researchers measured the amount of L1 use by coding utterances at 5 second intervals concerning who was speaking and what language they were speaking in. This was then converted into percentages. On average, the student teachers used the L1 for 6.9 per cent of total teacher-talk time, with the range being from 0 to 15.2 per cent (*ibid.*, 537).

This representative overview of studies that have been performed to assess the amount of L1 usage in foreign language classrooms show that code-switching is indeed common practice, regardless of the language being taught. They also show that, although some do, many of the results do not seem to adhere to Macaro's (2005) prescription of 10-15 per cent L1 usage in foreign language lessons. It is, however, important to note that there are certain

inconsistencies between the data collection and analysis procedures of the studies which could result in differences in their results. Firstly, the studies use learners with varying amounts of experience. It could be the case that teachers tend to speak more L1 with beginners than they do with more advanced learners. Moreover, the length of the lessons being recorded could have an effect on the amount of L1 spoken. Finally, the method of measurement to determine the amount of L1 and L2 use in the lessons varied between the studies. This could also have an effect on the results of the studies. All in all, the studies provide a good overview and indication of the amount of teacher code-switching, however, due to the differences mentioned caution should be taken when comparing the studies.

3.5.2.2. Main functions of teacher code-switching

Following a review of studies conducted on teacher code-switching in the foreign language classroom, the functions could be separated into three overriding categories: code-switching to facilitate the student-teacher relationship, code-switching to aid comprehension and code-switching for purposes of classroom management. The diagram below offers an overview of teacher code-switching which shall be explored in this section by covering studies pertaining to these main functions. These shall be addressed in the following section, followed by an overview of studies conducted on the attitudes and beliefs of teachers concerning code-switching in the foreign language classroom. It is of importance to note that these studies have been conducted in a variety of institutional settings, in numerous different countries from Europe, to North America, to Asia. It could be expected that practices in foreign language classrooms concerning the attitude towards and actual use of the L1 differ due to varying teaching methods and approaches used and differing cultural beliefs.

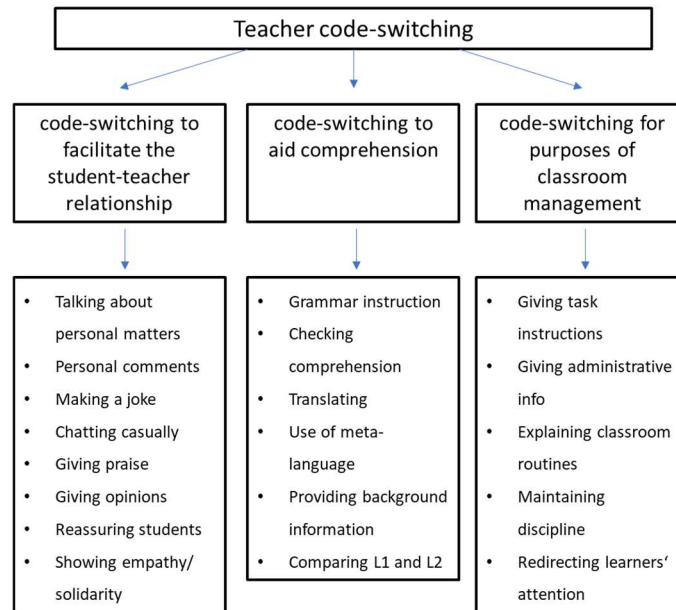


Figure 2: Categories and functions of teacher code-switching

3.5.2.2.1. Code-switching to facilitate the student-teacher relationship

Firstly, code-switching to facilitate the student-teacher relationship shall be considered. This thesis subsumes numerous functions mentioned in studies into this overarching topic. While looking at German L2 university-level classrooms, De la Campa and Nassaji (2009: 747-757) established several functions of teacher code-switching that can be subsumed under this first category. Firstly, personal comments from the teacher given in the L1 are a way of engaging the learners and developing the student-teacher relationship by communicating openly about personal feelings. De la Campa and Nassaji also recognised humour as being a motivation for teacher code-switching, using jokes and laughter as being a way of facilitating the relationship between teacher and learner. In what she denotes as “connecting with students”, Edstrom (2006: 284) also mentions humour as being cause for code-switching during her Spanish L2 lessons, enabling her to “relate on a human level” to her students. Kraemer (2006: 445) looked at five teachers of German as an L2 and established the category of “empathy/solidarity” to describe certain instances of code-switching. This referred to occasions where the teacher wanted to highlight their role as peer which involved talking about personal matters, making a joke or chatting casually with their students. This category represented eight of the 174 recorded instances of code-switching from the five

teachers. Looking at EFL classrooms in Greece, Copland and Neokleous (2011: 271-272) established eleven categories for functions of teacher code-switching, three of which can be subsumed under this first overarching category of facilitating the student-teacher relationship; jokes, praise and giving opinions. These three functions established by the researchers serve to establish a more open, respectful atmosphere in the classroom, conducive with improving the relationship between teacher and students. Bruen and Kelly (2017: 9/12) propose that the idea of creating a less intimidating and, hence, more relaxing atmosphere, which was mentioned by some teachers they interviewed as motivation to switch to the L1, could also be subsumed under the category “building of relationships”. In looking at EFL classrooms in Quebec primary schools, Garcia Cortés and Parks (2019: 30) also found teacher code-switching functions pertaining to the facilitation of the student-teacher relationship. Under the category “Teacher characteristics: personal beliefs/ state of mind” they understood certain functions, such as use of humour. In a further category called “Individual needs: talk addressed to individual students”, they had the function of reassuring students/showing empathy, which also can be seen to foster a relationship between teacher and student. Jingxia (2010: 19) found instances of code-switching motivated by the function of “expressing a stance of empathy or solidarity towards students”, which represented 3.7 per cent of all observed teacher code-switching in a Chinese L1 EFL university setting. The researchers saw this as supporting the building of relationships with students, employing use of the L1 to support learners if they are feeling nervous or have problems. The multitude of studies showing code-switching for the overarching purpose of establishing and fostering the student-teacher relationship indicates the significant role that language choice has to play here. Language choice has the power to facilitate the building and improving of student-teacher relationships and the use of the L1 for this purpose suggests an assumption made by teachers that this shared language often offers the better medium to achieve these aims.

3.5.2.2.2. Code-switching to aid comprehension

A second overall category is code-switching to aid comprehension. This section shall look at a selection of studies showing classroom code-switching to this effect. Harbord (1992: 352) establishes various functions pertaining to this

category, namely, “explaining the meaning of a grammatical item”, “checking comprehension of a listening or reading text” and “explaining the meaning of a word by translation”, as seen throughout his observations. Kraemer (2006: 442) established that the function “translation” accounted for the second highest amount of teacher code-switching in observations of German foreign language classrooms, considering the majority of these translations to be attempts on the part of the teachers to guarantee students’ understanding. A further function found by Kraemer (2006: 443), repetition or explanation to prevent and remedy students’ lack of comprehension represented the third most likely reason for teacher code-switching. The function, grammar instruction, although not accounting for many overall utterances, represented very lengthy explanations in the L1 when teacher code-switching occurred for this reason (Kraemer, 2006: 444). In a study conducted by Horasan (2014: 39), looking at EFL classrooms at the primary level in Turkey, code-switching occurred most often for the function of meta-language, representing 6.64 per cent of all code-switching occurring in the lessons, which, on the whole, transpired as talking about and elaborating on a certain grammar point in order to aid student understanding. During a research project conducted using EFL classrooms at three Chinese Universities, Jingxia (2010: 19) found that translating unknown vocabulary was by far the most common function of teacher code-switching, representing 56.5 per cent of all switches across the eight recorded lessons. The researchers see offering L1 lexical translations as a potential efficient method of making the learner feel comfortable in the EFL setting and these often occurred in combination with other vocabulary teaching strategies that make use of the L2, such as repetition and definition. This was followed by the function of explaining grammar which comprised 22.4 per cent of the total switches observed. These instances of code-switching were observed by the researcher as being very prompt, without much attempt at all at trying to convey grammatical information using the L2. Research into the code-switching practices of thirteen high school EFL teachers in Korea conducted by Liu et al. (2004: 616) also yielded functions pertaining to this second overarching category. They found the most common function of teacher code-switching across the observed lessons was for explaining difficult vocabulary and grammar, stating that a switch was often induced by perceived learner incomprehension. A further function found by Liu et al. to have increased code-switching into the L1 was providing background

information, this was used to increase student understanding concerning a particular point or the overall lesson by providing them with some additional context in the L1. In a study conducted on a beginners-level business English classroom at a Japanese university, code-switching to aid student comprehension was employed in the form of explanations for previous L2 utterances by the teacher, citing lack of competence on the part of the students as hampering their comprehension in the L2. At 45 per cent of all code-switching utterances observed, this function represented the most common reason for using the L1. Moreover, students' comprehension was aided by frequent code-switching for the purpose of offering an explanation for a difficult vocabulary item (Hosoda, 2000: 75-77). De la Campa and Nassaji (2009: 747-750) outlined several functional categories of teacher code-switching in the German foreign language classroom which can be subsumed under the overall category in question. Code-switching for the purpose of translation occurred the most frequently, amounting to 32.3 per cent of all switches, however of the two instructors looked at, the novice instructor used the L1 for the purpose of translation twice as often as the experienced instructor. Another function, named comprehension check by the researchers, accounted for 2.5 per cent of teacher code-switching. A further function to aid comprehension was L1-L2 contrast, which made up 3.6 per cent of L1 utterances.

Overall, code-switching for the purpose of aiding comprehension appears to be very common. This transpires in various functions, commonly being related to difficult grammar phenomena or new and complicated lexical items. It seems that foreign language teachers rely heavily on the shared L1 as a medium of instruction to tackle these sources of incomprehension rather than insisting on the usage of the L2 to get their point across.

3.5.2.2.3. Code-switching for purposes of classroom-management

This section will look at studies on classroom code-switching and functions which could be subsumed under the broader heading of code-switching for the purpose of classroom-management.

Over the course of his observations of classroom code-switching in EFL settings, Harbord (1992: 352) established some functions in line with this category, such as "discussion of classroom methodology", "giving instructions

for a task to be carried out by the students” and “asking or giving administrative information such as timetable changes”. Kraemer (2006: 441) established that the function, classroom management and administrative vocabulary, represented the most common reason for teacher code-switching in beginner-level German foreign language classrooms. In a study conducted in an EFL setting in Turkey (Horasan, 2014: 37-39), code-switching for the purpose of explaining classroom routines accounted for 3.5 per cent of the total code-switching utterances. Furthermore, code-switching for the function of classroom-management, which the author defines as maintaining discipline, keeping attention and also instruction giving, amounted to 1.8 per cent of all code-switching situations. De la Campa and Nassaji (2009: 747-750) used three functions which can be understood as belonging to the overall category of classroom management to categorise the teacher code-switching observed in German foreign language classrooms. The functions were “activity instruction”, “classroom equipment” and “administrative issues”. These functions represented 12.7, 0.2 and 7.2 per cent of all teacher code-switching utterances, respectively. In a recent study conducted by Garcia Cortés and Parks (2019: 30-31), in which primary level EFL lessons in Quebec were observed, classroom management, understood by the researchers as encouraging order and discipline, motivating students and saving time, represented one of the functions of teacher code-switching observed. In the study, lessons were video and audio recorded and the five participating EFL teachers were asked to analyse their own code-switching practices occurring in the footage, explaining why they had chosen to switch in those instances. Code-switching for the purpose of classroom management was reported for 15 per cent of all teacher code-switching. Hosoda (2000: 75), with the use of the function, instruction, also alludes to the notion of classroom-management. This function represented 16.67 per cent of turns and 25 per cent of words spoken over all the teacher code-switching instances observed in the Japanese L1 EFL higher education setting. According to Hosoda, this strategy could be seen to be an attempt at redirecting the learners’ attention to the task at hand, or a new task altogether. Jingxia (2010: 19-20) also uses a function which belongs to the overall category of classroom-management. The function, managing the class, accounted for 9.8 per cent of teacher code-switching and, with that, was the third most common reason for using the Chinese L1, including examples of organising group work

and reprimanding students for not paying sufficient attention or for having forgotten learning materials. Once again, the mentioned studies clearly show how the L1 plays a central role for these functions in the foreign language classroom.

3.5.2.3. Attitudes and Beliefs

The following section will deal with studies conducted on attitudes and beliefs of foreign language teachers concerning classroom code-switching. As with the previous sections, this section does not attempt to offer an exhaustive account of all studies dealing with this topic, but rather provides an overview of relevant literature pertaining to the question of this thesis, namely what the attitudes and beliefs of teacher trainers and teacher trainees are concerning the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom. Most studies deal with EFL teachers, however, studies associated with the teaching of other languages will also be used and their findings applied to the EFL setting.

In an extensive study carried out in multiple classrooms for a variety of foreign languages, teacher interviews were conducted following two classroom observations concerning attitudes and beliefs with regards the role of the L1 in the foreign language classroom (Duff and Polio, 1990: 156). The presentation of the data analysis focussed on three teachers who showed the most L2 use, the least L2 use and one who extensively mixed the L1 and L2 throughout the observed lessons. In the case of the teacher with the most L2 use, he reported being strongly influenced by his department's exclusively-L2-instruction policy and advocated this as the optimal instructional situation. As motivation for extensive L1 use (90 per cent of the two observed lessons), the second teacher in question intended to offset the previous teacher's focus on L2 conversation practice by taking a more linguistic analytical approach to the learning of the L2, leading to frequent use of the L1 to explain grammatical phenomena. He stated the importance of comprehensive understanding of L2 culture and words, which he felt was best achieved through employing the L1. Interestingly, and somewhat paradoxically, he discussed the importance of opportunities for L2 interaction and wanted to introduce a language lab to enable this. The third teacher, who demonstrated the highest proportion of mixed utterances stated that his language department had no language use policy. He expressed the wish to use the L2 more often but listed reasons such as lack of learner

proficiency, stark differences between the L1 and L2 and examinations causing time pressure as reasons for not using the L2 as much as he would want to (ibid., 160-161).

In a different, more quantitative approach, 163 teachers of various foreign languages including German, Spanish and French responded to an anonymous U.S.-based online questionnaire concerning L1 and L2 use in the university foreign language setting (Levine, 2003: 348). Among other results concerning estimated amount of code-switching and purposes for code-switching, the results showed that 59.9 per cent of foreign language teachers strongly agreed that their students feel anxious about using the L2. However, a strong majority of 63 per cent of teachers felt that, despite the perceived learner anxiety surrounding its use, insistence of L2 usage in the foreign language classroom rather than falling back on the L1 was both a worthwhile and rewarding challenge (ibid., 351).

In another large study aiming to ascertain teacher attitudes towards code-switching in the university foreign language learning setting, 60 English teachers from three Chinese universities with a range of teaching experience of between 5 and 20 years were asked to complete a questionnaire (Jingxia, 2010: 13). Concerning their overall attitude towards the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom, a clear majority of the teachers (80 %) were of the opinion that code-switching into the L1 was acceptable, whereas 11.7 per cent were neutral and 8.3 per cent saw no role for the L1 in the L2 classroom. Moreover, whereas 6.6 per cent were of the view that code-switching has a detrimental effect on language learning, 75.3 per cent of participating teachers felt that code-switching was beneficial to the learning of English (ibid., 16). As motivations behind code-switching into the L1, low learner-proficiency and the perceived distance between Chinese and English were reported most often with 85 and 70 per cent of teachers mentioning these, respectively. The teachers lack of knowledge of the English language was acknowledged by 43.3 per cent of as a possible reason for teacher code-switching (ibid., 17).

In a further study concentrating on the university setting, Bruen and Kelly (2014) conducted interviews with twelve language lecturers in a higher education setting in Ireland. The results were derived from interviews conducted with the participants. The lecturers highlighted the benefit of the L1 as a tool to

aid time efficiency in the foreign language classroom and its important use in reducing anxiety surrounding L2 use by creating a relaxed learning atmosphere. Lecturers also blamed lack of learners' L2 proficiency as being a motivation behind code-switching to the L1 (ibid., 9). Nonetheless, the lecturers emphasised the point that unjustifiable use of the L1 should be avoided due to the opinion that it could be detrimental to the development of language skills (ibid., 10). The researchers conclude by highlighting the importance of educating teachers in order to ensure informed practise when it comes to employing the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom (ibid., 14).

In a study looking at a similarly small group of participants but in a secondary educational setting, 13 teachers of English at high schools in South Korea were observed in lessons and subsequently completed open-ended questionnaires concerning their use of the L1 (Liu et al., 2004: 611). Of interest were stark discrepancies between the estimated amount of L2 spoken (average 32 per cent) and the actual amount of L2 use (60 per cent), however, the researchers believed the recorded lessons to have more L2 usage in them than is customary for EFL classrooms in South Korea, potentially due to a desire from the participating teachers to perform at their best. The teachers, on average, were of the opinion that the L2, in this case English, should be used for 58 per cent of all classroom talk (ibid., 614-615). Nine out of the 13 participating teachers said they felt pressured by current curricular guidelines promoting L2-exclusive-instruction (ibid., 629). Concerning reasons behind code-switching and employing the L1 more than they thought they should, it was commonly mentioned by teachers in the study that they felt their English proficiency was somewhat lacking, leading them to switch to the L1 to compensate. Moreover, responsibility was sought in other areas, for example, it was also placed onto the learners themselves and their lack of understanding or onto the system because of the type of examinations the learners have to take (ibid., 627). 9 out of 13 teachers also reported feelings of embarrassment when they resorted to using the L1.

In a study aiming to combine information on teachers attitudes and teaching practice, Copland and Neokleous (2011) carried out a study looking at Cypriot EFL classrooms and the use of Greek as the L1. In addition to examining the actual practice of four teachers, the researchers conducted interviews in order

to assess the beliefs and attitudes of the participants concerning the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom (ibid., 271). The results showed that the teachers' attitudes and beliefs were both complex and contradictory in manner, with teachers reporting beliefs concerning L1 and L2 usage in the EFL classroom which showed little compliance with their actual teaching practice (ibid. 277). The researchers offer the experience of guilt as one possible explanation of the incongruity between beliefs and practice. The teachers all, to some extent or another, expressed feelings of guilt for using the L1 in the EFL classroom, allocating the L1 the role of hinderance in the learning of the L2 (ibid., 278). Thus, teachers would possibly not want to report extensive usage of the L1, even if this often occurs during their teaching, aiming to avoid being deemed incompetent.

In a recent study, the perceptions of ESL teachers in a Quebec primary school were ascertained (Garcia Cortés and Parks, 2019). The study design entailed videotaping multiple lessons held by the five participating teachers and conducting subsequent stimulated recall interviews to establish the teachers' motivation and reasons behind the occurrences of code-switching observed in the lessons (ibid., 28). All teachers were motivated by a belief that maximisation of the L2 in the foreign language classroom was the best approach to fostering L2 development (ibid., 27), which was reported by the researchers as deriving from the participants own educational experience of language learning but also from knowledge of the Communicative Approach to language learning (ibid., 34). Despite this accepted maxim, code-switching was part of the lessons observed and the participants reported several uses for the phenomenon. Teachers cited reasons pertaining to lack of experience, time saving and fatigue as possible justifications for switching to the L1 in the lessons observed (ibid., 33). This indicates than although the teachers' beliefs are in line with providing extensive L2 input, they are open to employing the L1 in certain situations and for specific purposes. Moreover, some teachers mentioned factors pertaining to external influences, such as uncooperative or unsupportive parents and their negative attitude towards learning English, as determining how much L2 they could use in the lessons (ibid., 37). The study highlights that even when teachers' beliefs are to maximise the L2 and achieve an exclusively L2 setting, code-switching still occurs.

Overall, teachers' attitudes concerning code-switching in the foreign language classroom represent a spectrum. Although some teachers believe in the value of an exclusively L2 classroom, many teachers are sympathetic to the benefits of using the L1. However, the feeling of guilt surrounding use of the L1 seems to be common. Reasons for using the L1 pertaining to own lack of L2 proficiency, the lack of L2 linguistic capabilities and its effect of time saving are mentioned by many teachers. On the whole, however, teachers are open and accepting of the L1 in various contexts and see its potential benefits in creating a positive learning atmosphere, free of anxiety.

3.5.3. Learner code-switching

3.5.3.1. Amount of L1 use

This first section will look at studies concerning the extent to which learner code-switching is prevalent in the foreign language classroom. As well as studies in EFL settings, studies in classrooms concerned with the learning of other foreign languages shall also be considered. This section aims to offer an overview and does not claim to provide an exhaustive review of all studies on the amount of learner code-switching.

In a study conducted at a secondary school, out of a total of 542 instances of code-switching observed in 8 EFL lessons, 365 (67.4 per cent) of these were produced by learners (Horasan, 2014: 38). While looking specifically at the use of the L1 in pair work, Storch and Aldosari (2010) used the amount of words and the amount of turns in each language to gauge the proportion of L1 and L2 talk during the set tasks. The results showed that the pairs made minimal usage of the L1, with an average of 7 per cent of talk being conducted in the L1. This, however, varied according to proficiency with the higher proficiency pairs using only 5 per cent and the lower proficiency pairs using on average 12 per cent L1 (*ibid.*, 363). Concerning turn-taking, the results showed that 16 per cent of turns involved the use of some L1 words. This, once again, varied depending on proficiency, with the L1 being used in 11 per cent of turns and 19 per cent of turns for the higher and lower proficiency groups, respectively (*ibid.*, 364).

Contrastingly, in a study of 11-13-year-old EFL learners in Turkey, Eldridge (1996) found there to be no significant difference in the amount of code-switching with regards the learners' L2 proficiency (*ibid.* 304). By means of a

questionnaire, Levine (2003) elicited estimates concerning the amount of target language used by students in the university-level foreign language classroom. When asked to estimate the amount of L2 used by students when speaking to their teachers, 17 per cent of participants estimated that this happens 80-100 per cent of the time. Concerning interaction between two learners, the participants indicated that the L1 was the default means of communication, with 36.7 per cent of participants estimating that they use the L1 to talk to each other 80-100 per cent of the time in their foreign language lessons (*ibid.*, 350).

Storch and Wigglesworth (2003) conducted a study looking at the language use of 12 pairs of university language students. They divided the pairs into two groups, 6 who had a common L1 and 6 who did not share a common L1. Their results showed that 4 out of the 6 pairs who had a common L1 made little use of it, employing it for a handful of words or phrases. The other two pairs with a shared L1 made rather extensive use of the L1. One pair used the L1 50 per cent of the time for one task and 30 per cent of the time while conducting the second task. A second pair used the L1 25 per cent of the time for the first and 50 per cent of the time for the second task (*ibid.*, 763).

In a study looking at 32 primary school EFL learners, García Mayo and Hidalgo (2017) analysed communicative exchanges during a collaborative task at two data collection points, 1 year apart. The results showed that all learners made use of the L1 in their interactions with each other at some point but that this use was limited. Over the course of two observations, an average of 11.9 per cent L1 usage was found (*ibid.*, 7). A similar, modest amount, of L1 usage was also found in a study of university-level EFL learners in Spain (Azkarai and García Mayo, 2014). The researchers looked at the amount of learner L1 usage in collaborative group work and found, despite a shared L1, an average of 15.41 per cent L1 words across all analysed tasks (*ibid.*, 9).

Offering additional insight, in a study looking at beginner learners of Chinese in Denmark, Bao and Du (2015) analysed 9 videotaped sessions for L1 and L2 use and looked at the effect task-type has on language choice in the foreign language classroom. The students, in fact, used varying amount of the L1 depending on the task they were carrying out. The most L1 usage, 86 per cent, was reported in a role play task. The lowest amount of L1 usage was seen in an activity on sentence construction (*ibid.*, 16). Perhaps the higher level of

creativity needed for the role-play task led to a desire to exchange ideas in the L1 more so than in the sentence construction task.

In studies producing results on the amount of learner code-switching it is important to note that not all studies measure these instances in the same way. Some studies measure the amount of L1 words, whereas others look at the amount of L1 turns. It is therefore important to look at the various results critically and understand that they can just offer an overview. However, what certainly becomes apparent is that L1 usage is very common for foreign language learners. Moreover, there seems to be considerable variation between learners which could be explained by individual differences such as motivation, aptitude and learning strategies as well as external factors, such as the teacher, school policy and attitudes towards language learning in the wider community.

3.5.3.1. Purposes for learner code-switching

Code-switching with learners is also a contentious issue, being common place in foreign language classrooms where learners share the L1, leading to parents opting to send their children to the countries where the foreign language is spoken, such as the U.S. for English, in order to immerse them and avoid the possibility of them being able to use their L1 during class (Macaro, 2005: 67). Just as with teacher code-switching, learner code-switching is also motivated by a variety of different factors and serves a plethora of different functions. This section shall cover studies conducted with the aim of ascertaining the reasons as to why learners code-switch or the purposes that the use of the L1 fulfils. The section offers an overview but does not deal with all studies conducted in this area of classroom code-switching. The first section shall pay attention to general instances of code-switching in the foreign language classroom and the second shall focus on L1 usage in collaborative work situations.

In classroom discourse between learners and a teacher, Moore (2002) established numerous functions that code-switching served. In analysing interactions of Spanish L1 learners of French, the results showed that code-switching was common place. In retelling a French story, the learners are often seen to make use of the L1 while the teacher asks questions in the L2. Moore sees this as a key moment of the need for communication overriding any desire for linguistic accuracy. The teacher also does not demand the use of the L2 by

the learners, instead opting to reiterate their L1 utterances herself in the L2, even encouraging the use of the L1 to ascertain the understanding of the story (ibid., 283). This is a pedagogical decision on the part of the teacher to focus more on the content rather than the L2 being learned. It was also common for learners to switch languages to ask for help from the teacher when a word or phrase was not known (ibid., 286) or to merely say the lexical item that was missing or not accessible from the L2 mental lexicon in the L1 (ibid., 287). Moore ends by stating that “[s]witches display communicative patterns in which all the communicative resources of a bilingual repertoire are available and profitable” (ibid., 290).

A study conducted using beginner learners of Danish carried out numerous interviews with learners to establish their code-switching habits (Arnfast and Jørgensen, 2003). In the early interviews, learners often used code-switching as a communication strategy if they were unable to produce the desired word in the L2. They would then either produce the word in the L1 or ask for help from the interviewer using the shared L1. These switches served the purpose of keeping the conversation flowing despite the lack of vocabulary knowledge. The researchers also see this negotiation of meaning through code-switching as an effort by the participants to try stuff out and to advance their language learning (ibid., 31-36). A second round of interviews was conducted after 5 months of learning the L2. In contrast to the first interviews the participants appear not to overtly flag their switches as much. Some participants also use switches to specifically indicate meaning (ibid., 36-38). In later interviews, the researchers see instances of code-switching to claim and display identity (ibid., 39). The researchers conclude by stating that second language learner code-switching does not differ all that much from bilingual speaker code-switching, emphasising the natural way in which it seems to be acquired as a bilingual strategy without any “code-switching training” (ibid., 49).

In an article published by Liebscher and Dailey-O’Cain (2005), learner code-switching in the advanced foreign language classroom is closely analysed and utterances are differentiated by being on a participant or discourse level or as having elements of both. One example of participant related code-switching shows a learner searching for the correct word, then opting to say it in the L1, followed shortly again by the word, then clearly located, in the L2. The

researchers see this as code-switching offering a communicative “back-up language” when the correct word is on the tip-of-the-tongue but not quite accessible at that moment, something which also commonly occurs in native speaker, monolingual communication (ibid., 238-239). On the discourse level, the researchers find code-switching that marks a topic shift, refocussing attention, and quoting something in the L1 then switching competently back to the L2 after completion (ibid., 242). The researchers stress that these examples are “constitutive of bilingual language practice” as seen in bilingual communities outside of the classroom. As a conclusion, Liebscher and Dailey-O’Cain advocate for the fostering of the foreign language classroom as a bilingual space, naturally accepting bilingual linguistic practices such as code-switching (ibid., 245).

During a study in EFL classes at a Colombian language school, learner code-switching was analysed for its functions in the foreign language classroom (Sampson, 2011). The participants were two classes of six and four learners who were at an upper intermediate and pre-intermediate level of English, respectively. Each class was observed and video-recorded twice while they were being taught by their native English instructor (ibid., 295). The researchers recognise the challenge of assigning one single function to switches in language, therefore, adopt an approach which allows for a distinction between monofunctional and bifunctional code-switching. Equivalence, or the use of direct translation of lexical items, was observed as being the most common function for code-switching among learners with it representing 6 out of 18 switches in the upper-intermediate group and 7 out of 18 switches in the pre-intermediate group. Meta-language was the second most frequent category, accounting for 4 and 3 out of 18 instances of code-switching in the upper-intermediate and pre-intermediate levels, respectively (ibid., 296). The researchers emphasise that the majority of all switches served communicative functions in the classroom and that only two could be seen as avoidance of the L2 (ibid., 301). Similar results concerning translation and meta-language were found by Horasan (2014), representing 12.54 and 24.53 per cent of learner code-switches, respectively.

Studies conducted on learner code-switching all find its occurrence to some extent in classrooms where learners share a common L1. However,

researchers seem to frequently reach the conclusion that it serves important communicative functions in the foreign language classroom, whether they are to keep conversation flowing, to ask for help, to negotiate meaning, or as an affective component in communication. The researchers often see this as comparable to how code-switching occurs in bilingual speakers. This thinking is in line with the multilingual turn (cf. May, 2014; Conteh and Meier, 2014; Ellis, 2021) which is also reflected in the plurilingual approach advocated for by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe, 2001: 5). This type of in-depth analysis of classroom discourse pertaining to the phenomenon of code-switching is very important in helping to gauge a better understanding of why code-switching occurs and for what purposes it could potentially be harnessed.

3.5.3.2. Collaborative work

Teachers in the EFL setting are sometimes reluctant to do group work because of the concern that the pupils will code-switch and use a lot of their L1, supposedly being then in turn detrimental to their language learning (Zhang, 2018:2). This section will look at studies conducted on the code-switching strategies employed by learners in partner or group work scenarios. This area of classroom code-switching has been afforded quite a bit of attention, therefore, the following is a selection of some of the central studies conducted in this area and does not attempt to offer a comprehensive overview of literature on this aspect of classroom code-switching.

An early study of L1 speech during learner interaction looked at 5 pairs of L1 English learners of Spanish (Anton and DiCamilla, 1998). The pairs were asked to complete three writing tasks over the course of three separate Spanish lessons. Audio recordings were made of the sessions. The researchers separate the code-switching that occurred into social and cognitive (inter- and intrapsychological) functions of L1. Concerning interpsychological functions, code-switching occurred to find a suitable L2 term, as a metalinguistic function for producing complex linguistic forms or in order to evaluate and understand meaning. With regards to intrapsychological functions, self-addressed private speech is a common instance for code-switching, for example when a learner poses a question aloud which they end up answering themselves. The researchers conclude that the results of the study and subsequent analysis

indicate how the L1 is used as key resource to allow L2 acquisition to succeed. They see the L1 as creating a social and cognitive space enabling the learners to help themselves and each other while conducting a task.

In a further study conducted numerous years later, DiCamilla and Anton once again looked at the use of code-switching in collaborative language tasks, this time focussing on the proficiency of the learners (DiCamilla and Anton, 2012). Once again using L1 English learners of Spanish, the sample comprised both advanced and beginner learners. There were 22 participants divided into pairs or groups of three. During a collaborative writing task, the learners were given written instructions in the L1 but no further information and no suggestion as to which language they should conduct the task in. Audio recordings were made of the sessions. The results showed that, unsurprisingly, the more advanced students code-switched into the L1 much less frequently than the less proficient participants. Four macro-functions were established: content, language, task and interpersonal relations. The beginner learners code-switched a lot to create the content for the written task and to solve any lexical and grammatical problems that arose. The advanced learners code-switched very rarely, using the L1 only in a few instances, for example, when saying an L1 word for which they were looking for a suitable translation. The researchers conclude that the L1 serves a very central function in the beginning stages of learning a second language. They advocate for an open attitude towards the use of the L1 in beginning stages of L2 learning.

Another study looks at the role of the L1 as a mediating tool for carrying out complex L2 tasks (Storch and Wigglesworth, 2003: 762-768). The study looks at 24 Indonesian and Chinese L1 university students of English. The participants were divided up into pairs, 6 of which had a common L1 and 6 of which did not share the L1. As in the previously mentioned studies, the participants were asked to complete collaborative tasks and the process was audio recorded. The researchers found that the learners code-switched into the L1 in 29 per cent of the turns in the first class and in 21 per cent in the second class. The L1 usage was coded into four categories; task management, task clarification, vocabulary and meaning and finally, grammar. The results showed that most of the pairs did not employ the use of the L1 very much at all. This study additionally looked at the attitudes of the students towards L1 use in

collaborative tasks. The students found the L1 helpful in numerous ways. They stated that it allowed them to help each other with definitions of challenging vocabulary as well as explanations of grammatical issues. Furthermore, they found it helpful to use the L1 to argue and justify why they felt that a certain grammatical or content choice should be made. The factor of efficiency and time was also mentioned as a further benefit of code-switching in collaborative work. It was, however, mentioned by some participants that they felt like they should be using the L2 rather than the L1 to improve their English-speaking skills. Overall, 8 out of 12 students interviewed were of the opinion that the L1 helped them to complete the tasks in a more efficient manner. The researchers conclude that the use of the L1 helps the learners to achieve a higher cognitive level while working on task. They, therefore, discourage prohibiting all use of the L1 in the EFL classroom.

A study conducted in a Spanish EFL setting looked at the effect the type of task had on the use of and functions of L1 usage during collaborative communicative tasks (Azkarai and García Mayo, 2014). The researchers analysed the oral interactions of 44 university-level learners of English while conducting two speaking tasks and two speaking and writing tasks (*ibid.*, 6). The participants were allocated to partners with similar proficiency and then randomly allocated to one of the tasks. The established categories for the functions of L1 usage during the collaborative work were: off task, which constituted learners communicating about something unrelated to the task at hand; metacognitive talk, when the participants discussed the task using the L2; grammar talk, when there were problems or issues pertaining to grammar that were discussed using the L2; vocabulary, which referred to talking about the meaning or selection of a particular word or phrase; phatics, which were other expressions without specific meaning, such as “well” or “right” (*ibid.*, 8-9). The results showed that this latter category accounted for most of learner code-switching during the collaborative task, with 50 per cent of all switches. Other common functions for learning code-switching were vocabulary and grammar talk, with 23 and 14 per cent, respectively. Furthermore, the researchers found that the speaking and writing tasks led to more instances of code-switching than the speaking tasks, with 18 and 13 per cent, respectively, of learning talk time during the collaborative task being in the L1 (*ibid.*, 10). The researchers conclude that the modest amount of L1 use points to the understanding that

knowledge of a shared L1 among learners does not necessarily lead to its widespread usage (ibid., 11). Moreover, the researchers feel that the results show an effective use of the L1 for collaborative work, assisting and offering a resource as scaffolding helpful in successfully completing the task at hand (ibid., 15). This once again advocates for allowing the use of the L1 in collaborative learning tasks.

With a focus on the learning of Chinese as a foreign language in Denmark, Bao and Du (2015) looked at collaborative working situations aiming to analyse the use of the L1 and L2. The participants were in grades seven and eight and were beginner learners of Chinese (ibid., 14). The researchers videotaped nine collaborative working sessions and used three of the tapes for the purpose of their analysis. The first two tasks were more restricted in their nature, requiring more use of the L2, the second task was open to the use of all linguistic resources available to the participants (ibid., 15). The results showed a variety of uses for the L1 that presented themselves during the collaborative tasks. The most frequent reason for participants employing use of the L1 was for the purpose of task management, which accounted for 40 per cent of all switches. Furthermore, attention to vocabulary was the second most common reason for code-switching. Off task talk represented only 4 per cent of switches. Moreover, the more open task where more L1 use could have been expected did not produce more code-switching (ibid., 16). The researchers conclude that the L1 is predominantly used to proceed with the task at hand, a meta-cognitive purpose which leads to learners orientating themselves and, in turn, gaining more control over the tasks (ibid., 17).

The overview of studies in this section shows the extent to which the L1 plays a central role for learners of a foreign language when they are tasked with conducting collaborative work. Of note is, however, that although the L1 was employed by the learners in the studies, it was still used quite modestly and certainly less than the L2. This puts into question the fear that some teachers have concerning collaborative work leading to an overuse of the L1 (Zhang, 2018: 2). Whether or not use of the L1 is beneficial for the work at hand will be considered in a later section, however, the fact that it occurs so often indicates an apparent need felt by the learners. They made a bilingual choice to switch languages aiming to reach a certain goal while carrying out collaborative work.

The researchers see it, therefore, as inadvisable to prohibit the use of the L1 in these contexts, seeing, rather, a certain benefit to it.

3.5.3.3. Attitudes and beliefs

The following section shall look at studies conducted on the topic of the attitudes and beliefs of learners concerning code-switching in the foreign language classroom. Attention shall be paid not only to results concerning learners' reactions to their own code-switching but also to that of their teachers, as well as the overall attitudes concerning the use of the L1 in the foreign language classroom. Once again, many of the studies are conducted with the focus of an EFL setting but studies concentrating on other foreign languages shall also be touched upon and their relevance for the EFL setting is assumed. Moreover, many studies conducted on the attitudes of learners towards use of the L1 in the foreign language classroom have focussed on learners in tertiary education. This could be due to the opinion of researchers that these learners are more equipped to reflect upon and report about their language learning.

In an early study on the topic of learner attitudes towards language use in the foreign language classroom, Duff and Polio (1990) looked at 13 university-level classrooms, all teaching different languages, and issued learners with a questionnaire, following classroom observations, aiming to ascertain their attitudes on the topic in question. Of interest was the result that regardless of the estimated amount of teacher L2 usage, the learners reported being satisfied with this amount, leading the researchers to the conclusion that an increased amount of L2 usage in the foreign language classroom is accepted by learners (ibid., 157-158).

By means of an anonymous, online questionnaire, Levine (2003) collected data on teacher and student beliefs concerning the use of L1 and L2 in the tertiary education foreign language setting. The questionnaire aimed to measure assumptions pertaining to the amount of L2 usage, as well as find out about beliefs regarding the importance of L2 usage and learner anxiety caused by L2 usage (ibid., 347). The questionnaire was completed by a total of 600 students between the ages of 18-30 from the U.S. and Canada who were studying a variety of languages (ibid., 348). Regarding the research question on learner anxiety, 40 per cent of participating students said that L2 use made

them feel anxious. Nevertheless, 63 per cent of those asked agreed or strongly agreed that using the L2 rather than resorting to L1 use is, although challenging, very beneficial and rewarding (ibid., 351). Comparing the reported estimated L2 use and learner anxiety concerning L2 usage, Levine found that, in fact, the higher the estimated amount of L2 usage, the less the learners reported feeling anxious about L2 usage in the foreign language classroom. However, the study has a limiting factor in this regard due to the overproportionate participation by motivated and better performing learners which occurred due to the self-selection nature of the sample (ibid., 355).

Following the observation and videotaping of 13 teachers of English in South Korean secondary education, questionnaires were given to the learners participating in the lessons (Liu et al., 2004). The learners were asked to estimate the amount of L2 used by their teachers followed by a desired amount of L2 use. These amounts differed and, for the most part, learners wanted more L2 use than they estimated their teacher was doing, that is to say an average of 53 per cent L2 use was desired rather than the 41 per cent that was on average estimated to be used (ibid., 615). However, in response to a further question concerning language use, more than half of learners (52 per cent) stated that they preferred the use of Korean as the language of instruction in their English lessons (ibid., 630). In a question aimed at gathering information on the perceived benefit of L2 use for certain language learning skills, responses showed that learners predominantly saw the L2 as being helpful for listening and speaking, followed by reading and vocabulary. The learners participating felt, on the other hand, that it was more beneficial for the learning of grammar to make use of the Korean L1 (ibid., 631).

In a study looking at the implementation of two conditions, comprising an exclusively L2 and a pedagogic code-switching approach, learners were asked regarding their response and attitudes towards the intervention (Wong, 2010). The study looked at two secondary school EFL classes in Hong Kong with Chinese as their L1 (ibid., 120). Part way through the intervention, all learners were required to complete a questionnaire. In addition, interviews were held with 10 students (ibid., 121). The results show the exclusively L2 class to have a stronger preference for the use of the L2. The learners felt more strongly than the code-switching class that the use of the L2 could help improve their

language skills and felt less alarmed about the implementation of a policy prohibiting the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom. Moreover, the exclusively L2 group felt more strongly that their confidence in speaking the L2 had been raised and that it is fun to communicate in the L2. Finally, they expressed stronger agreement with the statement that English should be used as much as possible in English lessons (ibid. 123-124). Wong concludes by advocating for an L2-rich learning environment, implying that this, in turn, will lead to higher motivation and increased participation in EFL lessons (ibid., 126).

In a further study looking at the attitudes of learners towards English-only policies in EFL classroom settings, this time in Vietnam, 42 English-major students in tertiary education were tasked to complete a questionnaire (Hoang, Jang and Yang, 2010). In the Vietnamese EFL setting, code-switching and use of the Vietnamese L1 is common pedagogical practise, with English-only instruction being a newer approach to the teaching of English. Considering this background, the researchers aimed to find out how the more modern approach of exclusively L2 instruction was being received by the learners (ibid., 5). The results show that fewer than half of the students (45 per cent) agreed with the statement that they like the English-only policy adhered to by their teachers. However, 92 per cent were of the opinion that increased use of English leads to improved proficiency. Nevertheless, 70 per cent of learners who took part in the questionnaire wished that their teacher would speak more L1 in the EFL lessons and often chose the categories of explaining grammar rules and translating vocabulary as elements of language learning for which some L1 usage would be appreciated. Finally, learners also favour teachers' use of the L1 for the purpose of being friendly with the students (ibid., 7).

In a research paper aimed at providing evidence for the positive role of code-switching in the EFL classroom, Jingxia (2010) looked into language practices at three Chinese universities and the attitudes of both students and teachers concerning classroom code-switching. The data from 259 student questionnaires were analysed (ibid., 15). Concerning the overall stance on the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom, the questionnaires showed that 66 per cent of learners asked were in favour of its use, with 7 per cent opposing its use. Moreover, 75 per cent of learners were of the opinion that classroom code-

switching is advantageous to the learning of English, whereas only 10 per cent thought it to be detrimental (ibid., 16).

In a further questionnaire-based study, teacher and learner attitudes and beliefs towards the use of the L1 in the Chinese EFL setting were elicited (Yao, 2011). The study participants were 100 secondary school learners of English (ibid., 20). The results of the questionnaires show that nearly all learners asked, 93 per cent, either agree or strongly agree that teachers who code-switch are able to express themselves clearly in both languages. Furthermore, 80 per cent do not believe that teacher code-switching from English to Chinese stems from a lack of English language proficiency. Moreover, 64 per cent disagree or strongly disagree with the claim that code-switching leads to a polluting of the languages. 93 per cent of learners felt that novel lexical items and grammatical phenomena are best explained with the use of code-switching as a pedagogical strategy. Concerning the questions of whether code-switching enables teachers to more successfully encourage or better praise learners, 40 and 32 per cent of respondents agreed, respectively. However, regarding the notion that code-switching can improve the atmosphere in the class, 71 per cent of learners either agreed or strongly agreed that it could (ibid., 26-28).

Finally, a study conducted at an Irish higher education institution looked at the opinions of learners of Japanese and German concerning the use of the L1 in foreign language lessons (Bruen and Kelly, 2014). In general, interview responses from learners showed their appreciation for selective use of the L1 in order to introduce complex grammatical phenomena, for helping to understand novel words and also when explaining important procedures, such as exams (ibid., 7-8). Learners also expressed their desire for the use of the L1, believing that it created a less intimidating learning environment (ibid., 9). Nonetheless, learners' responses indicated that they also saw the benefit of sufficient L2 input in preparing them for their time abroad and generally improving their language skills (ibid., 11).

In summary, the studies featured here take the attitudes and beliefs of learners into account when it comes to the use of the L1 in the L2 classroom. The studies produce mixed results. Although learners seem to widely share the opinion that substantial L2 input is both desired and believed to lead to higher proficiency in the long-term, the L1 is also welcomed. Learners seem to be very

accepting of the use of classroom code-switching as a pedagogical tool. They do not see it as indicating language deficiency on the part of the teachers and feel that it offers a helpful resource. The L1 as helpful resource expresses itself in the form of scaffolding when comprehension is lacking, as a language learning strategy when it comes to new lexical items and grammatical phenomena as well as a tool to alleviate anxiety and create positive learning environments. Overall, learners seem to be very open to the idea of a bilingual learning environment, using the L1 and L2 in their various capacities to promote successful learning in the foreign language classroom.

3.5.4. State of research on effect

Despite there being varying opinions about best practice concerning code-switching in the EFL classroom, there is actually not a lot of evidence concerning the concrete effect of code-switching. This section will give an overview of the studies that have been conducted to ascertain the effect of code-switching and what is known so far. Although most of the following studies were conducted in standard foreign language classrooms, some were conducted in English medium instruction (EMI) classrooms. Both are of interest for this thesis for establishing the effect of L1 usage on learning. This section is of significant importance when it comes to looking into the attitudes and beliefs of teacher trainees and teacher trainers. In this way, one can better assess the roots of these attitudes and beliefs and see whether they have their basis in up-to-date evidence on the effect of code-switching.

3.5.4.1. Effects on teacher behaviour

In a recent study, the effect of L1 usage in English medium instruction (EMI) classrooms in Hong Kong was considered (Pun and Macaro, 2019). There are both late EMI schools, where English language instruction in all subjects only starts from the later grades, and early EMI schools where English is the medium of instruction throughout the entire of the pupils' education. The study looked at use of the L1 and the types of questions asked by the teachers. The participants were 19 teachers with a wide range of teaching experience and a total of 33 lessons were observed in both early and late EMI educational contexts (ibid., 4-5). Teachers in late EMI classes were shown to use notably more L1 than the early EMI classes with an average of 26 and 1.5 per cent of

turns being in the L1, respectively. Concerning the types of questions, teachers in the early EMI classes tended to use more low order questions (e.g. recalling factual information or explaining a phenomenon) and more high order questions (e.g. analysis or evaluation) were observed in late EMI classes (ibid., 7). The researchers highlight that high order questions are predominantly associated with better learning. The researchers conclude that the use of the L1 seemed to support higher-order questioning and thinking. When using the L2, teachers sometimes struggled to convey the complex meaning of a topic, resorting to the use of lower order questioning. The researchers state that the acceptance of flexibility between the L1 and L2 in the classroom, rather than the insistence of monolingual instruction, would allow teachers and students to utilise the L1 when necessary to achieve a higher cognitive level of questioning and thinking (ibid., 9).

3.5.4.2. Effect on learner behaviour

A study conducted on six teacher trainees of French in a secondary school setting in the UK analysed the data of 14 observed and videotaped lessons concerning the topic of L1 and L2 use (Macaro, 2001^b). The results showed that, overall, there was relatively modest use of the L1 in the lessons recorded, between 0-15 per cent. Moreover, and of interest for this section, the amount of L1 or L2 used by the teachers did not seem to have a significant effect on the amount of L1 or L2 used by the learners. From this, Macaro draws the conclusion that classroom code-switching does not appear to have an effect on the language use of learners, whether that is L1 or L2 use. He does, however, consider the idea that more extensive use of the L1, which was not observed in these lessons, could lead to increased learner L1 use, referring to the possibility of a L1-use-threshold. Of final interest, the study revealed a relationship between the length of lesson and amount of learner L1, suggesting the taxing nature of remaining in the L2 for longer periods of time (ibid., 537).

A study conducted on newly qualified French foreign language teachers in the UK corroborated the aforementioned data. Two teachers were observed and videotaped six times over the course of the first two years of teaching (Macaro and Mutton, 2002). The researchers focused on all manner of interactional practices observed over the course of the six lessons, but for the purpose of this thesis, the results concerning the use of L1 and L2 are of

interest. For the first participating teacher, the results showed that the teacher's use of the L1 varied across the lessons, but that this appeared to have no effect on the amount of L1 the learners used (ibid., 32). Moreover, the second participating teacher's video-recordings showed a similar pattern. In the final observed lesson, the amount of learner L2 talk was double what it had been in the previous two lessons even though the teacher's L1 talk actually increased in that lesson. Although the results could indicate some interesting insights concerning the effect of teacher code-switching in the foreign language classroom, the researchers were wary to draw conclusions due to the small sample size (ibid., 34-35).

As part of an extensive study on classroom code-switching in the South Korean EFL setting, conflicting data was found. Researchers attempted to establish what effect teacher code-switching had on the learners' language choices (Liu et al., 2004). In order to analyse this, 13 teachers of English from three different high schools were recorded while teaching a 50-minute lesson (ibid., 611). The researchers ascertained the learners' language choice by examining which language the learners used when responding to teachers' questions or comments. The responses were identified as belonging to one of eight established categories depending on the initial language choice of the teacher and the subsequent choice of the learner. There were separate categories for spontaneous language choices and language choices which were influenced by the teacher explicitly stipulating in which language they expected the learner to reply. Taking only the spontaneous language choices into consideration, the results show that the teachers' language choice has a significant effect on the learners' subsequent language choice. That is to say that when a teacher spoke in English, the learners predominantly also replied in English. In numbers, following teachers' English utterances, learners used English as the language of choice for their reply 268 times and chose to reply to an English utterance in Korean only 44 times. Similarly, when the teacher spoke Korean, 145 of the learner replies were also in Korean and 41 in English (ibid., 625). Although the researchers also found that challenging questions, even if they were produced by the teacher using English, were often answered by learners in Korean, the pattern generally shows, in contrast to Macaro's (2001^b) findings and Macaro and Mutton's (2002) findings, that learners' language choice is strongly influenced by that of their teachers (Liu et al., 2004: 627).

3.5.4.3. Effect on overall learning

One study put learners' private verbal thinking under the microscope to discover how the L1 and L2 play a role in problem-solving activities conducted in the L2 (Centeno-Cortés and Jiménez, 2004). Private verbal thinking or "thinking aloud" is a metacognitive/cognitive, social and affective tool used in a multitude of scenarios (ibid., 11). 18 participants were divided into three groups, native Spanish speakers, advanced Spanish speakers and intermediate Spanish speakers. In a laboratory setting, the participants were asked to answer a set of 15 challenging questions. They were provided with pen and paper but informed that usage of these materials would result in the loss of one point, thus encouraging them to use private verbal thinking rather than jotting down their processing (ibid., 13). The participants were audio-recorded while carrying out the tasks and these recordings were analysed for the private verbal thinking they contained (ibid., 14). The results showed that both the L1 and the L2 were used by the participants while conducting the tasks. The advanced learners often started in Spanish by reading the question out loud but quickly switched into English to continue with answering the questions. Of interest, the researchers highlight that those who stuck to Spanish for the whole process, ended up getting the question wrong or stopped trying (ibid., 23). In the intermediate group, translating items from the questions into the L1 was a frequently used strategy. The intermediate group also proceeded to conduct their verbal processing of the questions predominantly in English (ibid., 25). Centeno-Cortés and Jiménez conclude that with increasing L2 proficiency, an increased number of cognitive strategies become available to the learner in the L2. On the other hand, with lower proficiency, learners need to resort to the L1 to access these strategies. The researchers, thus, see the central importance of the L1 in the L2 classroom as a pedagogical tool for more cognitively challenging tasks (ibid., 31).

In a study dealing with consciousness-raising form-focussed tasks, Scott and De La Fuente (2008) considered the role of the L1 in collaborative pair work. The 24 participating learners all had English as their L1 and were studying either French or Spanish at university. The participants were presented with a text including targeted grammatical structures in bold. Their task was to decipher the meaning of the passages and to come up with a rule, both orally

and in written form. The pairs of learners were allocated to one of two conditions, group 1 were permitted to use the L1, whereas group 2 were told to exclusively use the L2 (ibid., 103-104). The participants were videotaped while conducting the tasks and interviewed in a subsequent stimulated recall session. Although both groups were able to show understanding of the task at hand, focus on the target structures and discuss them, some differences between the groups were established. Whereas the conversations in group 1 were relatively balanced, with each participant contributing equally, the conversations in group 2 transpired to be very unbalanced, with one participant commanding the majority of the talking time (ibid., 106). The researchers concluded that this lack of collaboration led to a lower level of problem-solving strategies, whereas those using the L1 “engage productively in a problem-solving activity, and build on each other’s explanations to solve the task” (ibid., 107). A further difference established was in the learners’ use of meta-linguistic terminology which was seen much more readily in the L1 condition. Whereas group 1 were able to use the terminology to talk about the grammatical structures in a confident manner, group 2’s “attempts to talk about the target structures were clumsy” (ibid., 108). Of note was that both groups reported both intrapersonal speech in the L1. The learners cognitively dealt with the structures they were provided with by utilising this process before and while discussing it with their partner (ibid., 108). Moreover, translating to the L1 in their heads to establish the meaning of the passage at hand was a strategy employed by both groups of learners, indicating the importance of the L1 in carrying out the task (ibid., 104). The researchers conclude that the study provides clear evidence for the fact that in spite of the surface appearance of using the L2, the L1 is still playing a continuous role in the cognitive processing of tasks in the EFL classroom. Moreover, insisted exclusive use of the L2 could lead to a negative impact on cognitive processing during a task due to these resources being applied elsewhere. Finally, the permitted use of the L1 for such tasks may reduce the cognitive overload, promote the use of metalinguistic terminology and finally, promote successful collaborative working, leading to better problem solving (ibid., 109).

One study conducted in a French immersion classroom in Canada looked at the effect of the L1 as a scaffolding tool to aid cognition (Turnbull, Cormier and Bourque, 2011). The study looked at two year 7 classes of which all have English as their L1. The study recorded pupil responses to questions following

several lessons on the topic of volcanoes held in French. The pupils were informed that they were allowed to switch into the L1 if they were struggling to convey what they wanted to say (ibid., 186). The recordings were then analysed firstly for the amount of L1 and L2 used and secondly for the complexity of student responses. The researchers found code-switching into the L1 to be significantly correlated with more complex responses to the questions and, hence, exclusive use of the L2 showed lower levels of complexity (ibid., 188). The researchers conclude that their results add to the empirical data highlighting possible benefits of the use of the L1 in the L2 classroom and its potential to help learners reach a higher cognitive level, therefore advocating against prohibiting its use (ibid., 195).

A further study, conducted by a teacher, using the method of Action Research was conducted in an EFL setting in Hong Kong (Wong, 2010). The study aimed at ascertaining the effectiveness of strict exclusively L2 instruction on overall language learning. The researcher used two senior secondary ESL classes for the study, totalling 49 pupils. The participants were all taught by the researcher with one class group receiving strict English-only instruction, including sanctions for speaking Chinese and the other group receiving instruction containing code-switching into Chinese, receiving merely verbal information that they ought to use English when they speak in class. The study took part over a time span of 11 months. The researcher conducted a pre- and post-test, examining speaking, listening, reading and writing competences (ibid., 120-122). The results show that the English-only class improved more than the class with a more relaxed language policy (ibid., 125). The researcher gives potential reasons for this improvement, stating that the increased input and output in the English language is likely to have fostered their receptive and productive skills, leading to higher scores in the test. Pertaining to the notion that learners will automatically choose which language they feel most comfortable in, the researcher concludes by advocating a strict exclusively L2 policy in order to hinder the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom (ibid., 127).

3.5.4.4. Effect on vocabulary acquisition

An early study looked at the effect of L1 translation versus picture support in the acquisition of new vocabulary in a foreign language (Lotto and DeGroot, 1998). Participants in the study were 64 Dutch L1 learners of Italian at the

University of Amsterdam. The participants were allocated to one of four groups and then one of two experimental conditions. The first two groups worked with Dutch words and the corresponding Italian translations and the second two groups used pictures and corresponding Italian words. The experiment consisted of both a learning and a test phase. In the test phase, one group from each condition was tested consistent with how they had learned, i.e. those who learned the words with the Dutch translations were shown these in the test and those who had learned with the pictures were shown these in the test. The other two groups were tested inconsistent with how they had learned the words (ibid., 46). The results showed that those in the testing condition that matched the learning condition scored higher. Moreover, a slightly but significantly higher score was seen in the word-learning condition rather than the picture-learning condition (ibid., 54). Lotto and DeGroot conclude that when learning L2 words, being offered an L1 translation of this word leads to more effective learning than being shown a corresponding picture of the word.

A study conducted in an EFL setting in China critically looked at the assumption that L2 words are best learned by intralingual teaching and learning strategies such as paraphrasing and the use of synonyms or antonyms by measuring the effect of L1 and L2 use during vocabulary teaching (Liu, 2008). Two groups of participants with roughly the same level of English were allocated to an experimental and a control group. Using an English essay as the source of new vocabulary, the control group were given explanations of new words only using the L2 and the experimental group was offered bilingual explanations, making use of both the L1 and L2. The vocabulary acquisition was ascertained by comparing the results of a pre- and delayed post-test, which both entailed translating English vocabulary and sentences into Chinese L1. The results of the pre-test showed that the two groups had a very similar vocabulary size concerning the new words used in the essay (ibid., 66). The delayed post-test, executed three weeks after the teaching instruction showed significant results in favour of the experimental condition. The researcher concluded that the bilingual teaching approach was more successful for the acquisition of new vocabulary in this EFL context (ibid., 67).

With various colleagues, Ernesto Macaro has concentrated research efforts on establishing the effect of L1 versus L2 vocabulary explanations. In a study

researching the effect of teacher code-switching on the acquisition of vocabulary, 117 EFL students at a Chinese university were randomly assigned to either an English-only, a code-switching condition or a control group (Tian and Macaro, 2012). Pre-tests, post-tests and delayed-tests were used to show the students vocabulary acquisition in the experimental conditions. Both the English only and the code-switching condition received a lexical focus-on-form approach with the English-only condition being provided with vocabulary explanations in English and the code-switching condition translations into their L1. The control group did not receive lexical focus-on-form, they were not provided with any vocabulary explanations (ibid., 374). Both groups who received lexical focus-on-form instruction outperformed the control group. Students in the code-switching condition performed better than the English-only condition in the immediate post-test, but this effect diminished in the delayed test (ibid., 378). Important was that the nature of code-switching in the study reflected naturally occurring instances of code-switching, being dominated by the matrix language and switching into the embedded language for brief instances. Tian and Macaro see this as being potential first steps towards defining optimal L1 usage in the EFL classroom (ibid., 383).

In a further study researching age-related differences on the effect of L1 and L2 vocabulary learning, 443 primary school children and 286 adult learners at university in South Korea were tested on their retention of L2 vocabulary taught through reading tasks (Lee and Macaro, 2013). Results showed that younger learners benefited from code-switching instruction more so than English-only instruction in both recall and retention recall scores. For older learners, the study showed significantly higher scores for code-switching instruction in immediate recall tests but not in retention tests (ibid., 894). The conclusion drawn was that regardless of the level of proficiency, connection with the L1 lexical store occurs. This connection was shown to be more pronounced in younger, and in this case less proficient EFL speakers, than older learners. Overall, Lee and Macaro say that EFL learning can be facilitated by a certain amount of code-switching (ibid., 897).

A more recent study shows the effect of exclusively L2 versus selected L1 usage on the acquisition of vocabulary, this time differentiating between concrete and abstract English words (Zhao and Macaro, 2016). In the study,

148 students of English from a Chinese university were assigned to either an L1-use condition, exclusively L2-use condition or the control group. The premise of the study is that the processing of concrete and abstract words is assumed to be different. Concrete words are thought to have closer representations in the learners' minds across their languages than abstract words (ibid., 79-80). In a reading task, pupils were either offered vocabulary explanations in the L1, in the L2 or not at all. All participants were tested prior to the intervention, immediately after and one week following the intervention (ibid., 84-85). The results showed that the L1-use group scored significantly higher than the L2-only use group in both the concrete and abstract word categories. Also of note, both of these groups significantly outperformed the control group (ibid., 89). Zhao and Macaro conclude the importance of explicit explanations of new vocabulary in the EFL classroom. Moreover, the targeted use of the L1 for explaining new vocabulary leads to more effective learning and retainment. They offer possible explanations for the higher success rates of L1-use on vocabulary acquisition. The processing of an L2-only explanation is complex and teachers may tend towards offering explanations which are not within the learners' realm of experience. This leads to the learners selecting a 'best candidate' word, which is often not the target translation of the new piece of vocabulary. Zhao and Macaro advocate for the addressing of the role of L1 and its potential advantages in EFL teacher training programmes (ibid., 93).

A further study also looked at the effect of L1 translation versus L2 only vocabulary instruction following a French L2 listening task (Hennebry et al., 2017). The study looked at explicit vocabulary instruction (listen-plus) of which they established two experimental conditions, L1 equivalent and L2 definitions, and an additional control condition of incidental vocabulary learning (listen-only). The participants were 262 high school students in the UK who were studying French as an L2 (ibid., 5-6). Pre-tests of overall proficiency in the French language and specific aural proficiency were conducted prior to the allocation of the participants to the various conditions (ibid., 7). The intervention was conducted in two phases and each phase consisted of four listening tasks. Following each phase, there was a test on 30 target French words using two test formats, a recognition and a recall test (ibid. 8). The results showed the intervention group to outperform the control groups in testing, indicating a benefit of explicit vocabulary instruction in foreign language teaching.

Concerning the question of L1 versus L2 explicit vocabulary instruction, the results showed some evidence in support of an L1 translations approach. The researchers did further statistical tests to establish whether overall French proficiency had an effect on the extent to which L1 or L2 instruction of vocabulary was more beneficial. Their findings showed no significant differences for the recognition test but significant differences for the recall test, stating that an L1 translation approach is more effective regardless of overall language proficiency of the individuals (ibid., 10-12). Hennebry et al. conclude by stressing the benefit of providing learners with L1 information when teaching L2 vocabulary.

In a recent study, Lee and Levine (2018) look at the effect that teachers' language choice has on vocabulary learning and listening comprehension. The study looked at 195 EFL learners in a higher education setting in Korea (ibid., 254). The participants were divided into intermediate and advanced groups and then assigned to one of either two experimental conditions, namely the English-only or code-switching condition, or the control condition (ibid., 255), therefore in total there were 6 groups. The participants were played a listening text and were required to initially pay attention to just the content. When the listening text was played for a second time, the teacher interrupted the listening text to directly focus on unknown lexical items, either in the L2 or the L1, depending on which experimental condition the learners were in (ibid., 255). This was followed by a recall task in which the participants in both experimental groups were required to relay, in written form, what they could remember from the listening text. The control group was also played the listening text twice but not offered any vocabulary explanations (ibid. 256). Immediate and delayed post-tests were used by the researchers to ascertain the vocabulary learning outcomes (ibid., 259). The results, once again, highlight the importance of lexical focus-on-form in language learning, with the experimental conditions outperforming the control conditions (ibid., 264). Comparing the two experimental conditions, the code-switching condition proved to be more beneficial for vocabulary learning. Moreover, the study provides some interesting insight concerning the effect of classroom code-switching when taking learners' proficiency levels into account. The research showed that L1 usage, when introducing new vocabulary items, was of notable benefit to intermediate learners, enabling them to acquire a similar amount of new words

as the more advanced learners. The difference between the two experimental conditions was not pronounced for the more advanced learners. Lee and Levine conclude that the use of the L1 in lexical focus-on-form tasks could be of significant benefit, especially to less advanced learners (ibid., 266-267).

3.5.4.5. Effect on writing competences

A few studies have been conducted to ascertain the effect of L1-use in the foreign language classroom on attainment in writing competences. Some of the following studies look at the oral use of the L1 in collaborative writing tasks, whereas others look at the notion of planning L2 written products by either using the L1 or the L2. Of course, these two variations of studies are measuring different aspects, but both try to establish the effect of the L1 on L2 written production which, in turn, can help us gain a more profound understanding of the potential role of the L1 in the foreign language classroom.

An early study looked at the effect of the L1 on the quality of L2 written production (Friedlander, 1990). The researcher hypothesised that L2 written output will be of a higher standard if the learners are allowed to plan in the language most closely related to the topic-area knowledge. 28 Chinese L1 university students took part in the study. They were divided into two conditions. They were asked to plan and write replies to two letters personally addressed to them. The participants were allocated to one of two conditions. The first condition required of them to plan their response in their L1 (Chinese) and the second condition were asked to plan in their L2 (English). Both conditions then subsequently wrote their letters in the L2. In each condition, the participants were given one of two topics to write about – a Chinese festival or about life at an American University. Therefore, in each condition there were participants whose planning language was congruent to the topic language and vice-versa. The results showed that a higher quality of written output was achieved by those students for whom the topic language and planning language matched. The plans and final written product were both shown to be longer, more detailed and of higher quality. Regardless of topic and whether it was the matched or mismatched condition, plans were more detailed when produced in the L1 rather than the L2, the length of the final L2 written product, however, remained unaffected. The researchers suggest that the results indicate that the L1 enables the learners to better retrieve their ideas.

One study looks at two French immersion classes in Toronto, Canada (Swain and Lapkin, 2000). The two classes with 30 and 35 pupils worked in pairs and were instructed to complete a dictogloss and a jigsaw task, respectively. The two tasks dealt with the same story. In the jigsaw task, the group members held pictures depicting the story and then took it in turns to narrate the parts of the story corresponding to the pictures. Following this they worked together to produce a written version of the story. For the dictogloss method, the group listened to an audio-version of the story read by a native speaker while taking notes. Following this, the group then had to work together to rewrite the story based on their notes (ibid., 256). The classes were not asked to speak any language in particular. The researchers then analysed the amount of L1 spoken and the extent to which this had an influence on the outcome of their written L2 product. The quality of writing was ascertained using a five-point scale taking both content and language into account. In the class with the jigsaw task, significant correlations showed that pupils with higher scores for the written task spoke the L1 less frequently than those who achieved lower scores. Hence, the more L1 used in either of the writing tasks, the lower the scores concerning both language and content in the written production. The results were similar in the dictogloss group but slightly less pronounced and no significant correlations were found (ibid., 262). The study, however, does not control for language proficiency in their results and due to the fact that the participants were freely allowed to choose the language in which they conducted the task, the conclusion could be reached that lower-achieving learners need to make use of the L1 more frequently but not that use of the L1 itself leads to a lower quality of writing production. Swain and Lapkin do, however state that the use of the L1 clearly has a key facilitating function for the pupils, especially those with lower language proficiency, in cognitively demanding tasks, concluding that the use of the L1 should be neither prohibited nor encouraged in the L2 classroom (ibid., 268).

A further more recent study looks at collaborative writing in the EFL classroom (Zhang, 2018). The study aimed to establish whether the use of the L1 in collaborative writing tasks had an effect on the accuracy, complexity and quality of L2 output in the form of a written product. Collaborative writing involves a communicative exchange with another learner during the writing process, in the end producing a joint piece of work. Numerous studies have

shown the positive effects of collaborative writing on the final written product (Wigglesworth and Storch, 2009; Kim, 2008). However, looking at the effect with regards to L1 versus L2 usage had not been looked at. The study conducted by Zhang (2018) included 70 participants, divided into 35 pairs of English language learners at a Chinese university (ibid., 3). Two essays were written during the study. In the first essay, 18 of the pairs were told to communicate using only Chinese and the other 17 pairs were instructed to only speak in English for the duration of the collaborative writing task. For the second essay, the following week, the pairs switched condition, having now to use only the alternative language to the first time. Transcripts showed that all pairs spoke primarily in the language required for the experimental condition they were in (ibid., 4). Measuring lexical complexity, syntactic complexity, accuracy, fluency and text quality, the researchers examined the written products. Of statistical significance was the complexity of clauses, with the L1 condition producing significantly longer clauses than the L2 condition. Concerning accuracy, it was shown that L1 communication in collaborative writing tasks does not have a significant effect on linguistic accuracy. There were also no differences established concerning the fluency and text quality (ibid., 6). The researchers conclude that the use of the L1 was not shown to be detrimental to the quality of written production in collaborative writing tasks and that it may, in fact, enable learners to reach higher levels of linguistic complexity as shown in the more complicated clauses employed in the L1 condition (ibid., 7).

3.5.4.6. Effect on speaking competences

A recent study carried out by Rahayu (2018) looked at the effect of the medium of instruction on the learners' English language speaking competences. The participants, 70 year 7 EFL learners from a Junior High School in Indonesia, were divided into two conditions, the experimental exclusively L2 instruction group and the control code-switching-based-instruction group, which represents the norm of Indonesian EFL classroom instruction. A pre- and post-test looking at the oral competences and based on the Common European Framework for Reference for Languages were conducted (ibid., 948). The results showed significant results in favour of the exclusively L2-based instructional approach. The authors draw the conclusion that an exclusively L2 classroom environment encourages learners to speak the language and, in turn,

improves their speaking abilities. They, thus, support the implementation of an exclusively L2 approach and avoidance of teacher code-switching in order to improve EFL learning results in Indonesia (ibid., 951).

3.5.5. State of research on teacher trainees

Although there has been no research done on the attitudes, practices and beliefs of teacher trainers concerning code-switching in the EFL classroom, a small amount of research has been conducted using teacher trainees as participants. This section shall look at this research and attempts to provide a comprehensive overview of research done on this specific aspect of the topic. The structure of the section looks at the relevant studies chronologically. This thesis adds to the research already conducted on teacher trainees and provides first insights into the attitudes and beliefs of teacher trainers in Germany. In this vein, it is of importance to provide background information concerning research already conducted on teacher trainees. This is of importance to be able to position the results of this thesis among the information already available, to look for similarities and differences to previous research.

The first study found to look at teacher trainees was the Tarclindy Project conducted in foreign language classrooms in England and Wales (Macaro, 1997). Macaro compared student teachers with both beginner and experienced teachers. It was shown that the teacher trainees made use of the L1 more often than both beginner and experienced teachers. Instructions or clarification for activities was the most common reason for teacher code-switching and this occurred an average of 8.6, 7.1 and 5.7 times per teaching hour for teacher trainees, beginner teachers and experienced teachers respectively. Giving feedback to pupils was the second most frequent reason for teacher code-switching and this followed a similar pattern as mentioned above with code-switching for this reason happening an average of 4.6, 4.2 and 3.8 times per teaching hour for the three groups. The third most common reason for L1 usage was for translating and checking comprehension. Here, however, the teacher trainees switched the least often, with an average of 2, 3.6 and 6 times per teaching hour for teacher trainees, beginner teachers and experienced teachers respectively, showing a reverse of the previous results. The remaining categories follow the same pattern as the first two functions of code-switching with teacher trainees switching an average of 27.57 times per teaching hour in

comparison to averages of 23.58 and 23.14 times for beginner teachers and experienced teachers, respectively (ibid., 86). However, in spite of these apparent variations in amounts and reasons for code-switching, Macaro found no difference between teachers of varying levels of teaching experience concerning their overall attitude to the use of the L1 in the foreign language classroom (ibid., 88). Concerning the differences found, Macaro explains a certain lack of ease observed in the teacher trainees, they were more likely to get flustered and stressed in situations requiring discipline or lack of comprehension in the classroom than more experienced teachers, causing them to resort to the L1 more often as a helpful resource to support them through challenging teaching situations (ibid., 89).

Another early study, also conducted by Macaro (2001^b) looked at six student teachers and considered their personal beliefs, what they learned during the training programme and government recommendations. In a first step, the trainees were provided with and asked to discuss six arguments and counterarguments regarding the topic of L1 use in the foreign language classroom. Following this, they dealt with literature on the topic of teacher code-switching. The teacher trainees were then asked to think about three theoretical standpoints; the virtual position (total exclusion of the L1); the maximal position (teachers sometimes have to resort to the L1); the optimal position (L1 could be of pedagogical use) (ibid., 534-535). The teacher trainees were also video recorded conducting lessons over two months, following which they were interviewed by the researcher. A final, follow-up interview was conducted to ascertain any developments and changes in their stance towards teacher code-switching in the L2 classroom (ibid., 536). The findings showed that the student teachers used relatively little L1 in the recorded lessons (between 0 and 15.2 percent) (ibid., 537). In the follow-up interviews, the trainees mentioned various reasons for use of the L1, such as providing students with procedural instructions and reprimanding students. The teacher trainees were influenced by different aspects, some more so by their own personal beliefs and experiences about using the L1 in the foreign language classroom and some more so by the guidelines set out in the curriculum which focus on exclusively L2-based-instruction. The confrontation with the various arguments and literature at the beginning of the study seemed to foster the majority of the trainees' abilities to reflect upon their language practice. However, none of the

trainees mentioned the potential benefit of utilising the L1 as a linguistic resource for learning a foreign language. Macaro advocates for the development of a framework for both practicing and prospective teachers to outline the use of the L1 as a beneficial tool in language learning (ibid., 545).

In a study conducted in the Israeli EFL setting, 14 participating teacher trainees were asked to hold, record, transcribe and reflect one EFL lesson concerning L1 and L2 use (Orland-Barak and Yinon, 2005). Analysis established three common categories for the function of using the L1 in the EFL classroom, namely, “using L1 for clarification purposes”, “using L1 for communication purposes” and “using L1 for managerial purposes” (ibid.). The trainees’ quotes often reflected the notion that their practice showed them, contrary to what they had previously believed, that the L1 was a useful resource in the EFL classroom, “novices reported to have gained a more situated and realistic perspective of the various uses of mother tongue in communicative teaching” (ibid., 98). The researchers mention novice teachers’ apparent desire to establish a positive relationship with their students as one motivation for their use and acceptance of the L1 in the EFL classroom. Moreover, they put it down to lack of experience that the trainees used the L1 often for purposes of clarification, communication and managing the class, “[t]he use of L1 for these purposes suggests something about novices’ shared effort to survive their first year of teaching, by resorting to L1 as a strategy in the process of building their new professional image” (ibid., 105). Overall, the researchers see the participants’ status as novice teachers to be a central influencing factor in their use of and attitudes towards the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom.

Bateman (2008) looked at the attitudes and beliefs of 10 teacher trainees regarding the use of the English L1 in the Spanish foreign language classroom, adopting a longitudinal approach. The participants were required to complete two questionnaires, both at the beginning and at the end of their teacher training. Additionally, four written papers, reflecting upon their use of the L1 in the classroom were collected by the researchers at regular intervals during the course of their training. In response to an initial question about the extent to which the foreign language classroom should be an exclusively L2 environment, most of the teacher trainees were of the opinion that this should, as much as possible, be the case (ibid., 15). This extensive use of the L2 was thought to

have a beneficial effect on competences in the foreign language and increase their credibility as teachers of Spanish (ibid., 16). When asked to quantify the amount of L2 use they would aim for in a lesson, 90 per cent of those asked answered between 70 – 95 per cent of the time (ibid.). When specifically asked about the use of L1 or L2 for specific classroom activities, the participants named things such as providing clarification to aid comprehension, giving a pupil some individual help, or dealing with discipline issues as acceptable situations in which the use of the L1 would be acceptable. The linguistic limitations of non-native teachers were named as one factor contributing to the potential need to switch to the L1, saying that they felt uncomfortable and embarrassed about their proficiency in the target language (ibid., 19). Issues of time, or rather the lack of it, were also mentioned as motivations to switch into the L1 (ibid.). Relating to the students, their low language proficiency and lack of motivation was also mentioned as a reason as to why the teacher trainees felt it was sometimes necessary to switch to the L1 (ibid., 21-22). Comparing the pre- and post-questionnaires on the question of for what proportion of the lesson do they currently use the L2, there were mixed results. Whereas some of the participants' estimates increased since the start of their training, slightly more of the estimates decreased. Moreover, concerning the question of for what proportion of the lesson would they want to speak the L2, the majority of the estimates stayed very high (between 75 and 95 per cent), whereas some decreased (ibid., 24). The researchers conclude by stating that a distinct lack of confidence in their own linguistic capabilities to conduct an entire Spanish lesson in the L2 seem to be holding the teacher trainees back from doing so. As implications for teacher training, the researchers advocate more training on how to make the L2 accessible and how to build it into the lesson so as best to avoid use of the L1.

A further study looked at 16 university students in Quebec who had completed their final practical school placement of teaching English as a second language (Parks, 2015). The teacher trainees were studying at the time of the introduction of an updated curriculum, "which emphasized maximizing the use of the target language" (ibid., 3). The data analysed were completed forms reflecting upon own language use in the foreign language classroom, reports and forum posts where the trainees were allowed to discuss with each other over the course of the school placement. In the published article, data is

presented in the form of case studies, focussing on two of the 16 participants. The first trainee proudly stated her near exclusive use of the L2 during her placement, to the extent that the pupils were not aware of the fact that she also spoke French until right at the end of her time at the school. Moreover, her mentor teacher at the school also had an influence on her motivation to employ L2-based-instruction because she did so herself (ibid., 4). Contrastingly, the other case study describes the teacher trainee, despite initial intentions, speaking the French L1 for approximately three quarters of the teaching time. She named an uncooperative mentor, who used the L1 extensively in the classroom and unmotivated attitudes of her students as part of the difficulty in persisting with use of the L2 (ibis., 6). Parks emphasises the importance of setting in the influence of L1 or L2 use in the foreign language classroom, seeing as both participants had strong intentions to maximize the use of the L2 but only one was successful (ibid, 8). Moreover, the factor of power is mentioned, specifically in dealing with mentor teachers and already established approaches and teaching methods applied in the schools that teacher trainees enter into (ibid., 9).

Bilgin (2016) conducted a study on five teacher trainees in the EFL context in Turkey. The methods of data collection comprised recorded lessons conducted by the trainees followed by interviews on the topic of code-switching (ibid., 690). Bilgin draws the connection between the teacher trainees' language choice and their teacher selves. Feeling an apparent want to maximise the use of the L2 appeared to be closely connected with their self-concept and idea of their own competences as an English teacher. Moreover, the idea of not using or allowing the use of any Turkish seemed to adhere to the participants image of what an English teacher should be, and what they aspire to be (ibid., 694-695). Some of the participants reported unease at blank faces and lack of comprehension, leading to them feeling the need to switch the language rather than waiting till someone answered the question or explaining something in a different way still in the L2 (ibid., 696). This was particularly the case when it came to teaching grammar. Here the teacher trainees often switched to the L1, also stating their lack of competence and knowledge concerning grammatical phenomena as leading to them being nervous about teaching it to the pupils, and thus to an unease in using the L2 (ibid., 698). The researcher concludes by stipulating possible developments for teacher training education, such as

sensitising both teacher trainees to the use of code-switching in the foreign language classroom and its potential benefits to language learning (ibid., 700).

Yildiz and Yeşilyurt (2017) also looked at the beliefs and attitudes of teacher trainees concerning language use in the EFL classroom. The researchers distributed a questionnaire to 374 teacher trainees attending four different universities (ibid., 86). The results showed that the majority of those asked, 65 per cent, were of the opinion that the L1, in this case Turkish, has a role to play in the process of learning English. The remaining trainees were against the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom (ibid., 86). Those who were opposed to the use of the L1 gave a multitude of reasons for their opinion, such as the inevitable decrease in L2 input, it leading to the formation of bad habits and that it is generally detrimental to the learning of the L2 (ibid., 88). Those who were of the belief that Turkish should play a role in the EFL classroom gave reasons such as, it will facilitate understanding, it is useful for purposes of classroom management, it helps the students make connections and compare the languages and that it is generally necessary when learning a new language to make use of the L1 (ibid., 90-91). The researchers conclude that the teacher trainee beliefs and attitudes highlight the use for the L1 in the L2 classroom.

Two of the most recent studies into teacher trainees and language choice in the foreign language classroom were conducted by Sener and Korkut (2017; 2018). The first study looked at 41 senior EFL trainees. The trainees were required to conduct observations of mentor teachers, focussing on the use of the Turkish L1 and for what reason possible code-switching occurred, followed by a report of their assessment of L1 usage in the observed lesson. Prior to carrying out the observations and writing observation reports, the participants were informed about the use of the L1 in foreign language classrooms in a theoretical lesson at university (Sener and Korkut, 2017: 44). Regarding an overwhelming acceptance of using the L1 for translating when students do not understand, the researcher describes the fact that the trainees “seem to have fallen into that pitfall before they actually enter the profession” (ibid., 47). Approximately a quarter of participants also thought that the L1 should be used for giving instructions and 29.2 per cent thought teachers should code-switch when teaching grammar or vocabulary, also highlighting the importance of ensuring understanding (ibid., 48). Concerning advantages and disadvantages

to using the L1 in the foreign language classroom, 43.9 per cent of those asked believed that employing the use of the L1 would have the benefit of increasing student motivation (ibid., 48). A further benefit of using the L1, as mentioned by 36.5 per cent of teacher trainees, was seen to be creating a safe learning environment (ibid., 49). Time saving was mentioned as a final advantage to using the L1 in the classroom by 12.1 per cent of participants. Four disadvantages of L1 use in the foreign language classroom mentioned by the teacher trainees were lack of chance for learners to practice the new language, limiting L2 exposure from the teacher, that using the L1 was an unnatural way of learning language and finally, that using the L1 could lead to learners being apprehensive and scared about communicating in the L2 (ibid., 50-51). With regards overall use of the L1, 17 per cent of the teacher trainees saw the L1 as representing a fundamental tool in the foreign language classroom, seeing it as a central part of the learners' personal identity (ibid., 52). 31.7 per cent of participants mentioned the idea that the L1 could be useful in some classroom situations and 26.8 per cent were more focussed on ways to reduce the use of the L1 in their answers, with the goal of an exclusively L2 classroom (ibid., 53). Overall, the study shows differing views of teacher trainees concerning the role of the L1 in the classroom.

In Sener and Korkut's most recent study (2018), they build on the work conducted in the previous study by ascertaining the level of congruence between teacher trainee beliefs and their actual practice concerning the use of the L1 in the foreign language classroom. The participants of the study were six teacher trainees representing a range of opinions, selected from the 41 sampled in the earlier study. The participants were video-recorded conducting one lesson and subsequently interviewed. The findings showed mixed results. Whereas some of the participants beliefs and attitudes from the previous study were predominantly congruent with their teaching, namely two trainees representing the *virtual position* (exclusively L2 instruction) and one representing the *optimal position* (some value in the L1), other participants' teaching seemed not to closely reflect their previously stated beliefs and attitudes, namely the two participants who had represented more of a *maximal position* (no value in L1 but sometimes it can be resorted to) (ibid., 124). Sener and Korkut conclude by emphasising the importance of the teacher training

placements in shaping and altering previously held teaching beliefs, as the experiences gained have an effect.

Overall, the studies on the attitudes, beliefs and practices show that there are certainly differences among teacher trainees. The setting, the learners, one's own linguistic capabilities and ease felt when standing in front of a class all seem to play a role in the actual practice of L1 and L2 use in the classroom. These findings shall be taken into account when looking at the results of this thesis concerning similarities and differences to the attitudes and beliefs of teacher trainees in NRW concerning the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom.

4. Outline of study

The following sections shall detail the empirical study conducted for this dissertation project. The aim of the empirical study was to gain a comprehensive overview of the attitudes, beliefs and practices of code-switching from those involved in the education of prospective English teachers in North Rhine Westphalia and the teacher trainees themselves. What is to be taken into account is the teachers' (both trainees and trainers) mind-set, in particular concerning the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom. A teacher's mind-set is defined by Surkamp and Viebrock (2018: 41) as "a system of personal beliefs, assumptions, knowledge and attitudes any teacher holds on account of his previous experiences with school, teaching and learning". This mind-set not only influences actions and interpretations of classroom events but is also very stable and resistant to change (ibid.). Furthermore, these beliefs are likely to influence teachers' decision making and actions taken more so than knowledge acquired throughout their education (Macaro, 2001^b: 533). The first section shall discuss the methodological considerations taken in the conception of the empirical study. Here, the research design and subsequent data collection and analysis procedures will be outlined. The empirical work for this dissertation project was conducted with adherence to the University of Cologne's guidelines for safeguarding good academic practice (Universität zu Köln: Der Rektor, 2020).

Teacher trainers	Survey	Interview	Teacher trainees	Survey	Interview
F1			R1		
F2			R2		
F3			R3		
F4			R4		
F5			R5		
F6			R6		
F7			R7		
F8			R8		
F9			R9		
F10			R10		
F11			R11		
F12			R12		
F13					
Transcription of interviews					
Analysis of interviews and surveys					

Figure 3: Table of outline of study

4.1. Participants

The participants for the empirical study were selected primarily by means of convenience sampling (Riazi, 2016: 60). This initial sample was then expanded by means of snowball sampling (ibid.: 298). Those who were initially contacted and took part in the study were then asked to nominate other contacts they thought may be interested in contributing. The participants of the study were teacher trainers (Fachleiter/Fachleiterinnen) and teacher trainees (Lehramtsanwärterinnen/Lehramtsanwärter or Referendarinnen/Referendare). Also included were newly qualified teachers who had completed their teacher training a maximum of one year prior to taking part in the project. This was done seeing as these teachers would still have their teacher training time fresh in their minds and would, therefore, be able to easily recall procedures and events from during that time. The catchment area for the study was NRW. The exclusion of other states was implemented due to the nature of the organisation of the school system in Germany which is conducted in line with the principles of federalism. As a consequence, the Core Curricula for the teaching of English at the various school types (cf. Ministerium für Schule, Jugend und Kinder des Landes Nordrhein-Westfalen, 2004; 2004^b; 2007; 2011; 2012; 2014) and the teacher training curriculum (cf. Ministerium für Schule und Weiterbildung des Landes NRW, 2016) are specific to NRW. Hence, conclusions drawn about NRW's school system and the education of teachers in that state cannot be indiscriminately applied to other German federal states. Within NRW, all teacher training institutes (*Zentren für schulpraktische Lehrerbildung*) and all

branches of teaching (primary education, lower and upper secondary education) were considered. Due to the proportions of teacher trainees and teacher trainers in each of the branches of teaching, some are more represented than others in the empirical study. A total of thirteen teacher trainers took part in the project. Nine of these were trainers for prospective teachers for grammar schools and upper secondary level education (*Gymnasien/Gesamtschulen*). Three were teacher trainers for lower secondary education (*Haupt-, Real- und Gesamtschulen*) and one participant was a teacher trainer for primary education (*Grundschule*). Eleven teacher trainees took part in the project. Six of these were training to become teachers for grammar schools and upper secondary level education. Four were training for lower secondary level education and one for primary education.

Participants took part on a purely voluntary basis. In line with research ethics and the EU General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR), informed written consent was gathered from the participants of the study. A template provided by the University of Cologne for use in research projects was adapted for the purpose of the present study. The document was provided in German, the participants' L1. With this, participants were informed of the nature and purpose of the study as well as procedures being taken to ensure the safety and anonymity of their data. They were also informed of their right to withdraw consent at any time during or following the data collection. Additionally, participants were welcome to ask any questions they may have about the project and treatment of their data. The declaration of consent had then two levels of consent, one for the use of their data exclusively for this empirical study and secondly the additional use of their data for potential future related research projects. Participants could decide themselves to which level they consented.

4.2. Methods

An inductive approach was adopted for this thesis. An inductive research approach, in contrast to a deductive one represents a “bottom-up approach, using particular observations and data to make general inferences” (Riazi, 2016: 140). In this empirical study, data was gathered, on the basis of which possible conclusions and theories were drawn. In order to make accurate inferences and address the questions posed by this thesis, a mixed-methods

research approach was applied. In combination, quantitative and qualitative methods in the form of closed-ended questionnaire items and semi-structured interviews were used. This represents a between-strategies mixed-methods data collection approach (cf. Riazi, 2016: 20-21). Moreover, the study design represents a concurrent mixed-methods data collection approach with an expansion purpose, namely “the two phases of the study are conducted in parallel [and] the logic is to expand the scope of a study by adding and incorporating another set of data and analysis” (Riazi, 2016: 111-112). In this case, the more representative quantitative survey approach is complemented by the more in-depth qualitative interview approach, allowing for the expansion of the attitudes and beliefs ascertained through closed-ended questions in the survey. Of note in any kind of research design is the potential for bias in results pertaining to the social desirability factor, namely the subjective need of a participant to adhere to supposedly held beliefs about what the answers should be, rather than what they actually think. It is important for researchers to be aware of this factor and its possible influence on results (Riazi, 2016: 299). This has been addressed in this empirical study in a number of ways. First and foremostly, the responses from all participants, in both the survey and interview data are anonymised and the participants were informed of this fact. Moreover, participants were explicitly informed about this type of bias and reminded that there is no right or wrong answers and that they should merely express what they think and feel.

4.2.1. Survey

Firstly, the participants filled out a survey (see appendix). Questions were formulated on the basis of good-practice criteria and three central considerations - whether the question can be understood, whether the participant is capable of answering the question and, finally, whether the participant wants to answer the question being asked. The use of double-barrelled questions was avoided due to the difficulty in analysing the meaning of participants' responses (cf. Riazi, 2016: 99).

The first few questions were merely factual, used to gather general demographic information about the participant. This information was collected to ascertain whether it had any bearing on the subsequently asked questions. Firstly, a number of categorical variables were asked, for example gender and

the type of educational studies the participants are qualified in. Furthermore, information concerning the amount of teaching or teacher training experience was gathered in years. Additional factors potentially expected to influence subsequent answers were also considered, for example, the amount of time spent in an English-speaking country and work-experience in an area other than teaching.

The questions that followed were to ascertain the participants' attitudes and beliefs concerning the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom. The participants were asked about general views and how they felt about code-switching for specific uses in the EFL classroom. The questionnaires for teacher trainers and trainees were, on the whole, the same, with only a few exceptions which were then specific to each group. Following the in-depth look into the literature concerning the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom, questions were established for the survey to best gauge the attitudes, beliefs and practices of the teacher trainees and teacher trainers concerning L1 use in the EFL classroom. Closed questions were used throughout the survey. This has both advantages and disadvantages for the empirical study. Although closed-ended questions are easier to analyse, they do not allow for a more extensive look at why the participants chose the answers they did. However, due to the interview data also collected, allowing for in-depth answers on the topic, closed-ended questions remained the best option for the survey. For the questions directed at gauging participants' beliefs and attitudes, the survey makes use of the Likert scale. In response to statements, the participant is able to choose between four provided options in order to express agreement or disagreement to varying extents. The possible answers should, in line with the idea of an interval scale, suggest an equal distance between them (cf. Riazi, 2016: 34-35). It is, however, important to recognise that although an equal distance is implied, the subjective interpretation of the categories could still play a role in the answer choices of the individual participant. The participants were given ample time, prior to commencing the interview, to fill out the questionnaire.

4.2.1.1. Survey Analysis

The results of the survey were entered into and tabulated with Excel (version 2105, Microsoft Inc.). Plotting and statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism (version 8.0.2., GraphPad software Inc.).

Results were plotted either as a pie chart for questions with limited answer possibilities, with the exception of questions using a Likert scale, for which a bar chart also indicating standard deviation and, in selected cases, values of single answers were used. Questions with open, continuous numerical answer possibilities were also plotted as a bar chart indicating standard deviation and, in selected cases, values of single answers. Descriptive statistics used to describe data included calculation of arithmetic mean and standard deviation for all Likert scale or continuous numerical answer possibility questions.

Differences in answers between teacher trainers and teacher trainees were analysed by comparing answers of both groups for all questions that were in both the teacher trainer and teacher trainee questionnaire by a t-test, assuming the same standard deviation across all answers. This is a reasonable assumption considering all questions included in this comparison used a Likert scale. As answers to 36 questions were compared, multiple testing correction was necessary, which was performed using the Two-stage step-up method of Benjamini and Yekutieli (1999). The accepted type I error rate was set at $q=0.10$. Results were visualized using a volcano plot.

For some questions, the relationship between a continuous variable (e.g. years since qualification) and Likert scale answers was analysed. For this purpose, a one-way ANOVA with a post test for linear trend was used (Sheskin, 2011: 940-952).

4.2.2. Interviews

To complement the survey, semi-structured interviews were conducted with the participants. There was an interview protocol with questions, supplying the structured aspect of the interview (see appendix). On the other hand, a certain level of flexibility and openness was present in the interactional nature of the interviews, allowing for further questioning in order to elicit a more detailed response or further explanation if and when it was needed. Probing was done by use of both verbal and non-verbal strategies. Verbally, probing was done directly following an utterance to request further clarification or retrospectively by drawing on something said by the participant at an earlier stage to elicit more information. Non-verbally, probing was done by means of encouraging nods, facial expressions or gestures to allow the participant to further elaborate. (cf.

Riazi, 2016: 249). The probing was done on an individual basis, with the interviewer gauging what level of encouragement and probing each participant needed in order to answer the questions asked. The interviewer ensured that the tone and manner in which further questions were asked was relaxed and friendly in order to keep the participant at ease and not make them think they had answered anything incorrectly.

4.2.2.1. Interview Analysis

The total interview data comprised of over fifteen hours of material. None of the interviews were excluded from analysis. A “clean read verbatim” (Mayring, 2014: 45) transcription of the audio material was produced by the company Digitalmeister GmbH. The transcriptions were checked and solely analysed by the researcher. The approach chosen to analyse the interview data collected for this study is qualitative content analysis. Defined by Hsieh and Shannon as, “the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns” (2005: 1278), textual data collected can encompass data from numerous sources including interview data in audio format. The textual data derived from the interviews is studied intensely in order to establish categories that represent subject matter of a similar nature. The categories developed are representations of either “explicit or inferred communication” (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005: 1278). Due to the fact that there have been only a few studies conducted on the attitudes of teacher trainees and, to date, no studies conducted on the attitudes of teacher trainers of English concerning the L1-use in the classroom, a conventional content analysis approach was selected. In this, researchers apply an inductive approach. This inductive category development, as put forth by Mayring (2000: 3) constitutes a close and intense examination of the given textual data, “develop[ing] the aspects of interpretation, the categories, as near as possible to the material, to form them in terms of the material”. In this way, a procedure is undertaken of a “step by step formulation of inductive categories out of the material” followed by a “revision of categories after 10-50% of the material [...] a feedback loop [in which] categories are revised, eventually reduced to main categories [...]” (Mayring, 2000: 4). The categories can also be referred to as “idea units – a chunk of text that conveys a key concept, which is directly or indirectly related to

research questions of the study and bears some degree of significance to the researcher” (Riazi, 2016: 36-37).

Following an initial read-through of the interview data, the material was approached on an interview by interview basis. Each interview was extensively studied in order to induce codes pertaining to occurring themes found in the data. Two sets of codes were established, one for the interviews with the teacher trainers and one for those conducted with the teacher trainees. Although there is significant overlap between the interview questions and hence answers, it was deemed important to separate the two groups of people clearly into two completely different sets of codes to differentiate the beliefs and attitudes of experts in the teaching of English as a foreign language and those still in training or who had completed their training only recently. Once an initial set of codes had been established, they were thoroughly checked and edited in order to either differentiate categories further or subsume two under one heading, as was needed to best portray what was communicated in the interviews.

5. Results of survey

The survey (see appendix) was completed by participants before conducting the interview. One teacher trainee failed to submit their survey.

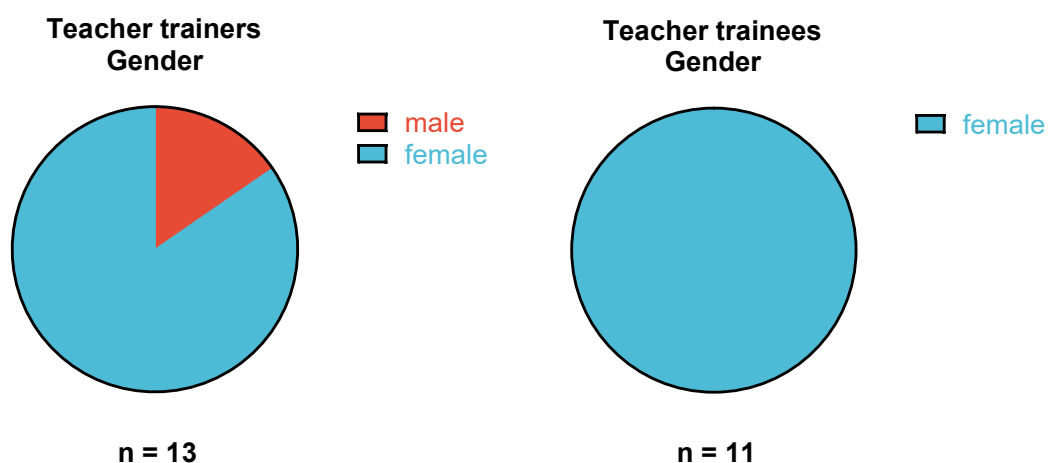


Figure 2 - Gender of teacher trainers

Figure 1 - Gender of teacher trainees

The sample comprised thirteen teacher trainers and eleven trainees or newly qualified teachers who had completed their teacher training a maximum of 12 months prior to their participation in the study. The participants were

primarily female, with only two male teacher trainers taking part (see figures 1 and 2). This, at least in part, could be due to the uneven gender distribution found in the teaching profession (OECD/UIS/Eurostat, 2019), which is even more pronounced in the teaching of foreign languages (WSI GenderDatenPortal, 2015: 1).

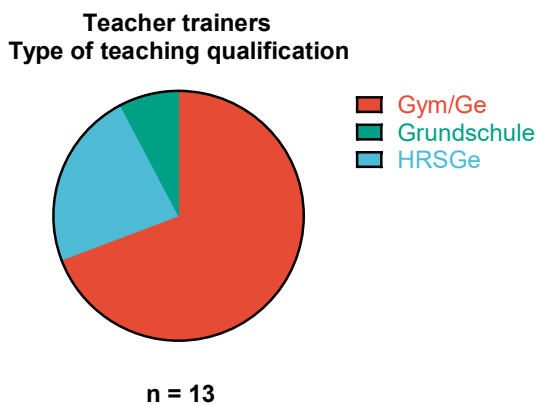


Figure 3 - Type of teaching qualification for teacher trainers

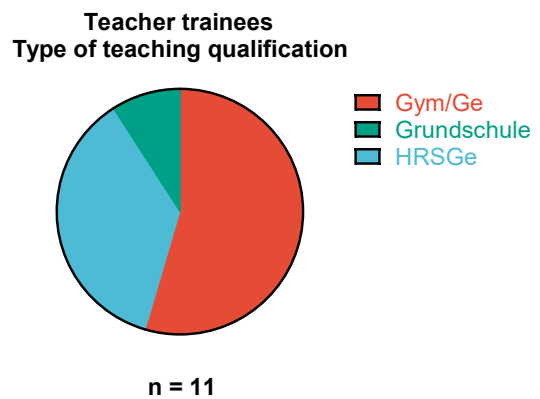


Figure 4 - Type of teaching qualification for teacher trainees

In both groups of participants, teachers qualified to teach at grammar schools (*Gymnasium*) were the largest group, followed by those qualified to teach at lower secondary education schools (*Haupt- und Realschule*) and finally those with a qualification in primary school education (*Grundschule*) (see figures 3 and 4).

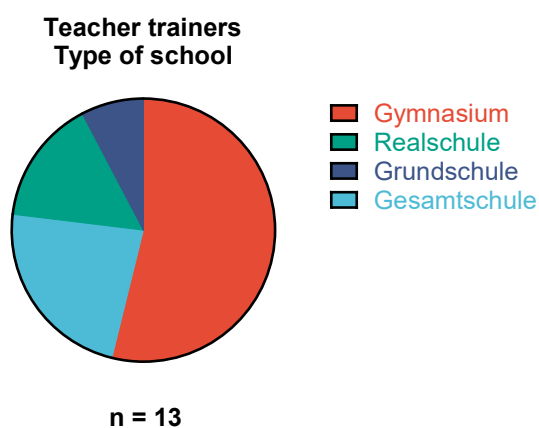


Figure 5 - Type of school for teacher trainers

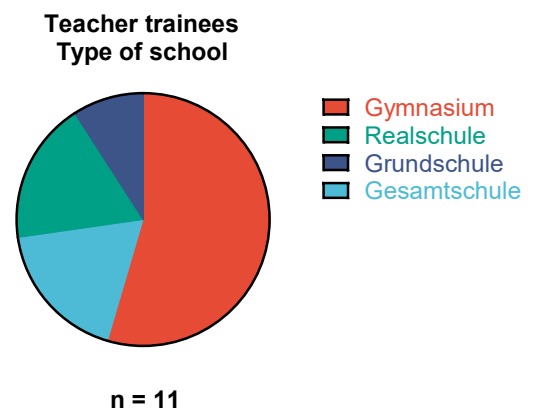


Figure 6 - Type of school for teacher trainees

Concerning where the interviewees taught, the largest group of participants taught in grammar schools, followed by mixed comprehensive schools (*Gesamtschule*), lower secondary schools (*Realschule*) and, finally, primary schools (*Grundschule*) represented the smallest group (see figures 5 and 6).

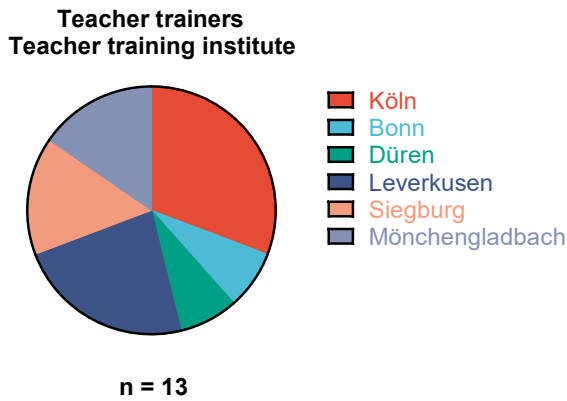


Figure 7 - Teacher training institute for teacher trainers

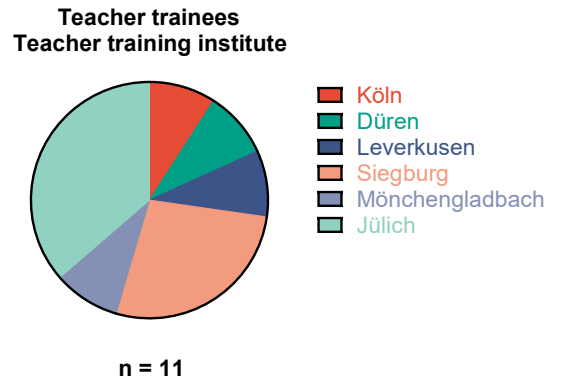


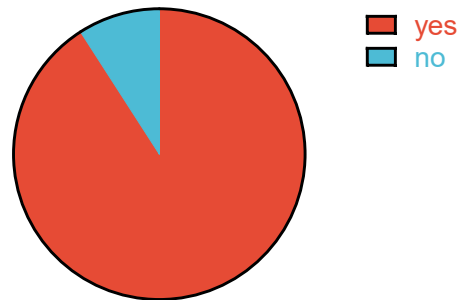
Figure 8 - Teacher training institute for teacher trainees

The teacher training institutes that the trainers work at and the teacher trainees are educated at varied more. Of the teacher trainers, the majority teach at the Cologne teacher training institute, but of the teacher trainees, the majority were educated at the Jülich teacher training institute (see figures 7 and 8).



Figure 9 - Time spent abroad for teacher trainers

Teacher trainees
Have you spent any time abroad in an English speaking country?

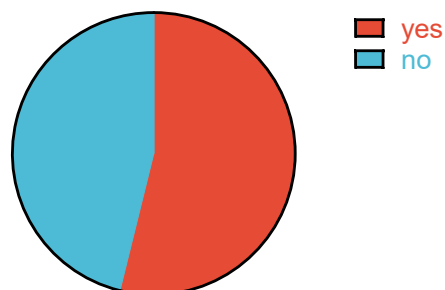


n = 11

Figure 10 - Time spent abroad for teacher trainees

Most of those partaking in the study have spent some time abroad in an English speaking country (see figures 9 and 10). For the majority of the teacher trainees this is due to the more recent developments in the degree structure of studying English as a foreign language at many universities in Germany, which requires students to have spent some time in an English speaking country before graduating (Universität zu Köln, 2016: 10).

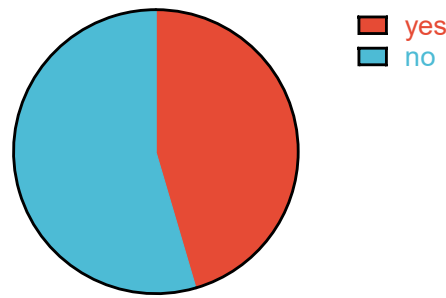
Teacher trainers
Do you have any work experience outside of teaching?



n = 13

Figure 11 - Work experience outside of teaching for teacher trainers

Teacher trainees
Do you have any work experience outside of teaching?



n = 11

Figure 12 - Work experience outside of teaching for teacher trainees

Concerning work experience outside of teaching, a slight majority of teacher trainers answered yes to the question, whereas a slight majority of the teacher trainees answered no (see figures 11 and 12).

Teacher trainers
Years since qualification

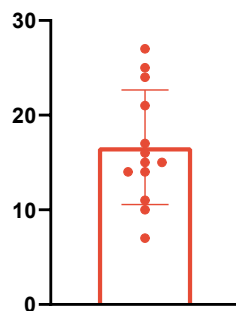


Figure 13 - Teacher trainers' years since qualification. Single data points, mean and standard deviation are shown.

Teacher trainers
Years since becoming a teacher trainer

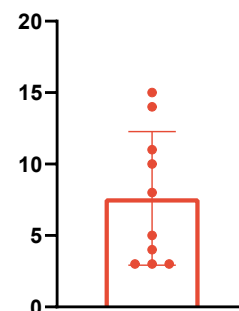


Figure 14- Years as a teacher trainer. Single data points, mean and standard deviation are shown.

Teacher trainers were asked how long they had been teachers for and how many of those years they had been teacher trainers (see figures 13 and 14). The arithmetic mean length of time since qualifying was 16.6 years (standard deviation 6.0 years) and the arithmetic mean length of time since becoming a teacher trainer was 7.6 years (standard deviation 4.7 years). The distribution of both experience measures was broad. For example, teacher trainers with as little as 7 years and as much as 27 years since qualification were included in the study.

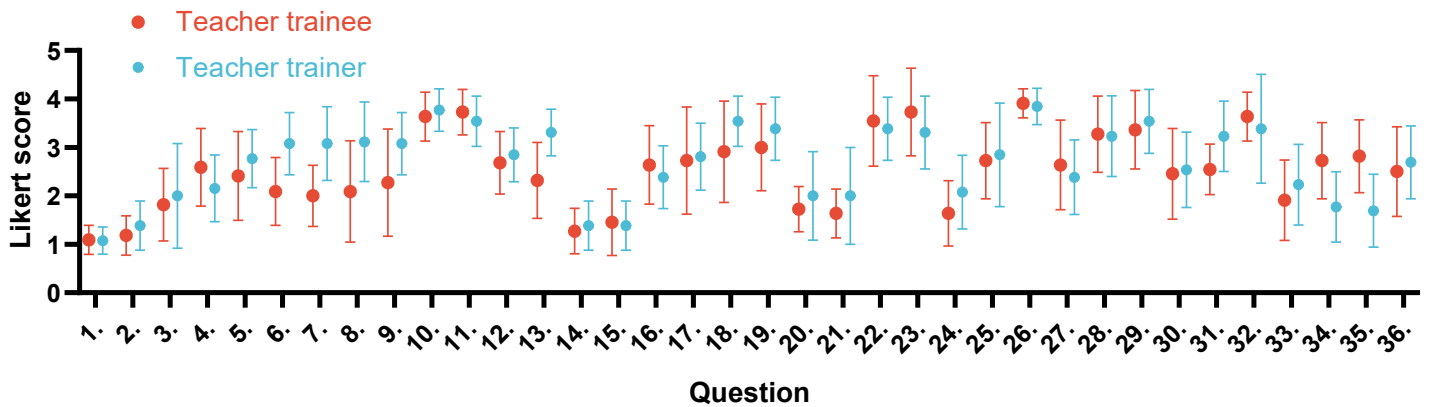


Figure 15- Mean Likert scores for teacher trainees and trainers for questions 1-36. Mean and standard deviation are shown.

Following the demographic questions, participants were asked to answer questions on the topic of L1 and L2 use in the English language classroom (see figure 15). Questions 1 to 36 were identical for both groups of participants. Many of the questions were answered similarly by the two groups of participants. These questions cover a range of aspects concerning the topic at hand. One aspect was pertaining to the participants' own English language skills (e.g. 1. *Ich fühle mich in der Lage, mich fließend und kompetent auf Englisch auszudrücken*), to which both groups of participants agreed or agreed strongly. The questions moved on to ask about how participants generally deal with the use of L1 in the classroom and how they feel about that usage (e.g. 3. *Ich bin von mir selbst enttäuscht, wenn ich viel L1 im Englischunterricht verwende*). For this question, all answer possibilities could be found, indicating a lack of general consensus among participants. Another type of questions was those concerning different uses for the L1 in the English language classroom and whether or not participants think these uses are reasonable (e.g. 16. *Ich finde es sinnvoll, grammatikalische Phänomene in der L1 zu erklären*). Once again, a range of answers were given, however only one participant across both groups strongly agreed with the given statement. In addition to whether they found it generally reasonable to use the L1 in given situations, participants were asked whether they personally used the L1 for the reason given (e.g. 17. *Ich erkläre häufig grammatikalische Phänomene in der L1*). Here, all answer possibilities occurred but there was a shift towards rather not agreeing with the statement. It could be shown that a connection occurred between these two

types of questions. The less they saw the given use for L1 as being reasonable, the less likely they were to use the L1 for this reason in their own practice.

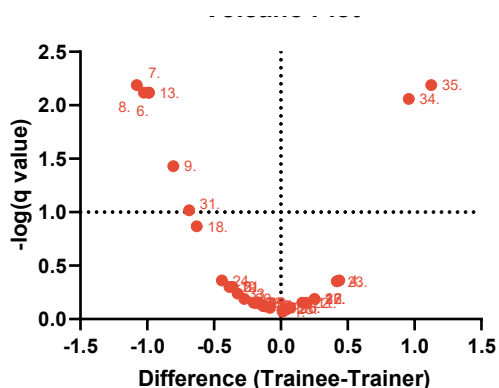


Figure 16 – Volcano plot showing difference between teacher trainer and teacher trainee answers and their significance for questions 1-36



Figure 17 - Mean Likert scores of questions showing significant participant group differences. Mean and standard deviation are shown.

Of the 36 questions, eight were shown to be answered differently depending on whether the person answering was a teacher trainer or a teacher trainee (see figures 16 and 17). For questions 6, 7, 8, 9, 13 and 31 teacher trainees were significantly ($q < 0.10$) more likely to agree with the given statement, whereas for questions 34 and 35 teacher trainers were significantly ($q < 0.10$) more likely to agree with the statement in question (see section 4.2.1.1. for details of statistical analysis). Question 6, *Ich finde es sinnvoll, für organisatorische Dinge die L1 zu verwenden*, was answered significantly differently by teacher trainees and teacher trainers ($q = 0.008$). Question 7, *Ich nutze häufig die L1 für organisatorische Dinge* was also answered differently depending on which group was answering. ($q = 0.006$). A similar pattern emerged for questions 8, *Ich finde es sinnvoll, für Disziplinprobleme die L1 zu verwenden* ($q = 0.008$), and 9, *Ich verwende häufig die L1 für Disziplinprobleme* ($q = 0.037$). Question 13 also showed that teacher trainees were significantly more likely to agree with the given statement, *Ich übersetze häufig unbekannte Wörter in die L1* ($q = 0.008$). Finally, teacher trainees were also significantly more likely ($q = 0.096$) to agree with the statement, *Ich finde es sinnvoll, den Schülerinnen und Schülern die Nutzung der L1 zu erlauben*.

On the other hand, questions 34, *Ich kenne Methoden, wie man die L1 im Englischunterricht sinnvoll einsetzen kann* ($q = 0.009$) and 35, *Ich verfüge über Fachwissen zum Thema Einsatz der L1 im Englischunterricht* ($q = 0.006$) were

significantly more likely to be answered positively by teacher trainers than teacher trainees.

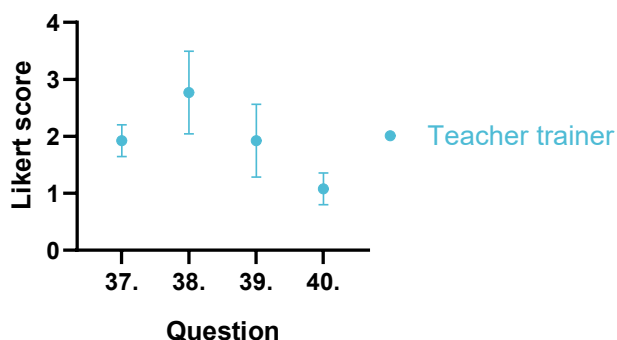


Figure 18 - Mean Likert scores for teacher trainer questions 37-40. Mean and standard deviation are shown.

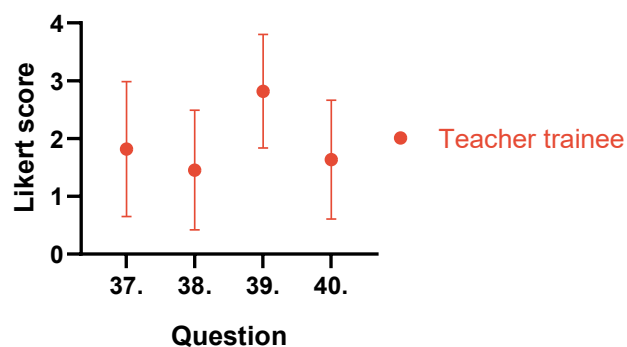


Figure 19 - Mean Likert scores for teacher trainees questions 37 to 40. Mean and standard deviation are shown.

At the end of the questionnaire, the final four questions were specific to the two groups of participants (see figures 18 and 19). For the teacher trainers, these asked about aspects specific to the training role. Question 37, *Die Referendare, die ich betreue, können fließend und kompetent die englische Sprache einsetzen*, was answered with either agreement or strong agreement. No teacher trainers were in strong agreement with question 38, *Die Referendare, die ich betreue, setzen die L1 im Unterricht häufig ein*. Question 39, *Ich würde es eher negativ bewerten, wenn eine Referendarin/Referendar die L1 verwendet*, was met with more general agreement with only two participants saying that they disagree and no one saying they strongly disagree. Finally, question 40, *Ich thematisiere den Einsatz der L1 in Seminarveranstaltungen* was met with clear agreement with all bar one teacher trainer saying they strongly agreed with the statement.

The final questions for teacher trainees were to do with their examinations and the seminars they attend throughout their training. Teacher trainees, on the whole, agreed or agreed strongly with question 37, *Meine Fachleitung regt an, den Einsatz der L1 im Englischunterricht zu vermeiden*. For question 38, *Ich habe das Gefühl, die Nutzung der L1 würde in einer Bewertungssituation (UB oder UPP) negativ bewertet werden*, the majority of participants strongly agreed. Concerning the seminars, the majority of participants either disagreed or disagreed strongly with the statement in question 39, *Der Einsatz der L1 im Englischunterricht wird ausreichend als Seminarinhalt thematisiert*. Finally, for question 40, *Ich wünsche mir / hätte mir mehr Input zum Thema Einsatz der L1*

im Englischunterricht (gewünscht), the majority agreed or strongly agreed, with one person disagreeing and another strongly disagreeing.

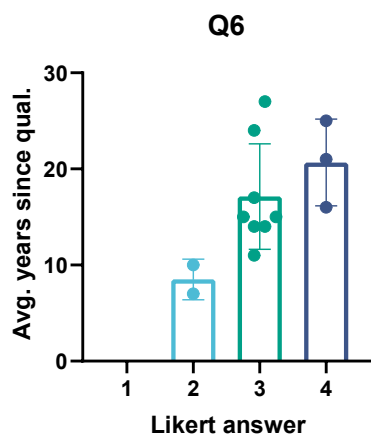


Figure 20 - Relationship between average years since qualification and mean Likert scores for teacher trainer question 6. Single data points, mean and standard deviation are shown.

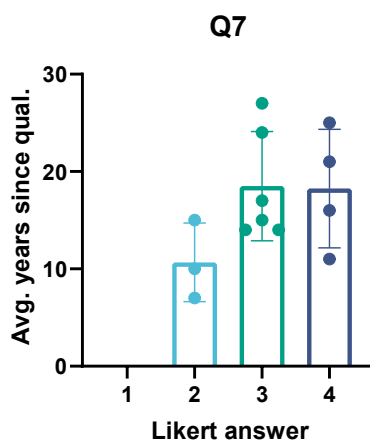


Figure 21 - Relationship between average years since qualification and mean Likert scores for teacher trainer question 7. Single data points, mean and standard deviation are shown.

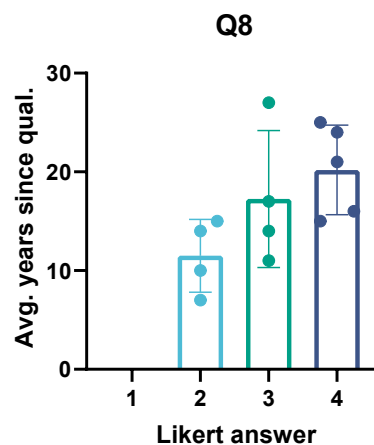


Figure 22 - Relationship between average years since qualification and mean Likert scores for teacher trainer question 8. Single data points, mean and standard deviation are shown.

Finally, three questions were identified for which answers of teacher trainers were dependent on amount of teaching experience (figures 20, 21 and 22). For question 6, *Ich finde es sinnvoll, für organisatorische Dinge die L1 zu verwenden*, teacher trainers were more likely to disagree with the statement if they had more teaching experience ($p_{\text{trend}}=0.030$). The same pattern was observed for question 7, *Ich nutze häufig die L1 für organisatorische Dinge* ($p_{\text{trend}}=0.122$) and 8 ($p_{\text{trend}}=0.033$) which asked *Ich finde es sinnvoll für Disziplinprobleme die L1 zu verwenden*. Possible explanations for this as well as other findings from the survey will be looked at in the discussion part of this thesis.

6. Results of interviews

The following part of the thesis offers an in-depth exploration of the interview content. In order to illustrate the various codes better, the following table gives an overview of the codes established following the interview analysis and what is to come in the next sections.

Figure 4: Table of interview codes

Codes					
Teacher trainers			Teacher trainees		
Reasons for L2 use	Linguistic role model	6.1.1.1.	Reasons for L2 use	Linguistic role model	6.2.1.1.
	Authentic setting	6.1.1.2.			
	Input theories	6.1.1.3.		Input theories	6.2.1.2.
	Developing strategies for understanding	6.1.1.4.		Developing strategies for understanding	6.2.1.3.
				General avoidance of the L1	6.2.1.4.
				The principle of monolingualism	6.2.1.5.
Remaining in the L2	Desire to remain in the L2	6.1.2.1.	Remaining in the L2	Desire to remain in the L2	6.2.2.1.
	Ways of remaining in the L2	6.1.2.2.			
	Advice for teacher trainees on remaining in the L2	6.1.2.3.		Strategies for remaining in the L2 learned through teacher training	6.2.2.2.
	Ways to get learners to remain in the L2	6.1.2.4.		Ways to get learners to remain in the L2	6.2.2.3.
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	Convenience	6.1.3.3.		Convenience	6.2.3.3.
	Time management	6.1.3.4.		Time management	6.2.3.4.
	Lack of experience	6.1.3.5.			
	Lack of reflection	6.1.3.6.			
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	Giving task instructions	6.1.3.8.		Giving task instructions	6.2.3.6.
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Reasons for learner L1 use	Lack of language skills	6.1.4.2.	Reasons for learner L1 use	Lack of language skills	6.2.4.2.
	Repeating task instructions	6.1.4.3.		Repeating task instructions	6.2.4.3.
	Poorly explained task instructions	6.1.4.4.			
	Spontaneous communication	6.1.4.5.			
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	Vocabulary translation	6.1.4.7.			
				Due to L1 setting	6.2.4.4.
				Intercultural competences	6.2.4.5.
				Private conversations	6.2.4.6.
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Role of the L1	No/minimal role	6.1.5.1.	Role of the L1	No/minimal effect	6.2.5.1.
	Supportive role	6.1.5.2.		Supportive role	6.2.5.2.
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	Try to counteract it	6.1.9.2.		Try to counteract it	6.2.9.2.
School as language setting	Authentic language setting	6.1.10.1.	School as language setting	Authentic language setting	6.2.10.1.
	Multilingual setting	6.1.10.2.		Multilingual setting	6.2.10.2.
	School languages	6.1.10.3.		School languages	6.2.10.3.
	Heritage languages	6.1.10.4.		Heritage languages	6.2.10.4.
Goals of English language teaching	Intercultural competences	6.1.11.1.	Goals of English language teaching	Intercultural competences	6.2.11.1.
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6.1. Teacher trainers

This section of the dissertation shall present the content of the 13 interviews conducted with teacher trainers of English. What shall be presented are the codes established for the interview data. Each code has been given a name and shall be outlined using quotations deriving from the interviews. Some slight punctuation changes were made to the quotations for ease of reading.

6.1.1. Reasons for L2 use

When asked about theories or arguments for or against the use of the L1 in English lessons, teacher trainers communicated numerous reasons as to why it is important to use the L2, in this case English, as much as possible in the foreign language learning classroom.

6.1.1.1. Linguistic role model

Mentioned was the idea that the English language teacher should embody the English language in the classroom and with this offer the learners a linguistic role model to learn from. “[...] sodass wir als Englischlehrer eigentlich das sprachliche Vorbild für die Fremdsprache oder in dem Fall für die englische Sprache darstellen“ (Interview F1, pg. 1, ll. 13-14).

6.1.1.2. Authentic setting

Substantial use of the L2 in the classroom was seen by some as being a way to create an authentic setting in which pupils can learn the English language. “[...] ja also die Theorie, dass man eine natürliche Sprache am besten lernt, je authentischer das Setting ist. Also, ich lerne am besten, wenn ich tatsächlich in diesem Land bin und überall der Sprache begegne und deswegen versuchen wir ja einen möglichst authentischen Kommunikationsrahmen im Englischunterricht zu schaffen“ (Interview F5, pg. 1, ll. 12-16). Interviewee F13 described their efforts at excluding the use of the L1 from the classroom as trying to create this language environment within the classroom. “So würde ich das auch proklamieren für die L2, sodass ich unbedingt dafür bin wirklich auch die L1, so gut es geht, aus diesem Raum herauszuhalten. Wie immer ich den auch verstehe, also als virtuellen Raum,

oder eben auch als tatsächlichen Raum, der ummauert ist, von vier Wänden umgeben, den ich betrete“ (Interview F13, pg. 1, ll. 19-23).

6.1.1.3. Input theories

Often mentioned were input theories, pertaining to the overarching idea that the more input learners receive the better they will be able to master the English language. *“Ein zentrales Argument, für oder gegen die Nutzung der L1, für die größtmögliche Nutzung der L2, ist, dass der Englischunterricht eine der wenigen Gelegenheiten ist, wo die Schüler Englisch sprechen. Also, dass sozusagen möglichst hohe individuelle Sprechzeit und großes Sprachbad [...] dazu gehört eben, dass ich so viel wie möglich L2 verwende und erfahrungsgemäß, je mehr ich L2 verwende, desto sicherer werde ich und das ist so das Hauptargument”* (Interview 9, pg. 1, ll. 15-20). Interviewee F8 substantiated their argument by recalling their own experience of an English teacher from their time at school whose extensive use of the English language influenced their own feelings about how languages are best learnt. *“Also, ich muss dazu sagen, ich bin selbst tatsächlich so eigentlich sozialisiert. Meine Englischlehrerin war Engländerin, und die hat kategorisch gesagt: „Ich verstehe euch einfach nicht“ und das war für mich großartig. Nach Latein war das so: „Hey, da ist eine Sprache, die ich sprechen kann, mit der ich kommunizieren kann“. Ich habe das genossen. Ich habe aber auch Mitschülerinnen und Mitschüler gehabt, die vielleicht jetzt keine Sprachaffinität hatten, die haben gelitten. Die sind bis heute traumatisiert. (lacht) Bei mir hat es dazu geführt, dass ich Englischlehrerin geworden bin, also das ist halt so, mal so“* (Interview F8, pp. 1-2, ll. 29-35).

6.1.1.4. Developing strategies for understanding

A final argument given in favour of a monolingual classroom was that exclusive usage of the L2 allows for the development of important strategies fundamental to language learning success. Some elaborated on the importance of aspects of non-verbal language with which we can learn to understand aspects of language without knowing all the words. *“Dann, was noch wichtig ist, die Kinder lernen ja, sollen ja wesentliche Strategien der Entschlüsselung lernen, wie sie Kommunikation verstehen können [...] eine wesentliche Strategie ist eben aus [dem] Kontext heraus, Mimik, Gestik, unter anderem*

auch zu verwenden, um Inhalte zu verstehen und das gelingt eben nur in einer *Einsprachigkeit*“ (Interview F4, pg. 1, ll. 24-28). A further skill to be learned from exclusive L2 English lessons was referred to as *“Ambiguitätstoleranz [...] Nämlich das auszuhalten, dass sie nicht immer alles verstehen”* (Interview F4, pg. 11, ll. 360-361). A further aspect in this code was the strategy of dealing with unknown words or phrases, which were thought to be better fostered with an insistence on an exclusive L2 classroom. *“Ein weiteres Argument, zumindest den unbewussten Wechsel zu unterbinden, ist, dass die Schülerinnen und Schüler auch lernen sollen, mit unbekanntem Wörtern umzugehen und nicht gleich den Kopf in den Sand [zu] stecken oder irgendwie in das Deutsche fallen. Weil, das Ziel ja wirklich ist, auch die authentische Kommunikation mit Native-Speaker oder mit Menschen, die Englisch als Verkehrssprache benutzen, und da helfen mir keine deutschen Wörter, wenn die nicht auch Deutsch sprechen“* (Interview F9, pg. 1, ll. 20-25).

6.1.2. Remaining in the L2

6.1.2.1. Desire to remain in the L2

Teacher trainers, on the whole, expressed their volition to remain, as much as possible, in the L2 while teaching English. *“Ansonsten versuche ich durchaus, glaube ich, erfolgreich auch in schwächeren Kursen, speziell in den Grundkursen oder auch [bei] Jüngeren, fünfte Klassen, sechste Klassen so, in der Zielsprache zu bleiben“* (Interview F1, pg. 2, ll. 35-37). For some it is important enough to evoke negative feelings if they do not manage to remain in the L2. *“Ich, wie gesagt, versuche weitestgehend Englisch zu sprechen [...] ich versuche in kommunikativen Situationen komplett in der Zielsprache zu bleiben. Gelingt mir nicht immer hundertprozentig und dann bewerte ich das für mich eher negativ“* (Interview F3, pg. 2, ll. 43-45). Interviewee F11 mentions how her perseverance to speak as much English as possible has had a positive effect on the level of her pupils' English. *“In Englisch bin ich relativ glücklich mit meinem Einsatz und kann das gut vertreten und die Erfahrung hat gezeigt, dass es so gut ist und, [...] dass meine Schüler jetzt in Klasse sieben zum Beispiel schon wirklich richtig viel verstehen“* (Interview F11, pg. 2, ll. 39-41). Interviewee F13 talked about their difficulties with moving schools from a grammar school to a general comprehensive school and how they had to rethink how to achieve the exclusively L2 classroom at a different type of

school. “[...] im System Gesamtschule [...] bin ich mit dem Wunsch und auch der Tatsache konfrontiert worden, dass Schüler sehr viel häufiger und umfangreicher L1 einsetzen und ich dann auch, weil ich da auch am Anfang meiner Berufskarriere war, noch auch sehr viel weniger Sicherheit selbst hatte, wie ich darauf reagieren könnte [...] da geht es tatsächlich eher darum, wie agiere ich als Lehrer und nicht, wie bin ich selbst in der Sprache zuhause, sondern es war dann eher so diese Überraschung: Huch, und wie hilfst du denen jetzt eigentlich in das hinein, was du möchtest? [...] Dann habe ich mich nochmal sehr viel bewusster damit auseinandergesetzt [...]“ (Interview F13, pg. 3, ll. 85-95).

6.1.2.2. Ways of remaining in the L2

The teacher trainers also expanded on ways in which they strive for exclusively L2 English in their own classroom. *“Ich sage immer: „Where I am is England,“ sodass immer klar ist, wenn ich da bin, ist das ein englischsprachiger Raum. Ich spreche die auch auf den Fluren auf Englisch an. Ich kommuniziere auch per E-Mail in aller Regel auf Englisch mit ihnen und ich erwarte das auch von den Schülern. Sie tun es häufig nicht. Manche machen das auch und viele machen es nicht und kriegen dann trotzdem von mir eine englische Antwort, wo ich immer denke, gerade wenn sie an was interessiert sind, dann werden sie sich auch bemühen, mein Englisch zu verstehen“* (Interview F7, pp. 4-5, ll. 123-129). Teacher trainer F12 had a similar approach. *“Ich sage immer: “Threshold in the English Classroom. Once you come across, this is English Territory” und irgendwann nehmen die das dann meist auf“* (Interview F12, pg. 2, 57-59).

Teacher trainers often mentioned the ongoing need to be very persistent and resolute in their use of the L2. *“Also, es gibt schon Unterschiede. [...] Kollegen sind unterschiedlich streng, was das angeht. Dabei würde ich nicht unbedingt sagen, dass die Unterschiede so groß sind, in der grundsätzlichen Annahme, wie wichtig ist [die] L2 oder auch die funktionale Einsprachigkeit, sondern die Unterschiede liegen meiner Erfahrung nach darin, wie konsequent fordere ich das ein [...] wenn ich die Lerngruppe übernehme, da komme ich schon und dann gucken die dann, dass sie das dann einfach nicht so gewohnt sind oder die gewohnt sind, dass sie in Partnerarbeit [oder] Gruppenarbeit auch viel Deutsch sprechen können und keiner hinterher ist. Da gehöre ich eher zur*

scharfen Sorte, dass ich wirklich da ganz hinterher bin, weil es mir wichtig ist“ (Interview F9, pg. 4, ll. 115-123).

Finally, certain strategies were mentioned concerning how the teacher trainers are able to remain in the L2. One is to reduce the language input in general. *“Ich versuche allerdings [...] den sprachlichen Input eher zu reduzieren, mit Zeichen zu arbeiten, mit Vormachen, Lernen am Modell und so, damit nicht ständig so eine Selbstverständlichkeit entsteht, wenn man ins Deutsche wechselt“* (Interview 10, pg. 2, ll. 54-57). A further strategy for interviewee F12 to enable exclusive L1 use is to enlist the support of other pupils when comprehension difficulties arise. *“Oder, das ist etwas, was ich auch schon gemacht habe, ich setze Schülerinnen und Schüler ein, die die L1 nutzen. Wenn ich sage: “Can you please help me? Can you explain to him?”* (Interview F12, pg. 2, ll. 41-43).

6.1.2.3. Advice for teacher trainees on remaining in the L2

In their role, teacher trainers hold many seminars for the trainees and also see them regularly throughout their training for lesson-observations at their respective schools. During this time, the teacher trainers have ample opportunity to give the trainees advice on language use in the English language classroom. In the interviews, they had lots of advice for them on how to remain in the L2 as much as possible.

One piece of advice is not to forget that they themselves are still learning the English language and to make sure that they continue with improving their own language skills, which in turn will facilitate their capability to remain in the L2 in lessons. *“[Ich] rate häufig dazu die eigenen Kompetenzen in der Zielsprache nicht aus dem Blick zu verlieren und zu verbessern. Wobei das im Vorbereitungsdienst schwierig ist, wenn da den Lehramtsanwärterinnen und Lehramtsanwärter die Sprachkompetenz im Magen liegt am Ende des Studiums und zu Beginn des Vorbereitungsdienstes, dann hat man meistens wenig Gelegenheit, die eigene Sprachkompetenz noch zu verbessern“* (Interview F3, pg. 6, ll. 182-187).

A further point that occurs numerous times is to make sure that the trainees personally commit to their usage of English language in their role as an English teacher. *“Und das ist so wichtig, dass die Leute von Anfang an damit beginnen*

*und sich auch so verkaufen: Ich bin die Englischlehrerin oder ich bin der Englischlehrer und dass an ihre Person auch binden. Sodass wir dem einen großen Stellenwert einräumen“ (Interview F4, pg. 8, 254-258). Teacher trainers are aware that this is not an easy task for their trainees and encourage them to persevere. *“Und dass man über Geduld sie da ja auch ranführen und diesen Mut dabei auch aufrecht zu erhalten. Und das haben viele Referendarinnen und Referendare, die ja auch vom Wohlwollen ihrer Lerngruppen abhängig sind, erst mal auch noch nicht gern. [...] Also, die zwei Aspekte sind mir wichtig: Haben Sie den Mut, auszuprobieren und standhaft zu bleiben, und es ist im Sinne der Schülerinnen und Schüler, dass sie im Rahmen ihrer Möglichkeiten so einsprachig wie möglich sind“ (Interview F8, pg. 11, ll. 340-345).**

Often mentioned was the importance of various techniques to support L2 use. One option is to facilitate L2 understanding by means of visual-support. *“So viel Englisch wie möglich und so viel Deutsch wie nötig. Das rate ich, plus die ganzen Sachen, die dann da dranhängen [...] so etwas wie, wenn es ein guter Arbeitsauftrag ist, wenn er visualisiert ist, wenn es Piktogramme gibt [...]“ (Interview F5, pg. 12, ll. 387-389). A further piece of advice is to make sure that the level of language is suitable. *“[...] ich rate dazu, sich darauf vorzubereiten, möglichst einfache Sprache zu verwenden, bei den Kollegen nachzufragen, die da schon länger unterrichten [...], auf welchem Level sind sie eigentlich genau. Welche Vokabeln können sie, welche nicht, wieviel Deutsch sprechen sie im Unterricht, sodass man eine Idee hat, wie einfach muss die Sprache sein, wie einfach es sein kann und man trotzdem zum Ziel kommen könnte“ (Interview F6, pg. 6, ll. 163-167). Furthermore, interviewee F4 talks about the importance of reducing the use of language in general by very consciously choosing what one says and what can perhaps just be demonstrated. *“Und da finden auch die Referendare, wenn die das ausprobiert haben inzwischen einen super Weg, das komplett vorzumachen und auf die Weise die Kinder gut zu orientieren und insgesamt Sprache zu reduzieren an der Stelle“ (Interview F4, pg. 11, ll. 332-334). It is important for the teacher trainers that their trainees first learn that they need to prepare their use of English in lessons, that this is something that has to be learned. *“[...] das sage ich dann auch den Lehramtsanwärtern, wenn sie ihren Verlaufsplan schreiben, sollen sie ihren Arbeitsauftrag, den sie in der englischen Sprache stellen wollen, kursiv in den Verlaufsplan schreiben. [...] [...] Und wenn ich das mache, für meinen täglichen Unterricht, dann kann ich****

*das auch machen, selbst wenn mir in der sechsten Stunde die Konzentration schwindet“ (Interview F5, pg. 8, ll. 250-257). A final mentioned technique in aiding L2 understanding is language support and scaffolding used as a way to bridge the gap between what the pupils already know and what is being communicated in lessons, in order to enable maximal L2 use while still ensuring pupil understanding. *“Also worüber wir halt eben sprechen, ist im Prinzip erstmal ganz wesentlich, dass sie sich in die Situation der Schülerinnen und Schüler versetzen müssen, dass sie überlegen müssen mit denen, was sie schon aus dem Unterricht können müssten: Was können Schülerinnen und Schüler sagen oder schreiben [...] und wo brauchen sie noch Hilfe? Und dass sie diese Hilfen bereitstellen beziehungsweise natürlich erstmal überhaupt die Aufgaben so anpassen, dass es machbar ist und dann aber eben Hilfen bereitstellen, also über Language Support“ (Interview F7, pg. 8, ll. 228-234).**

Interviewee F4 finds that a good way in which teacher trainees can reflect upon their own use of language in the English classroom is to see themselves in action. *“Zum einen rate ich ihnen, dass sie anfangen, dass sie sich bewusst machen, in welchen Phasen sie Deutsch nutzen. [...] Entweder über Videografie oder über Diktafon sich mal aufzunehmen, damit ihnen bewusst ist, dass ich zum Beispiel drei Mal dem Kind gesagt habe: „Setz dich bitte hin“ und sich dann konkret zu überlegen, so, in welchen Phasen ist es sinnvoll? Was kann ich visualisieren? Wo war es notwendig? Und welche Alternativen habe ich, meinen Deutschanteil Schritt für Schritt rauszunehmen? Das ist also die Selbstwahrnehmung“ (Interview F4, pg. 11, 351-358). The interviewee was also the only person to mention the point of involving the pupils in the teachers' efforts to create an exclusively L2 language learning setting. *“Dann empfehle ich ihnen aber auch, mit den Kindern darüber zu reflektieren, denn die Kinder müssen ja diese Ambiguitätstoleranz erst mal entwickeln, nämlich das auszuhalten, dass sie nicht immer alles verstehen [...] da gibt es eben auch verschiedene Möglichkeiten, wie ich das mit Kindern üben kann. [...] Und wenn dann zwischendurch immer wieder vorkommt, dass Kinder sagen: „Ich verstehe überhaupt nichts“ dann wiederholen wir diese Strategie nochmal“ (Interview F4, pp. 11-12, ll. 359-394).**

6.1.2.4. Ways to get learners to remain in the L2

In addition to how teachers themselves can remain in the L2, the teacher trainers had many suggestions of how to encourage learners to remain as much as possible in the L2. Although not all mentioned by one interviewee, a structure to ensuring maximal L2 use by pupils can be established from looking at the interview data. The first aspect is that rules concerning language use in the classroom have to be in place and clear for all pupils. *“Also, ich verurteile ist zu hart, also ich versuche, das zu vermeiden, ich versuche, klare Regeln aufzustellen, dass ich das nicht gerne habe“* (Interview F2, pg. 2, ll. 53-54). It needs to be clear that this is always going to be the case. *“Also, es ist wichtig, einfach Rituale zu etablieren, dass ganz klar ist, sobald die in den Raum, eigentlich im Flur schon, dass ich die auf Englisch anspreche“* (Interview F8, pg. 3, ll. 89-91).

Following this, remaining in the L2 needs to be practised. *“Das heißt, die Sachen müssen natürlich auch einfach oft genug geübt werden. Es sind halt so Dinge, gerade bei Gruppenarbeit, also ich kann halt nicht erwarten, dass die Schülerinnen und Schüler diese Dinge können“* (Interview F7, pg. 8, ll. 238-241). The practising needs to be supported by means of language support. *“Insgesamt ist es so, wenn ich es ganz klar einfordere, also wenn [es] tatsächlich diese Phasen gibt, in denen sie jetzt einsprachig reagieren sollen, dann machen die das. Da gibt es natürlich verschiedene Voraussetzungen zu, also das heißt [...] sie müssen natürlich in der Lage dazu sein. Das heißt, sie brauchen auch den Language Support, um das zu machen, was ja gleichzeitig eine Form von Scaffolding ist, aber auch Lernzuwachs“* (Interview F5, pp. 3-4, ll. 96-99).

Moreover, there need to be techniques in place to enforce the rules. Teacher trainers had various options which all stemmed from the same general idea. *“Maßnahmen, die ich meist etabliere, sind zum Beispiel the English Card. Ich habe schon mal ein Kartensystem mit Gelb und Grün und Rot probiert“* (Interview F6, pg. 2, ll. 53-54), *“Und in der Chatterbox sind dann halt Strafkarten, was man machen muss, wenn man Deutsch gesprochen hat, was aber eher so nette Strafen sind, wie bake a cake, ja oder learn a poem and present it in class, open the door for someone all day, so“* (Interview F5, pg. 5, ll. 148-151), *„Meine Lieblingskonsequenz war in einem Kurs, dass ich gesagt*

habe: Okay. Liegestütze [...] oder Burpees für die ganz Fitten: [...] Entweder seid Ihr einsprachig oder topfit, körperlich am Ende des Schuljahres“ (Interview F8, pg. 4, ll. 107-110), “Ich arbeite da aber auch mit Tricks wie mit so einer Grumpy Cat oder Black Sheep und dann one minute talks, three minute talks und so weiter“ (Interview F12, pg. 2, ll. 59-60). One way is to delegate this job to another pupil. “Also das ist nicht so, dass die Schülerinnen und Schüler das da dürfen, ganz im Gegenteil. Man versucht ja schon, mit verschiedenen Techniken, entsprechenden Funktionen oder Funktionsträgern innerhalb der Gruppe, Language Watchdog, Language Monitor, dass das eingedämmt wird. Also da ist es definitiv nicht in Ordnung“ (Interview F1, pg. 3, ll. 85-88).

Finally, the use of the L1 needs to be reflected upon. *“Ich thematisiere das aber schon, also wir machen auch so kleine Fragebögen oder so. Also: In welchen Situationen fällt es dir besonders schwer? Was können wir machen, um das besser einzuhalten? Was schlägt ihr selber vor?“ (Interview F10, pg. 3, ll. 92-94).*

Some teacher trainers were stricter and expected an exclusively L2 classroom from themselves and their pupils throughout the whole lesson. Other teachers were more understanding of the challenge L2 exclusivity poses for the pupils. They mentioned the use of phases in which they insist on L2 use. *“Es ist ja auch so, dass tatsächlich in der fünften Klasse, [...] die können nicht schon 45 Minuten einsprachig bleiben. Das ist illusorisch, aber ich habe mich halt immer bemüht, das bewusst auch deutlich zu machen, dass es English only phases gab, wo es dann auch geahndet wurde, sowas zu tun“ (Interview F8, pg. 2, ll. 55-59). A final aspect to note was that of pupil motivation. “Aber zunächst mal, denke ich, erstmal muss man die Schüler dazu motivieren, das zu machen. Das ist erstmal die Hauptsache und dazu brauche ich motivierende Themen, dazu brauche ich Themen, über die die Schüler was sagen können und wollen“ (Interview F5, pg. 5, ll. 142-144).*

6.1.3. Reasons for teacher L1 use

The teacher trainers mentioned many situations in which either they themselves or other teachers may use the L1, namely German, in the English language classroom. All codes pertaining to reasons for the use of L1 will be presented here along with interview quotations to substantiate the code.

6.1.3.1. Explanation of grammatical phenomenon

One of the most commonly mentioned reasons for L1 use in the English language classroom was for the explanation of grammatical phenomena. Teacher trainers mentioned it, on the one hand, as being something that they themselves use the L1 for. *“Ich setze die L1 bei der Kognitivierung von grammatischen Phänomenen ein, also, wenn es darum geht, wirklich Sprache zu untersuchen und dabei über den Gebrauch zu reflektieren, setze ich [die L1] ein, in den unteren Lernstufen fast immer, in den oberen vermehrt, je nach Sprachkompetenz geht aber auch Englisch“* (Interview F9, pp. 1-2, ll. 28-31). Others used the example of L1 usage for grammatical explanations as something that other teachers may do, without explicitly stating that they themselves do this. *“Viele glauben, nicht verstanden zu werden, und dann ist natürlich um Grammatik zu vermitteln, wird es auch häufig eingesetzt [...]“* (Interview F3, pg. 4, ll. 112-113).

A very commonly mentioned aspect was the use of the L1 in particular to support the explanation of tenses which are very different to the German language. *“[...] also, das ist sehr typisch, also wenn es eben, wie gesagt, komplexere grammatische Strukturen sind. Bei den Zeiten wird es manchmal schwierig [...] also [bei der] Einführung des Present Perfect, nehmen wir das. Da bietet sich der Sprachvergleich an. Muss das aber als Phase auf Deutsch durchgeführt werden? Dickes Fragezeichen. Aber das ist mir nie gut gelungen, das wirklich dann in der Zielsprache durchzuführen“* (Interview F8, pg. 3, ll. 77-82).

6.1.3.2. Organisational matters

A further common reason mentioned was using German to deal with organisational matters in the classroom. This was mentioned as a general reason as to why teachers switch languages. *“Organisatorische Dinge [sind] vielleicht für einige Kollegen auf Deutsch besser erklärt“* (Interview F2, pg. 4, l. 95). Although this interviewee distanced themselves from these people and stated that they do not do this. *“Die trennen dann das Organisatorische vom Fachinhalt, was ich zum Beispiel nicht tue, weil ich denke, die 45 Minuten sind dann wirklich Englisch und auch wenn da organisatorische Sachen anfallen, versuche ich das auf Englisch zu klären“* (Interview F2, pg. 4, ll. 95-98).

Other teacher trainers stated that they themselves did switch languages for organisational matters. Some do this in the English lesson. *“Ja, ganz klar, sind das häufig organisatorische Dinge, bei denen man das dann doch schneller macht. Also so dieses, gerade jetzt zum Schuljahresende, dann macht [man] ja mal auch häufiger Sachen als Klassenlehrerin, die dann vielleicht auch weniger mit dem Englischunterricht zu tun haben, die aber gemacht werden müssen, weil man die Klassen sonst nicht sieht. So etwas wie, wer hat noch das Büchergeld, wer hat das Geld für den Ausflug, solche Sachen [...] das [...] mache ich schon mal auf Deutsch, ja“* (Interview F5, pg. 2, ll. 31-37). Some referred to switches in languages after the end of the English lesson. *“Vor allen Dingen, wenn man nach dem Gong [...] irgendwie die Schüler nochmal da behalten will, merkt man schon, dass man sagt: „Ach, bleibt noch kurz hier“* (Interview F1, pg. 3, ll. 77-79).

One explanation as to why some teachers switch for such reasons is that there is a belief that otherwise they will not be understood. *“Dann sagen sie, die Dinge sollen die Schülerinnen und Schüler unbedingt verstehen, also zum Beispiel Informationen zur Klassenarbeit oder auch zur Klassenfahrt, das sollen die unbedingt verstehen, also mache ich das auf Deutsch“* (Interview F7, pg. 5, ll. 136-139). Once again, however, this teacher was not of this opinion and stated that they themselves did not switch for organisational matters. *“Und weil ich auch gemerkt habe, wie wichtig es ist, dass ich eben gerade die Dinge, die Schüler interessieren, also das ist zum Beispiel, wenn ich Klassenlehrerin bin, Ausflüge, Klassenfahrten, sowas alles, also dieses Ganze, was Sie als Organisatorisches umschrieben haben, dass ich das in Englisch mache“* (Interview F7, pg. 4, 118-121).

6.1.3.3. Convenience

When talking about general reasons as to why teachers may use the German language in English lessons, the aspect of convenience was mentioned. This was seen as something negative that could be said about some teachers. *“Bequemlichkeit. Nein, das will ich den Kollegen nicht unterstellen. Mag aber sein“* (Interview F1, pg. 4, l. 154). It was also seen as something more common for newer teachers, who have to navigate their use of the L2 at the beginning in spite of resistance from their pupils. *“Am Anfang, glaube ich, ist es normal, dass man sich leicht von Schülern verführen lässt,*

das auf Deutsch zu sagen, weil es einfach bequemer ist, weil die Schüler natürlich sagen, ich verstehe es nicht und dann ist man schneller dabei, die deutsche Vokabel zu geben, als zu paraphrasieren. Es kostet Energie, ist anstrengend, aber ich finde es hat sich in dem Sinne verändert, dass ich jetzt noch mehr darauf achte und auch strenger mit mir selber bin“ (Interview F2, pg. 3, ll. 84-89). Interviewee F7 admitted that it is just really taxing to continuously insist on an exclusively L2 classroom. “Ja, dann vielleicht auch einfach, um den Schülern nachzugeben, weil es ist halt schon auch einfach sehr mühsam, immer wieder einzufordern und immer sich wieder Rituale zu überlegen, was passiert denn, wenn nicht in der Fremdsprache gesprochen wird. Es ist der mühsamere Weg und für manche ist es vielleicht einfach dann auch zu anstrengend“ (Interview F7, pg. 5, ll. 140-144).

6.1.3.4. Time management

A commonly mentioned reason was time management. This was mentioned sometimes in a positive way as a technique that could be used to save time. *“Also es geht darum, [...] ist es manchmal wirklich auch sinnvoll, in dieser einen Stelle für eine kurze Zeit mal eine Sache eben auf Deutsch reinzubringen, weil wirklich dadurch eine Zeitersparnis gegeben ist, die signifikant ist“ (Interview F1, pg. 7, 214-216). Interviewee F11 mentions the fact that it is sometimes helpful to enable them to progress. “Ich habe nur diese fünf Englischstunden in meiner Klasse, das heißt, ich muss in der Zeit alles organisieren und wenn ich merke, irgendwer kommt damit nicht klar oder ich muss es doch wieder zurückübersetzen lassen und wenn ich nicht viel Zeit habe, dann erkläre ich das auf Deutsch“ (Interview F11, pg. 1, ll. 19-22).*

Teacher trainer F10 sees this explanation as being too reductionist of why teachers switch languages and suggests reasons as to why it may feel like it makes sense to switch to save time. *“Ich glaube, das ist jetzt ein bisschen monokausal, man kann jetzt nicht sagen, alle haben zu viel zu tun, deswegen sprechen die kein Englisch. Also das wäre jetzt ein bisschen sehr vereinfacht. Aber ich glaube, dass ein Großteil der Kollegen tatsächlich dazu in der Lage ist, im Englischen zu bleiben und es gibt ja irgendwie Gründe, warum es trotzdem dann nicht verstanden wird, was man gerade sagt oder das ist dann zu lang, oder man hat so vom Wortschatz doch nicht so ganz das Niveau getroffen und*

dann versucht man, die Situation eben abzukürzen. Ich vermute, das ist das, was dahintersteckt“ (Interview F10, pg. 6, ll. 182-188).

6.1.3.5. Lack of experience

A few teacher trainers put use of the L1 down to a general lack of experience, referring mainly to the teacher trainees. *“Also höchstens noch erweitert [einfach] aufgrund der mangelnden Erfahrung, beziehungsweise dass man schlicht und ergreifend nicht sensibilisiert dafür ist“* (Interview F1, pg. 7, ll. 225-227). Lack of experience leads to teacher trainees being affected by their nerves. *“Ich beobachte es dann schon mal bei einer Stunde, die aus dem Ruder läuft. Das habe ich also jetzt noch im fünften Unterrichtsbesuch erlebt. Da ist eine Stunde ein bisschen aus dem Ruder gelaufen. Die Kandidatin wurde extrem nervös. Dann passiert es, dass man [...] ins Deutsche dann verfällt“* (Interview F4, pg. 9, ll. 266-269). This, however, could be counteracted by practice. *„Aber ich glaube, das ist wirklich eine Erfahrungssache und eine Übungssache“* (Interview F2, pg. 5, ll. 154-155).

6.1.3.6. Lack of reflection

Two interviewees mention a potential lack of reflection as leading to L1 use. *“Eine dritte ist, glaube ich, das ist jetzt ein bisschen böse, aber, unbewusstes Nicht-reflektieren“* (Interview F9, pg. 5, l. 140). Teacher trainer F12 specified that a lack of reflection concerning the correct level of language to use for various groups of students can lead to teachers resorting to using the L1. *“Das Andere ist, dass man ja je nach Jahrgangsstufe, in der man eingesetzt ist, das Englisch regelmäßig sehr anpassen muss, runterbrechen muss oder was auch immer und wenn ich jetzt aus der Q2 komme und in die 5 gehe und da umschalten muss, gelingt das nicht immer so schnell“* (Interview F12, pg. 3, ll. 85-89).

6.1.3.7. Lack of English language skills

A relatively common aspect mentioned by the teacher trainers was a potential lack of English language skills leading to L1 use by English teachers. On the one hand they mention this as being a problem for the teacher trainees. *“[...] und ich habe jetzt so durch Unterrichtsbeobachtungen, als Fachleiter auch das Gefühl, dass viele Lehramtsanwärterinnen und Lehramtsanwärter, die ich*

im Unterricht beobachte, das auch machen, weil sie selber nicht sicher sind in ihrem Gebrauch der englischen Sprache“ (Interview F3, pg. 4, ll. 113-116).

Another group mentioned was those who teach the subject English although they have not studied it themselves. *“Ein Grund ist mit Sicherheit die fehlende Sprachkompetenz. Bei den LehrerInnen, die das nicht studiert haben [...] Bei den LehrerInnen die jetzt noch nicht grundständig ausgebildet sind, kann das sein, dass die Englisch gut können, weil sie es irgendwo gelernt haben. Es muss aber nicht sein. Tatsächlich stelle ich das nach wie vor fest, dass die englische Sprache von den Mentoren viel zu wenig verwendet wird“ (Interview F4, pg. 6, ll. 185-191).*

A third group with a lack of English language skills is qualified English teachers. *“Ich glaube, das ist häufig eine mangelnde Sprachkompetenz und [...] an der eigenen Unsicherheit in der Sprache liegt, sobald es schwierig und knifflig wird. Das ist oft so. [...] also das hört sich jetzt nach einem sehr harten Urteil an, aber das ist, glaube ich, oft auch bei Kollegen der Fall und nicht nur beim Referendar“ (Interview F13, pg. 4, ll. 106-110).*

Teacher trainer F3 talked about their experience of having been more capable of speaking English with ease after having come back from a longer time in an English speaking country. *“Als ich Lehrer geworden bin an der deutschen Schule, habe ich relativ kurz davor in England gelebt. Da ist es mir selber viel leichter gefallen, im Alltag Englisch zu sprechen und da war ich selber stärker in der englischen Sprache verhaftet und habe in vielen Situationen spontan eher viele Konzepte auf Englisch gedacht [...] es fiel mir viel leichter, in die Sprache reinzukommen, jetzt nach vielen Jahren wieder in Deutschland, bin ich doch eher wieder in der deutschen Sprache zuhause, was so meine eigene Gedankenwelt angeht und da ist die Versuchung im Unterricht Deutsch zu sprechen, eher größer geworden“ (Interview F3, pg. 4, ll. 100-106).*

6.1.3.8. Giving task instructions

Switching into the L1 for giving task instructions is something often mentioned by the interviewees. The teacher trainers see this very often during lesson-observations with the trainees. *“Es ist häufig, dass eine Arbeitsanweisung erst in Englisch gegeben wird und dann übersetzt ein Schüler die nochmal für die anderen als Kontrollübersetzung. Manchmal übersetzt das*

aber auch die Lehrkraft und manchmal wird es auch direkt auf Deutsch gesagt, in der Fünf oder Sechs, schon mal ab und zu“ (Interview F10, pg. 8, ll. 252-255). This seems to be accepted by some teacher trainers as a legitimate use of the L1. “[...] oder gegebenenfalls jetzt auch bei den Kleinen, wenn es wirklich ein komplexer Arbeitsauftrag ist, eine neue Methode, die die noch nicht kennen, da dann eben auch eine Rückversicherung auf Deutsch machen zu lassen, finde ich dann an der Stelle sinnvoll“ (Interview F5, pg. 3, ll. 67-70). Some teacher trainers added a further aspect to this, saying that this is something that can and possibly should be avoided, and should certainly be reduced as the pupils progress through school. “Also heterogen sind sie alle, die Lerngruppen, an einer Gesamtschule vielleicht nochmal heterogener als am Gymnasium oder so [...] da ist es nicht nur legitim, sondern unbedingt nötig, dass die Schülerinnen und Schüler das dann auch nochmal auf Deutsch gespiegelt bekommen, peu à peu abbauen natürlich, damit das nicht irgendwie so eine reine Gewohnheit wird, ich brauche da gar nicht mehr zuhören, ich kriege es ja eh nachher nochmal auf Deutsch serviert“ (Interview F1, pg. 3, ll. 90-96). The use of the L1 here seems to give the teacher trainees a feeling of security. “Das ist sicher ein Grund. [...] dann gibt es einem mehr Sicherheit oder vermeintlich fühlen sie sich sicherer wenn sie die Kinder auf Deutsch ansprechen, weil das A und O ist ja immer für die Lehramtsanwärterinnen und Lehramtsanwärter, dass die Aufgabenstellung klar überkommt“ (Interview F4, pg. 10, ll. 301-304).

6.1.3.9. Discipline

When it comes to dealing with discipline in the classroom, some teacher trainers mentioned switching for this purpose. *“Ich bin teilweise auch in der L1, wenn es um disziplinarische Sachen geht, wobei das nicht die erste Wahl ist. Da würde ich, wenn es geht, auch bei [...] L2 bleiben [...] je nachdem, wie es dann wirkt und was ich merke, was funktioniert und funktioniert nicht, würde ich dann rüber wechseln“ (Interview F9, pg. 2, ll. 42-45). Interviewee F5 talks about a disciplinary system that the school uses and how this leads to using the L1 because the system is established in that language. “Sicherlich zum Teil auch disziplinarische Maßnahmen, weil wir ja auch das Trainingsraum Prinzip haben [...] da hat jeder diese Fragenabfolge, [...] diese vier Fragen auf seinem Pult kleben und an diese Fragenabfolge hält man sich, das passiert dann auch öfter mal auf Deutsch“ (Interview F5, pg. 2, ll. 40-43). The same interviewee goes on*

to outline the problem they see in the belief of some teachers that L2 can only be used in the classroom when pupils behave themselves. “[...] *ich erlebe das eben auch häufig bei Kollegen, die Disziplinschwierigkeiten haben, dass die sagen Englisch sprechen ist gar nicht möglich, soweit bin ich noch überhaupt nicht, also die das Ganze irgendwie falsch rum denken. Die Klasse muss erstmal leise sein, bevor man Englisch sprechen kann*“ (Interview F5, pg. 8, ll. 234-237).

6.1.3.10. Student-teacher relationship

Building and establishing a relationship between teacher and pupil was often mentioned as a reason to perhaps switch into the L1. A first aspect was that of humour as a means to build up a rapport with pupils. *“Mein Gott, wenn man jetzt irgendwie das Bedürfnis hat, da einen kurzen Witz auf Deutsch, der situationsangemessen und lerngruppenangemessen ist, zu reißen, dann soll man es in Gottes Namen tun, ist ja auch vielleicht für die Lehrer-Schüler-Beziehung hilfreich*“ (Interview F1, pg. 8, 245-247). This was also mentioned as an aspect that teacher trainees struggle with, establishing a relationship in English lessons while trying to use the foreign language. *“Also zum einen möchten die Lehramtsanwärterinnen und Lehramtsanwärter eine Beziehung zu den Kindern aufbauen und haben das Gefühl, es geht manchmal etwas besser auf Deutsch. Das ist sicherlich auch so im ersten Schuljahr. Wobei es dann Möglichkeiten außerhalb des Englischunterrichts [gibt]. Das wäre günstiger dann Zweiergespräche zu suchen mit den Kindern, um da eine Beziehungsarbeit zu machen*“ (Interview F4, pp. 9-10, ll. 293-297). Switching was seen as legitimate by some teacher trainers when dealing with a pupil’s problem, *“Ja, meistens auch gar nicht so viele didaktische Situationen, sondern eher so ein Beziehungsaufbau, also bei so Fünft-, Sechstklässlern war das dann häufig so. Natürlich macht man da auf Englisch einen Smalltalk, aber wenn es jemandem nicht so gut geht, dann erreicht man ihn unter Umständen vielleicht dann auch nicht so, gleich in der Fremdsprache zu beginnen, das schafft dann wahrscheinlich eher Verunsicherung*“ (Interview F10, pg. 2, ll. 45-49).

6.1.3.11. Discussing important topics

Teacher trainers saw various types of important topics as being a reason that either other teachers or they themselves use the L1. Interviewee F4 believes in the benefit of allowing use of the L1 in certain phases of the lesson with younger learners. *“Ich empfehle [es] im Rahmen des interkulturellen Lernens, also [...] ich die deutsche Sprache, wenn es in die Tiefe geht. Grundsätzlich immer, [...] wenn es inhaltlich Situationen sind, die nicht an der Oberfläche bleiben, sondern in die Tiefe gehen. Das sind Reflexionsphasen, wo nicht nur oberflächlich, sondern sehr dezidiert Aussagen gemacht werden. Das ist eben interkulturelles Lernen, um wegzukommen von Stereotypen, die wir noch auf Englisch formuliert bekommen, aber dann darüber hinaus dringend die deutsche Sprache anwenden müssen“* (Interview F4, pg. 2, ll. 39-46). An additional aspect in this category was talking about grades with pupils. *“[...] aber zum Beispiel Quartalsnoten oder Zeugnisnoten würde ich im Einzelgespräch vor der Tür auf Deutsch besprechen, ja“* (Interview F2, pg. 4, ll. 112-113).

6.1.3.12. Lack of learner understanding

A commonly mentioned reason for making use of the L1 in the English language classroom is due to a lack of understanding on the part of the learners. Teacher trainers talk about weaker classes and pupils who generally have difficulties understanding the L2. Some speak about classes they have seen during lesson observations in their role as a teacher trainer. *“Also jetzt in Lerngruppen mit relativ schwachen Schülern, einfach damit alle auch verstehen, was zu tun [ist], worum es halt geht. Die Gefahr an Gesamtschulen, wenn ich da UBs sehe, die Schüler auch so, dass sie Schwierigkeiten haben, also in der L1 jetzt, Dinge zu verstehen und zu kommunizieren. Das [ist] auf Englisch noch schwerer möglich, alle mitzunehmen. Dann wird häufiger die L1 genutzt“* (Interview F6, pg. 5, ll. 136-140).

Others talk about their experiences and own use of the L1 due to a lack of learner understanding. *“Ich setze die L1 ein, wenn ich merke, dass Holland in Not ist. Also, was für Gründe auch immer, dass die Schüler es nicht verstehen, auf Englisch. Auch wenn ich der Meinung bin, dass sie es verstehen könnten, aber [ich] sehe ja an der Reaktion, er versteht es oder er versteht es nicht“*

(Interview F9, pg. 2, ll. 31-35). For some it sounds more like a last minute resort. *“Das Zweite ist, wenn der Unterrichtsfluss zum Erliegen kommt, weil man merkt, dass man einen Großteil der Schüler nicht mehr erreicht, weil die einfach nicht hinterherkommen“* (Interview F6, pg. 1, ll. 26-29). Whereas others perhaps use it because they are convinced it is the best way to convey meaning. *“Manche tun das aus Überzeugung, weil sie, glaube ich, der Überzeugung sind, dass sie inhaltlich Dinge vermitteln müssen, irgendwelche Texte, thematische Inhalte und dann sagen, das geht aber nicht in der Zielsprache [...] wenn die Schüler das verstehen sollen, dann muss ich in der L1 sprechen“* (Interview F3, pg. 4, ll. 109-112).

6.1.3.13. Underestimating learner understanding

Two interviewees mentioned the possibility that some teachers' L1 use is due to generally underestimating how much the pupils can actually understand, therefore potentially misjudging the need to explain something in the L1. *“Das zweite ist auch, glaube ich, ist so eine Grundannahme, dass die Schüler noch nicht so viel können und dass ich deshalb viel [auf] Deutsch erklären muss, also, den Schülern das nicht zutrauen wollen, können“* (Interview F9, pg. 5, ll. 137-139). Interviewee F5 seemed to question the fundamental attitude of some English teachers concerning this matter. *“Und sicherlich auch, dass manche dann denken, die Schüler können das ja sowieso nicht [...] das finde ich auch immer so interessant, die Schüler können das nicht. Dann sage ich immer so: Ja, aber deswegen sind sie ja in der Schule“* (Interview F5, pg. 8, ll. 241-244).

6.1.3.14. Conflict management

This aspect was mentioned rarely but was seen by some as a legitimate reason to switch languages. *“Wenn die jetzt Streit hatten, wer hat irgendwen beschimpft oder jemand weint, dann sind das auch so Sachen, die man auf Deutsch klärt“* (Interview F5, pg. 2, ll. 38-39). Both stressed that this was something which is more likely to happen during break times, so outside of the English language classroom. *“Zwischenmenschliche Sachen unter Schülern, klar, wenn sie jetzt irgendein Problem haben oder sowas. Sie würden mich jetzt nicht in der Pause auf Englisch ansprechen [...] Also, diese Sachen, die nicht direkt mit Englisch zu tun haben“* (Interview F9, pg. 3, ll. 65-67).

6.1.3.15. Meeting individual learners' needs

Making use of the L1 as a way of meeting individual pupils' needs was mentioned relatively frequently. Teacher trainer F5 has a pupil with diagnosed concentration difficulties. *“Ja, aber ich habe jetzt beispielsweise einen Schüler, der hat tatsächlich diagnostizierte Konzentrationsschwächen, und er kann im Englischen auch keinen nachhaltigen Wortschatz aufbauen. Also das ist ein tatsächlich richtiges Defizitfach von ihm [...] wenn der mich dann was fragt und versucht dabei, die Aufgabe zu machen und er ist dran, dann erkläre ich ihm das auf Deutsch“* (Interview F5, pg. 2, ll. 49-62). The interviewee goes on to underline that they are convinced of this approach being appropriate, despite it reducing the amount of L2 the pupil is exposed to. *“Ich denke häufig, dass das richtig ist, also, gerade auch bei Hilfestellungen bei solchen Schülern“* (Interview F5, pg. 3, ll. 66-67). Interviewee F4 does this for small groups of pupils who need a little extra help. *“Muss nicht immer gleich sein, dass die dann [...] einen Förderbedarf haben, aber sage ich mal extrem unwillige Kinder, die also ganz viel Sicherheit brauchen, dass man denen am Platz [...] den Arbeitsauftrag noch mal auf Deutsch erklärt. Auch das ist eine mögliche Differenzierung für eine Kleingruppe, für einzelne Kinder, aber eben nicht frontal als Automatismus“* (Interview F4, pg. 12, ll. 395-400).

6.1.3.16. Uncommunicative teaching methods

Interviewee F8 sheds negative light on uncommunicative teaching methods, offering them as a potential explanation for some colleagues' increased use of the L1. *“Manchmal auch, weil sie sagen: Das geht nicht, das können die nicht und das ist das ganz spannende und interessante. [...] Ich erlebe es eher an Schulen, die vielleicht so einen relativ konservativen Unterrichtsstil haben, [...] also Schulen in kirchlicher Trägerschaft zum Beispiel, dass das als Argument auch gebracht wird, und spannenderweise die Schulen mit einer, [...] also für gymnasiale Verhältnisse sehr, sehr heterogenen, bildungsfernen Schülerschaft, dass da, vielleicht auch, weil die Lehrkräfte eher gezwungen sind, Konzepte zu entwickeln, sowieso, als für Unterstützungen jeglicher Form, für Scaffolding, dass die das viel weniger praktizieren. Dass ich da viel mehr Klassen erlebe [...] wo das dann sehr gut einsprachig klappt. Und das fasziniert mich dann“* (Interview F8, pp. 5-6, ll. 158-168).

6.1.3.17. General classroom discourse

A select few examples of general classroom discourse were given as instances of when the L1 is used in the English language classroom. Firstly, when spontaneously communicating, sometimes without thinking, it is the L1 that is used. *“Natürlich gibt es auch so Situationen, dass dann der Classroom Discourse, wo sich anböte, vielleicht nicht immer auf Englisch dann geführt würde. So ein Schüler kommt zu spät rein: „Setz dich schnell hin“. Einfach so diese spontanen Gefühle“* (Interview F5, pp. 10-11, ll. 332-335). Moreover, when the English lesson is over, and a teacher wants to quickly communicate something, the L1 is sometimes chosen as the medium of communication. *“Ja, auch so ein bisschen in Momenten, wo man eigentlich ein bisschen englischen Smalltalk machen könnte: Wisch mal die Tafel und so. Ja, eigentlich was, das versteht jeder. Das macht man halt eben vor und auch da sehe ich häufig, ach, dass dann oft, ach, der Englischunterricht ist vorbei und jetzt sag ich denen das eben auf Deutsch“* Interview F10, pg. 8, ll. 257-261).

6.1.3.18. Vocabulary explanations

A further category which was spoken about quite often is the use of the L1 for vocabulary translations or explanations. Interviewee F4 talks about using the L1 if their pupils aren't able to come up with the meaning themselves. *“Und dann, wenn es Schlüsselwörter gibt, aber das ist selten, die ich nicht visualisieren oder darstellen kann, die häufig so in Kategorien vielleicht umschreiben, die auf so einer abstrakten Ebene sind und von Kindern nicht zu erfassen sind, aber für den Kontext absolut wesentlich. Dann im Sinne der Sandwichmethode, mache ich das selber und empfehle auch, dann Deutsch-Englisch-Deutsch oder Englisch-Deutsch-Englisch vielmehr, so einen Begriff auch mal übersetzen zu lassen“* (Interview F4, pg. 2, ll. 48-54). The interviewee exemplifies what they mean by category words with an anecdote about the word “pets”. *“Ich habe vier Wochen lang über das Thema „pets“ gesprochen. Mit allen Schattierungen und eigenen Postern und eigenen Tieren und dann fragt mich ein Kind nach vier Wochen: „Was heißt eigentlich „pets“?“ Und das ist so ein Klassiker, wo ich gedacht habe, dieses in Kategorien denken, dass wenn Kinder nicht in Kategorien denken können, dann fällt es ihnen auch schwer, das Wort „pets“ zuzuordnen. Denn dazu gab es ja eben nur Hunde, Katzen, Vögel, Meerschweinchen und so weiter Bilder, aber es gibt jetzt nicht*

das Wort, das Bild für das, für die Oberkategorie „pets“. Deswegen würde ich solche Sachen immer [...] übersetzen“ (Interview F4, pg. 5, ll. 140-147).

Interviewee F7 gave the example of conjunctions as difficult words that are hard for the pupils to gauge the meaning of if they have never heard it before. *“Das andere ist bei Vokabeln, wenn ich also eine Vokabel habe, vor allem Konjunktionen, „although“, das kann ich zwar mit Beispielen erklären, aber am Ende ruft sowieso irgendeiner die deutsche Übersetzung in die Klasse, um sicherzugehen. [...] Konjunktionen sind so ein typisches Beispiel, die ich dann auch auf Deutsch angebe, weil es Zeit spart“ (Interview F7, pg. 1, ll. 26-29).*

6.1.3.19. Mediation tasks

Mediation tasks appear to be an area of foreign language learning for which the use of the L1 is not only accepted but also central for completing the task. Here the teacher trainers talk about the aspects of intercultural learning and language awareness. *“[...] ich habe diese Leistungskurse immer und natürlich ist Mediation einer der Schwerpunkte, was auch im Abitur eine Rolle spielt, da ist das super naheliegend. Also, dass man da auch noch mal schaut, also eben: Wie gehe ich überhaupt in der Sprachmittlung damit um, mit Deutsch als Sprache, da auch in Richtung Sprachbewusstheit beziehungsweise dann auch in dem interkulturellen Aspekt. Was muss eventuell erläutert werden, was non-native Speakers oder Nicht-Deutschen nicht bekannt ist und dafür ein Bewusstsein zu schärfen, da ist es extrem naheliegend. Sonst ist es tatsächlich sehr, sehr selten der Fall“ (Interview F8, pg. 2, ll. 39-45).*

Moreover, teacher trainer F10 talks about the importance of vocabulary work within this type of task for which they involve the L1. *“[...] im didaktischen Sinne natürlich, dass man versucht, das möglichst funktional zu machen, also an verschiedenen Stellen, [...] wenn ich eine Mediationsaufgabe bespreche oder so, [...] gibt es gewisse Fachbegriffe in beiden Sprachen, wo es vielleicht auch quasi Synonyme gibt in der jeweils anderen Sprache, und dann würde man vielleicht sagen, in unserer Sprache trifft es das eher und im Englischen müsste man dann eben versuchen, da möglichst nah ranzukommen. [...] dann gebe ich auch Beispiele selber“ (Interview F10, pg. 1, ll. 4-10).*

6.1.3.20. Intercultural competences

An aspect mentioned by one interviewee was that of using the L1 when it comes to teaching certain aspects of intercultural competences. *“Ich finde, auch überall da, wo es in den interkulturellen Bereich geht: Was ist denn höflich? Was ist höflich im Deutschen, was ist höflich im Englischen? Eben auch in Formulierungen, finde ich [es] super wichtig”* (Interview F8, pg. 11, ll. 362-364).

6.1.3.21. Lack of preparation

Interviewee F10 also saw the use of L1 as being caused by a lack of preparation on the part of the teacher. *“Aber ich glaube, dass gewisse Impulse, dass es nicht schadet, sich die vorher gut überlegt zu haben und dass man dann für Arbeitsaufträge und so nicht so ad hoc reingeht und nur das Schulbuch hat, sondern dass man dann überlegt, wie macht man die Anmoderation, oder wie kann ich auch in der Fremdsprache so unterstützen, dass das trotzdem verständlich bleibt. [...] ich merke dann selber, wenn ich mal schlechter vorbereitet bin und dann, wie zum Beispiel in einem Vertretungsunterricht, wo ich dann so eine Aufgabe habe, ad hoc, und denke, ich weiß jetzt gar nicht, was kommt, ich weiß nicht, wer da ist. Dann ist das vermeintlich einfacher, auch wenn die dann signalisieren, wir verstehen Sie jetzt gar nicht, hey, was will sie. Dann, ja, dann mach ich das auch schon mal eher und Sie haben eben nach Frust gefragt, dann finde ich, das war nicht gut. Aber ich merke, je besser man das vorbereitet, desto funktionaler ist es möglich, in der Fremdsprache zu bleiben. [...] angesichts dieses ganzen Pensums ist es manchmal, glaube ich, schwierig, das so zu realisieren“* (Interview F10, pg. 6, ll. 167-179).

6.1.3.22. Comparing languages

Some teacher trainers saw the use of the L1 as a means to compare the two languages when needed. On the one hand it was suggested as being something that is supported by teaching methodology. *“Aber da, wo es um den Sprachvergleich geht, da wird es in der Regel in der Fachdidaktik jetzt als sinnvoll angesehen. Man sagt eben, tatsächlich um Sprachbewusstheit zu fördern oder auch Language Learning Awareness, dass man da das Deutsche einsetzt“* (Interview F8, pg. 1, ll. 16-19). Teacher trainer F7 talks of using it for specific comparisons they deem important, adding that making use of other L1s, not just German, could also be beneficial. *“Also sie spielt für mich eine große*

Rolle im Kontrastiven, dass ich eben Vergleiche ziehen kann. Also zum Beispiel haben wir [...] so eine rheinische Verlaufsform, die es eigentlich grammatikalisch nicht wirklich gibt. Aber zum Beispiel: ich bin am Essen, das ist sowas, was man im Rheinland sagt und das ist im Prinzip das Present Progressive, dass ich da versuche, so Parallelen zu ziehen. [...] wie gesagt, da wäre es natürlich super, man könnte eben es auch zu anderen Muttersprachen noch schaffen“ (Interview F7, pg. 3, ll. 88-93). The final person to mention using the L1 for comparing languages was wary to still keep it to a minimum. “So im Sinne des Sprachenvergleichs und es ist, es muss irgendwie klar sein, dass das so eine Ausnahme ist“ (Interview F11, pg. 3, ll. 62-63).

6.1.3.23. For urgent matters

For teacher trainer F13, the L1 should only be used in situations of urgency. *“Also wenn mir eine Schülerin zum Beispiel kollabiert im Unterricht, beim Finish, das hatte ich tatsächlich schon in einer Klausur, die hyperventiliert hat und vor mir zusammengesackt ist, dann denke ich da auch nicht mehr darüber nach. [...] dann fände ich es auch unangemessen, in der L2 zu bleiben. Dann unterrichte ich nicht mehr. Dann muss ich erst einmal helfen. Feueralarm war eine andere Situation, wo ich dann gesagt habe: Hier geht es um Leben. Also es hat für mich auch etwas mit Dringlichkeit zu tun und wenn etwas dringlich wird in dem Sinne von, da muss jetzt ein Problem gelöst werden, was mit der Unterrichtssituation, dem zu Lernenden so gar nichts mehr zu tun hat, dann finde ich es ganz natürlich, in [die] L1 zu wechseln“ (Interview F13, pg. 2, ll. 37-45).*

6.1.3.24. Enlightened monoglingualism

Often citing Butzkamm, teacher trainers frequently mention Enlightened Monolingualism as being a legitimate justification to use the L1. *“Also namentlich kenne ich das Prinzip der aufgeklärten Einsprachigkeit, von [der] deutschen Fachdidaktik im Rahmen von Professor Butzkamm hauptsächlich vertreten. Ich weiß, dass es sehr umstritten ist, ich weiß, dass die meisten anderen Fachdidaktiker den Einsatz der Muttersprache eher sehr kritisch sehen im Englischunterricht. [...] ich persönlich kann in manchen Bereichen mich mit den Grundsätzen des Prinzips der aufgeklärten Einsprachigkeit eher anfreunden“ (Interview F3, pg. 1, ll. 12-17).*

6.1.4. Reasons for learner L1 use

The next section will present the teacher trainer interview codes for reasons for learner L1 use.

6.1.4.1. During cooperative learning

One of the most commonly mentioned reasons for learners switching to their L1 was during cooperative learning tasks such as working in groups or with a partner. Some teacher trainers stated this as being something that was against the classroom rules they had set concerning language use. *“Sie setzen die natürlich gerne ein, gerade in Phasen des kooperativen Lernens, aber das, ja, streng gesprochen, unerlaubter Weise“* (Interview F1, pg. 3, ll. 83-84). Interviewee F4, working with much younger children, was more accepting of the use of German during these tasks. *“Aber für die Organisation der Arbeit in Gruppen oder [mit einem] Partner sind es Ansätze auf Englisch und in der Regel ist es auch okay, wenn die Kinder da Deutsch nutzen“* (Interview F4, pg. 4, ll. 101-102).

Others elaborated on why the pupils maybe switched languages in these phases. Possible reasons given were, for example, because they do not know how to express themselves. *“Ja, Gruppenarbeit, vor allem. Dann jetzt Klassen fünf bis acht, wenn das Vokabular fehlt und jemand etwas Wichtiges mitteilen möchte und gerade bei schwächeren oder schüchternen Schülern, dass sie dann auf Deutsch antworten, weil sie sich das nicht trauen. Das am ehesten glaube ich und die Arbeit in kooperativen Phasen und Gruppen. In Partnerarbeit finde ich nicht so, in Gruppen dann schon mehr“* (Interview F6, pg. 2, ll. 46-50). Another reason mentioned was because the pupils feel unwatched and therefore maybe break rules that have been set because they feel like they can do so undetected. *“Also ich sage mal, je mehr sie sich unbeobachtet fühlen, also Gruppenarbeiten zum Beispiel ist sowas oder auch Partnerarbeiten, dass sie da nochmal leise murmeln-, also immer wenn sie den Eindruck haben, sie sind unbeobachtet, wechseln die meisten in die Muttersprache. Also es sind wirklich dann die sehr Motivierten, die in Englisch bleiben“* (Interview F7, pg. 3, ll. 67-70). Teacher trainer F10 believes that it is the more open nature of cooperative learning phases that leads to the pupils' use of the L1. *“Aber mir fällt schon auf, dass, wenn man sagt, ja, dann organisiert euch mal und macht*

*das mal frei, dass diese Freiheit manchmal dazu führt, dass das auch eine Überforderung ist, die ganze Zeit in der Fremdsprache zu bleiben“ (Interview F10, pg. 3, ll. 83-86). A final reason mentioned is that some pupils may feel the need to speed group-work up if they need to produce an outcome in a given amount of time. *“Das sind Situationen, wenn erfahrungsgemäß die Schüler unter Zeitdruck kommen, dass sie dann, auch gerade bei so gruppenorganisatorischen Sachen, wer macht was: Schreibst du auf, schreib ich auf. Was schreiben wir jetzt da?. Dass die in [...] L1 verfallen“ (Interview F9, pg. 2, ll. 58-61).**

Interviewee F13 feels that the L1 is used more so in phases of cooperative learning at certain types of schools more than others. *“Andere Situationen sind natürlich auch am Gymnasium Gruppenarbeiten. Sobald sie das Gefühl haben, dass sie im nicht mehr vom Lehrer beobachteten Raum [sind], gibt es Gruppen, die dann ausweichen. Am Gymnasium sicherlich weniger als an der Gesamtschule. Das ist so“ (Interview F13, pg. 2, ll. 52-54).*

6.1.4.2. Lack of language skills

A further reason often given for pupils using the L1 during their English lessons is their general lack of language skills, preventing them from expressing what they want to. They do this because it is more convenient than trying to figure out how to say it in English. *“Ja, ich denke, dass es Schüler bequem macht, wenn sie die L1 benutzen, weil das einfacher ist“ (Interview F3, pg. 3, ll. 74-75). With younger learners, the tendency is to switch into the L1 as soon as they move away from the direct words and phrases being learned. *“Ganz viele Situationen. Alle Situationen, die sich nicht auf die, sage ich mal gerade eingeführten Redemittel beziehen. Alles, was darüber hinausgeht, wird von den Schülern häufig noch auf Deutsch gemacht. [...] es ist einfach in der Grundschule zu beschreiben, was machen sie auf Englisch. [...] die für die Lernaufgabe angebotenen Redemittel nutzen sie artig auf Englisch. Alle Rituale, die eingeführt sind und das sind ja dann häufig Redemittel, die längerfristig angelegt sind und wiederholt werden. [Diese] werden auf Englisch benutzt. Ein paar Classroom Phrases, die an der Tafel hängen, die an der Wand hängen und ritualisierten Charakter haben, werden genutzt. Aber darüber hinaus, also ein bisschen Classroom Talk, die Lernaufgabe selber, dann [für]**

Sätze die wiederholend im Einstiegsritual benutzt werden, nutzen die Kinder in der Regel die deutsche Sprache“ (Interview F4, pg. 3, ll. 72-81).

For learners with more experience learning English, they tend to switch for selected words or phrases for which they do not know an English equivalent. *“Ja, im Unterrichtsgespräch häufiger, wenn mal ein Wort fehlt, dass die das dann einfach auf Deutsch dazwischenschieben, dass der englische Satz gebaut wird und auf einmal taucht die deutsche Sprache mittendrin mit auf. Oder es kommt so eine Nachfrage: Kann ich das mal schnell auf Deutsch sagen?” (Interview F10, pg. 3, ll. 5-78).* Some say that this is something they experience at the beginning but after introducing certain strategies it decreases. *“Das ist anfänglich in Lerngruppen, dass sie in [die] L1 verfallen, wenn sie nicht weiter wissen, sprachlich, dass sie dann irgendwie das Wort [auf] Deutsch raushauen, mitten im Satz. Das gewöhnen sie sich aber auch relativ schnell ab, weil wir das auch thematisieren, wie gehe ich damit um“ (Interview F9, pp. 2-3, ll. 61-64).*

Moreover, pupils are aware that everyone in the room can understand and speak German better than they can English and that this obvious L1 setting leads to them wanting to speak German more than English. *“Ja, die Schülerinnen und Schüler versuchen natürlich immer, wenn eine Situation, die den Schülerinnen und Schülern häufig passiert, dass sie nicht spontan das ausdrücken können in der Zielsprache, was sie gerne ausdrücken möchten und dann natürlich, weil sie wissen, dass alle um sie rum Deutsch auch verstehen und besser können als Englisch. Dann versuchen [sie] das auf Deutsch zu sagen und da denke ich, ist die größte Schwierigkeit dann zu motivieren, trotzdem in der englischen Sprache zu bleiben. Aber sie versuchen das halt immer wieder auf Deutsch zu antworten“ (Interview F3, pg. 2, ll. 53- 59).*

6.1.4.3. Repeating task instructions

Teacher trainers often mentioned the strategy of getting learners to repeat task instructions so that everyone can understand, while the teacher manages to remain in the L2. *“Aber zum Beispiel bei den jüngeren Klassen, also [Klasse] fünf, sechs, mache ich es häufig so, dass ich die Arbeitsanweisung auf Englisch gebe und, dass Schülerinnen und Schüler [diese] nochmal auf Deutsch wiederholen, um sicherzugehen, dass es eben verstanden wurde. Das wäre eine Möglichkeit. Das mache ich, wie gesagt, nur bei den Jüngeren, oder eben*

auch später, wenn ich merke, dass einfach die Aufgaben nicht verstanden werden. Dann ist es mir eben wichtiger, dass die verstanden werden“ (Interview F7, pg. 1, ll. 18-23).

6.1.4.4. Poorly explained task instructions

Teacher trainer F2 believes that learners switching to the L1 is often caused by task instructions not being explained clearly enough by the teacher. *“Es ist natürlich für mich eine Rückmeldung, dass irgendwas an meinen Arbeitsanweisungen auch nicht klar war, vielleicht und [dann] versuche [ich] die natürlich zu unterstützen dann mit Phrases und [so] weiter, dass die da Gerüste haben, sich dran lang zu hangeln und trotzdem wieder in das Englische zu kommen“ (Interview F2, pg. 2, ll. 54-57).*

6.1.4.5. Spontaneous communication

Mentioned a few times was that learners switch languages in spontaneous communicative situations, often with fellow pupils. *“Das sind zwischenmenschliche Sachen, also von der pragmatischen Ebene, wie: „Ey, gib mir mal den roten Stift“, bis hin zu: „Ich war aber zuerst dran“ (Interview F9, pg. 2, ll. 57-58).* A further aspect of spontaneous communication is when pupils use the L1 when talking privately to one another. *“Die setzen die vor allem Dingen in Privatgesprächen ein und da bin ich nicht frustriert. Nein, [...] ich kann verstehen, warum sie das am Anfang machen“ (Interview F12, pg. 2, ll. 55-56).* Moreover, they sometimes use the L1 when asking the teacher certain things that are not directly to do with the task at hand. *“Ja klar: „Kann ich zur Toilette?“, „Kann ich das Fenster auf-?“, also so Sachen, die eigentlich alle auf Englisch schon können und das versuchen die immer wieder und ich stelle mich immer taub [...] So das sind so Situationen, die immer wieder kommen“ (Interview F11, pg. 2, ll. 47-50).*

6.1.4.6. Experience from multilingual context

Interviewee F10 mentioned this aspect, proposing that, for some pupils, mixing between the languages they know is already a natural part of the way they communicate. *“Ja, also, um das jetzt nicht ganz so verteufeln, das ist ja jetzt kein unnatürlicher Prozess, also gerade, wenn die auch in mehrsprachigen Kontexten selber aufwachsen“ (Interview F10, pp. 3-4, ll. 99-100).*

6.1.4.7. Vocabulary translation

A final reason given for pupils using the L1 was to translate vocabulary. Although this is not the teacher's first approach, if paraphrasing is not leading to an understanding of a word or phrase, then the L1 is sometimes used by the pupils to support others. *“Es gibt Situationen, [...] wenn mal nach bestimmten Vokabeln gefragt wird oder sowas, dass dann, nicht als erster Schritt, aber als zweiter Schritt doch nochmal in [die] L1 gewechselt wird, sozusagen: „Kann es jemand übersetzen?“, oder um die Nuancen klar zu machen, das gibt es auch“* (Interview F9, pg. 7, ll. 198-201).

Interviewee F5 talks about the potential benefit of multilingual word-learning strategies. *“Also ich glaube nicht, [...] dass man prinzipiell sagen könnte, das wäre jetzt perfekt, wenn man die L1 gar nicht nutzen würde. Man muss aber natürlich auch immer sich fragen, ist das hier so eine Situation, in der das tatsächlich hilfreich oder lernförderlich ist und dann natürlich eben auch die Frage, was bedeutet überhaupt L1, weil wir haben ja mittlerweile auch ganz viele Schüler, denen hilft das auch nicht weiter, wenn ich es ihnen auf Deutsch erkläre. Aber sie können vielleicht Analogien zu ihrer eigenen Muttersprache ziehen und ich denke, die eigene Muttersprache spielt beispielsweise eine Rolle, wenn es um [...] Wortschließungsstrategien geht. Es gibt ja unterschiedliche Wortschließungsstrategien, letztlich auch natürlich welche, die in der Einsprachigkeit funktionieren. Aber es gibt ja auch eben diese Strategie: Kann ich aus diesem Wort ein Wort erkennen, das meiner Muttersprache ähnelt und das finde ich, ist beispielsweise eine sehr hilfreiche, lernfördernde Strategie, wobei ich jetzt aber sagen muss, Muttersprache, nicht zwangsläufig Deutsch“* (Interview F5, pg. 6, ll. 169-180).

6.1.5. Role of the L1 and its effect

The next codes summarise the teacher trainers' feelings concerning the role of the L1 in the English language classroom and what effect it has.

6.1.5.1. No/minimal role

Several teacher trainers are of the opinion that the L1 either plays or should play little or no role in the English language classroom. Interviewee F1 sees it not only as playing no role, but as playing a negative role in the classroom. *“Sie*

sollte eigentlich keine spielen, beziehungsweise sie spielt vielleicht die Rolle des Antagonisten. (lacht) Des Bösewichts, den es zu bekämpfen gilt, den man als Doppel-Null-Agent ausschalten muss. Insofern spielt sie natürlich schon eine Rolle, auch bei der Planung, weil man sich natürlich Gedanken darüber macht, [...] wie minimiere ich den Einsatz der L1?“ (Interview F1, pg. 4, ll. 101-105). Teacher trainer F2 substantiates their belief that the L1 plays a minimal role in the classroom by giving a reason why. *“Eine geringe Rolle tatsächlich, zunehmend geringer, weil wir ja auch internationale Klassen haben mit Migrationshintergrund, wo nicht unbedingt die Muttersprache Deutsch ist. [...] dementsprechend kann ich auch nicht Deutsch als L1 für alle voraussetzen, was natürlich den Stellenwert der Muttersprache dann für den Englischunterricht reduziert aus meiner Sicht“* (Interview F2, pg. 3, ll. 64-67). A few teacher trainers highlighted the minimal role of the L1 in comparison to the more important L2. *“Also eigentlich spielt sie eher nicht eine Rolle. Für mich ist der Gegenstand die L2 und es ist ja nicht nur eine Sprache, mit der ich da umgehe. Es ist ja auch ein Lebensgefühl, es ist ein kultureller Raum, den ich mir erschließe und deswegen glaube ich, dass die Erschließung sich verlangsamt, wenn ich da allzu sehr die L1 einsetze. Auch wenn die Schüler das manchmal anders sehen. Aber das ist meine Aufgabe, sie da zu überzeugen und ihnen Wege aufzuweisen das hinzukriegen“* (Interview F13, pg. 3, ll. 67-72).

6.1.5.2. Supportive role

Many teacher trainers see the L1 as playing a supportive role in the English language classroom. It can be a support when used to clarify misunderstandings which then, in turn, lead to more use of the L2. *“Aber sie kann natürlich auch durchaus mal unterstützend sein eben in solchen Aspekten [...]. Also es kann ja mal sein, dass es mal durchaus einen längeren Arbeitsauftrag [gibt], der dann bedeutet, dass die Schülerinnen und Schüler da individuell oder auch kooperativ einen hohen Sprachumsatz in der Zielsprache haben. Wenn der aber nicht richtig verstanden wird, dann führt das zu nichts. Insofern, wenn man da sicherstellt, dass das dann nochmal in der L1 gespiegelt wird und dadurch dann danach zehn, 15, 20 Minuten effektiven Sprachumsatz in der L2 anleitet, dann spielt die L1 natürlich eine sinnvolle Rolle und unterstützende Rolle im Englischlernen“* (Interview F1, pg. 4, ll. 118-126). The

L1 is also mentioned as supportive when it comes to talking about some aspects of language on a meta-level. *“Ja. Wie gesagt, es kann auf einer metasprachlichen Ebene dazu beitragen, grammatikalische Phänomene schneller zu erfassen“* (Interview F3, pg. 3, ll. 85-86). Moreover, it can support learning in the classroom by potentially increasing motivation. *“Sie gibt den Kindern Sicherheit. Sie kann die Motivation manchmal noch mal wieder-, Aufmerksamkeit ein bisschen wieder verstärken“* (Interview F4, pg. 5, ll. 128-129).

6.1.5.3. Existing linguistic system

The L1 is also frequently mentioned as playing an important role because it represents the existing linguistic system of the learners in the class. Teacher trainer F8 believes that there is a clear important role for the L1. *“Also, für die Schülerinnen und Schüler bleibt es natürlich die Bezugssprache und das darf man nicht vergessen. Und [...] natürlich kommen die aus einem deutschen Sprachbad für diese eine Doppelstunde dann in so einen englischen Sprachraum. Das heißt, das ist immer bei denen immer im Hinterkopf dabei“* (Interview F8, pg. 4, ll. 116-119). Teacher trainer F3 sees it as a wasted opportunity to ignore the significance of the L1 for learners of English. *“Ja im Sinne der aufgeklärten Einsprachigkeit auch, denke ich, ist es ein sprachliches System, was schon vorhanden ist. [...]. Also auf der metasprachlichen Ebene spielt es eine Rolle, [...] weil eben ein komplettes sprachliches System vorhanden ist, was eine Verschwendung von Ressourcen auch wäre, wenn man das nicht nutzen würde im Fremdsprachenunterricht“* (Interview F3, pg. 3, ll. 72-79).

6.1.5.4. Allowing learners to achieve a higher cognitive level

A further aspect that was mentioned quite a lot was that the L1 enables learners to work at a higher cognitive level. Interviewee F4 found this often to be the case with younger learners. *“Sie hat die Rolle, da tiefergehende Inhalte aufzunehmen, was ich eben schon sagte, anknüpfend an das Thema interkulturelles Lernen und Reflexionsphase in die Tiefe zu gehen. Also Dinge die wir [...] noch nicht auf Englisch sagen können und wo ich den Interessen der Kinder überhaupt nicht gerecht werde. Da ihnen eine Chance zu geben, einen Türöffner auch, mehr an ihre Interessen auch ranzukommen und auch,*

ich sage mal, ihren kognitiven Lernstand. Das Problem ist, dass wir in Englisch uns in einer Art und Weise ausdrücken, wie sich jetzt nicht mal mehr Kindergartenkinder ausdrücken. Das [...] ist ja das Sprachniveau vielleicht von Vierjährigen, wenn ich sage: „I like football“ (Interview F4, pg. 4, ll. 105-112).

Teacher trainer F5 noticed a similar aspect in an older class. *“Und auch mit der Zehn und da war zunächst auch der Anspruch natürlich für diesen ganzen Planungsprozess: Entwickelt ein Storyboard und sprecht euch ab über Ideen und so weiter, [da] war zunächst mal der Anspruch, macht das alles auf Englisch und dann aber irgendwann hat man auch gesehen, die sind jetzt so im Prozess drinnen und die tauschen sich über kreative Ideen aus und Umsetzungsmöglichkeiten [...] so viel Vokabular konnte man im Vorfeld gar nicht antizipieren und hinlegen, dann hätten die das auch gar nicht gefunden. [...] letztlich war es ja trotzdem noch ein sprachliches Lernprodukt, weil sie mussten Texten [und] die Bilder dazu machen, sie mussten es aufsprechen, mehrmals aufsprechen“ (Interview F5, pg. 4, ll. 105-114).*

6.1.5.5. Counteracts fears

This aspect was only mentioned by interviewee F10. *“Das ist auch wieder die Frage, wie es eingebettet ist. Also ich finde, das kann großen Nutzen haben in dem Moment, [...] wenn ich vom Pädagogischen jetzt ausgehe und das nicht völlig verdamme, wenn jemand mal Deutsch spricht oder so. Dann kann das, glaube ich, Ängste abbauen. Dieses „ich darf irgendwas nicht“ führt, glaube ich, auch eher zu Lernhemmungen“ (Interview F10, pg. 4, ll. 120-124).*

6.1.6. Problems of using the L1

Some teacher trainers identify certain problems of using the L1 in the English language classroom.

6.1.6.1. Impedes language learning

Several teacher trainers are of the opinion that using the L1 in the classroom has a negative effect on the amount of English that their pupils learn. Some explain it as having something clearly to do with the amount of L1 use in the classroom. *“Ich glaube, dass es den Erwerb der englischen Sprache hemmt, weil sie eben dann doch auf Deutsch denken, auf Deutsch formulieren und das*

andere ist dann im Prinzip ja nur aufgesetzt. Ja deswegen denke ich, man sollte es vermeiden tatsächlich“ (Interview F2, pg. 3, ll. 75-77). Teacher trainer F6 talks about it creating an unproductive learning environment. „Problematisch wird es dann, wenn quasi alle Schüler gar nicht den Gedanken haben: "Ich sollte mich bemühen Englisch zu verwenden." Sondern relativ viele immer Deutsch sprechen, dann ist natürlich weniger Englischumsatz da. Und auch problematisch ist, wenn Classroom Phrases, die verwendet werden könnten, nicht verwendet werden, weil einfach die Stimmung nicht so ist, weil sie es peinlich finden, was auch immer. Dann ist es, glaube ich kontraproduktiv“ (Interview F6, pg. 3, ll. 79-84).

Teacher trainer F12 explains that the learners then practise certain strategies less. *“Dass Schülerin und Schüler sehr viel schneller ins Deutsche ausweichen und diese Versuche zu paraphrasieren oder auch mal mit dem Nachbarn kurz in der Phase Englisch zu sprechen, immer wieder unterbrochen werden. Ich halte das für ganz hinderlich beim Lernprozess in der Sprache“ (Interview F12, pg. 3, ll. 76-79). Interviewee F5 elaborates and differentiates between just use of the L1 or there being general problems with the teaching style. “Ja, also wenn jetzt tatsächlich jemand seinen ganzen Englischunterricht auf Deutsch abhält und nur sowas sagt wie: „Open your book on page 94“, dann ist es sicherlich nicht lernförderlich. [...] dann stehen aber auch noch hinter dieser Unterrichtsplanung auch noch viele andere didaktische Entscheidungen, bei denen ich sagen würde, die können sich dann tatsächlich auch nachhaltig auf das Lernen auswirken. Aber nicht nur, [...] dass der Lehrer nur Deutsch spricht, aber dann stimmt auch was mit dem Gesamtkonzept nicht.“ (Interview F5, pp. 6-7, ll. 199-205).*

6.1.6.2. Assuming understanding

A further problem of L1 use mentioned by teacher trainers is that teachers sometimes assume their pupils understand as soon as they switch into the L1. Several teacher trainers are of the opinion that this is not the case. Interviewee F1 sees it being due to the specific terminology used. *“Zweiter Irrglaube, wenn ich ins Deutsche wechsele, dass dann auf einmal alles verstanden wird. [...] Also ein Lehrer, der Englisch unterrichtet und vielleicht jetzt als Zweifach, ich sage jetzt einfach mal, was ist denn kompliziert, Bio oder Physik oder so hat, der glaubt ja auch nicht, nur weil ich irgendwie ein Phänomen in den*

Naturwissenschaften auf Deutsch erkläre, hat es jeder verstanden. Im Englischunterricht glaubt man das aber, also Stichwort jetzt sprachsensibler Unterricht auch. Das, wie gesagt, das ist dann durchaus eine Gefahr sogar, dass man denkt, so, jetzt habe ich das doch auf Deutsch erklärt, jetzt müsst ihr es aber verstanden haben und sich dann wundert, dass dann die Hausaufgabe oder in der Klassenarbeit trotzdem alles schiefgelaufen ist“ (Interview F1, pg. 5, ll. 160-169).

Teacher trainer F4 sees as it being due to the sheer amount of information that teachers sometimes try to convey. *“Also selbst wenn wir Deutsch sprechen, wollte ich sagen, dann ist es für die Kinder auch nicht viel klarer und weil so viele Anweisungen hintereinander folgen. Da werden also Anweisungen gegeben, [...] welche Kommunikationssituation gelöst werden soll mit welchen Redemitteln, in welcher Zeit, welche Hilfen zur Verfügung stehen, mit welchem Partner gearbeitet wird, wo der Wechsel stattfindet, wann der Wechsel stattfindet und dann das Ganze noch mal für die Differenzierung. [...] das sind so viele Arbeitsschritte, die egal in welcher Sprache, ganz viele, die Aufmerksamkeit ganz vieler Kinder komplett überfordern“ (Interview F4, pg. 10, ll. 310-318).*

Teacher trainer F10 suggests that the amount of language needs to be reduced, whether in English or in German. *“Aber auch da versuche ich halt zu ermuntern, dass man mit weniger Sprache auskommt. Also eher mit mehr zeigen, mehr vormachen anstatt mit viel Metasprache, die auch im Deutschen, glaube ich, nicht immer eine Hilfe darstellen muss. Also nur, weil ich jetzt ins Deutsche wechsele, heißt das ja auch nicht, dass ich meinen Adressaten immer so, wie gewünscht, erreiche. Das heißt, ich muss insgesamt schauen, wie kommt das bei dem an“ (Interview F10, pg. 5, ll. 150-154).*

A final teacher trainer makes the point of different L1s in the classroom. *“Ich muss dazu auch sagen, dass ich ja an einer Schule unterrichte, die Schülerinnen und Schüler aus relativ vielen anderen Ländern auch hat, wo Deutsch nicht unbedingt die Muttersprache ist, und da wäre die Frage, was dann da überhaupt L1 ist, ob dann da der Vergleich mit dem Deutschen überhaupt so hilfreich ist“ (Interview F8, pg. 1, ll. 20-23).*

6.1.6.3. When it happens without noticing

Interviewee F4 describes problematic situations where teachers or teacher trainees tend to switch without realising they are doing it. One teacher trainer talks about an experience with one of her teacher trainees. *“Und problematisch ist es dann an den Stellen, wenn es einem nicht mehr bewusst ist, dass man Deutsch spricht. [...] wenn es so ein Automatismus wird, dass man gar nicht mehr merkt, was man alles auf Deutsch sagt. Weil man dann zum Beispiel auch gar nicht merkt, wenn man aufhört“* (Interview F4, pg. 9, ll. 269-275). They go on to describe how the general tone of the lesson is then less than ideal. *“Das Problematische. Ich habe dann angefangen und konnte nicht mehr aufhören. Und dann eben vielleicht auch gepaart mit einer, ja, sehr angespannten, etwas nervösen und etwas unfreundlichen, ja, Art und Weise, [...] das geht dann manchmal Hand in Hand. [...] Wenn da was schief läuft, dass dann auch die Ansprache der Kinder nicht mehr so freundlich ist. Das ist natürlich dann ungünstig“* (Interview F4, pg. 9, ll. 279-284).

6.1.7. Teacher trainers’ opinion on L1 use

The next section of codes presents numerous aspects of teacher trainers’ opinions on L1 use as derived from the content of the interviews.

6.1.7.1. Avoiding L1 use

Several teacher trainers talk quite clearly about wanting to avoid any use of the L1 in their classrooms. *“In meiner Funktion als Englischlehrer versuche ich es zu vermeiden“* (Interview F1, pg. 3, l. 67). This interviewee sees it as their role to get the pupils and their English classroom to the point where it is a monolingual space. *“Das ist ein dickes Brett, was man bohren muss, bei der Erziehung dann letztendlich auch. Ja, Handlungsfeld F für Fremdsprachenlehrer, auch Erziehung zur Einsprachigkeit, klar“* (Interview F1, pg. 4, ll. 107-109). Others say that they attempt to almost completely remove it from the classroom. *“Also ich versuche es komplett zu vermeiden, bis auf ein paar wenige Ausnahmen. [...] Wenn die Schüler mich quasi, ich nenne es mal verführen, weil sie mich auf Deutsch ansprechen oder zwischen Tür und Angel, dann ärgere ich mich. Also von daher denke ich schon, dass ich das ganz gut hinkriege. Wenn ich es nicht hinkriege, dann ärgere ich mich“* (Interview F2, pg. 2, ll. 40-44).

6.1.7.2. Feeling frustrated at using the L1

When asked about their own L1 use, some teacher trainers express feeling frustrated when they use German in the English language classroom. Interviewee F3 describes how they see it negatively when they end up switching languages. *“Ich, wie gesagt, versuche weitestgehend Englisch zu sprechen. Und [...] ich versuche in kommunikativen Situationen komplett in der Zielsprache zu bleiben. Gelingt mir nicht immer hundertprozentig, und dann bewerte ich das für mich eher negativ. Also, ich habe dann nicht so ein gutes Gefühl, wenn ich mich dazu hinreißen lasse, dann Deutsch zu sprechen, weil ich irgendwie schnell noch was sagen möchte und das Gefühl habe, die Schüler verstehen mich sonst nicht, oder so und dann ins Deutsche wechsele, bewerte ich eher negativ. Aber passiert hin und wieder“* (Interview F3, pg. 2, ll. 43-49). Interviewee F4 says that they do not like the amount of German they speak. *“Ich finde, ich mache es zu viel. Also das was ich grad gesagt habe, [...] das finde ich sehr sinnvoll in den Bereichen, sie einzusetzen. Aber ansonsten setze ich sie immer noch zu viel ein - in allen anderen Bereichen, wo ich [...] eigentlich nicht für notwendig halte [...] Ja. Ärgern, beziehungsweise ich überlege dann, wieso war es notwendig? War der Zeitdruck jetzt wirklich so groß? Es ist meistens der Zeitdruck, der mich dann dazu bringt“* (Interview F4, pg. 2, ll. 57-64). Finally, interviewee F12 seems to reprimand themselves, wanting to be better prepared the next time to avoid using the L1. *“Ich ärger mich über mich, weil ich damit meinen eigenen Ideen und Konzepten überhaupt nicht folge und ich dann, wenn mir so etwas passiert, der Meinung bin, wenn ich mich anders vorbereitet hätte. Wenn ich anders antizipiert hätte, hätte ich vielleicht noch die dritte, vierte, fünfte Stufe bereithalten können, um zu erklären“* (Interview F12, pg. 2, ll. 38-41).

Other teacher trainers, however, reported not feeling frustrated at switching to the L1. *“Nein, also da, wo ich es bewusst mache, finde ich es sinnvoll [...] Aber ansonsten da immer, wo ich es gezielt mache, finde ich es auch völlig in Ordnung, weil ich eben diese funktionale Einsprachigkeit für sehr sinnvoll erachte“* (Interview F7, p. 2, ll. 39-45).

6.1.8. Opinion on teacher trainee use of the L1

The next section shall focus specifically on teacher trainers' opinions of trainees using the L1. When talking about this aspect, the teacher trainers are referring to the observations made and opinions formed while seeing the trainees in situations where they have the task of evaluating the trainees' performance, whether that be the lesson-observations over the course of the teacher training or the final exam at the end of the 18 months.

6.1.8.1. Negative view of L1 use

Some teacher trainers very much dislike seeing any use of the L1 in their trainees' English lessons. Many want to see as little L1 as possible. *“[Meine] Einstellung zur Nutzung von L1 [hat] sich eigentlich nicht verändert, muss ich ehrlich sagen. Also, weil ich früh die Erfahrung gemacht habe [...] So wenig wie möglich, aber so viel wie nötig und, da bin ich gut mit gefahren, bisher“* (Interview F9, pg. 4, ll. 106-110).

Some would give trainees a worse grade if they were to use the L1. *“Also es ist schon ein Kriterium und wenn es so häufig passiert, ist es auch ein massives Kriterium, [...] wo ich auch dann massiv Abstriche in der Note gebe, ja“* (Interview F1, pg. 8, ll. 255-257). The same interviewee believes it would be very difficult to find a situation where the use of the L1 would be justifiable. *“Also, grundsätzlich, und das sage ich Referendarinnen, Referendaren auch vorher, sollte ein bewusstes Wechseln in die deutsche Sprache sehr, sehr, sehr gut begründet sein im Unterrichtsentwurf. Und wenn es sehr, sehr, sehr gut und sehr, sehr, sehr nachvollziehbar begründet ist, dann ist das eben so. Aber es gibt, glaube ich, nicht viele Situationen, in denen es gut begründet und unbedingt notwendig passiert“* (Interview F1, pg. 8, ll. 248-253).

For teacher trainer F7, it would have to be very well justified to not be seen in a negative light. *“Aber wenn eben auch mal nicht nachvollziehbar in die Muttersprache gewechselt werden würde, würde es sich in der Note verändern. [Es] würde auch auf die Note auswirken. Aber es wäre jetzt für mich nicht sofort so, das kann jetzt nur noch fünf sein. Das wäre es auch nicht. [...] sobald es nicht nachvollziehbar ist und mehrfach passiert, würde es sich auf jeden Fall auf die Note auswirken, ja“* (Interview F7, pg. 7, ll. 206-219).

Interviewee F5 elaborated and talked about a situation they observed. *“Ich hatte jetzt [...] einen Englischunterricht tatsächlich gesehen, der furchtbar war. Furchtbar, furchtbar. Da lief alles irgendwie auf Deutsch ab, oder es war Denglish. Dann war das so: “Now you read the story in your Buch, on page 94”. Es war so. Und das endete damit, möchte nichts zitieren, aber dass die Person dann sagte: „You can go now, because you have Hitzefree.“ [...] Wenn das jetzt so wäre, wie in diesem Beispiel, müsste ich diese Stunde Fünf nennen. [...] Wenn das wirklich so ist, wo man einfach auch merkt, der Lehrer verfügt gar nicht über die Sprachkompetenz“* (Interview F5, pg. 11, ll. 339-354).

Teacher trainer F3 is of the opinion that the L1 is best completely avoided in the final exam, even though they were not opposed to its use in other lessons. *“Grundsätzlich, denke ich, sollten UPP Stunden so konzipiert sein, dass großer Anteil der L1 nicht nötig ist. Es kann durchaus, wenn man es als sinnvoll erachtet, Stunden geben, wo man jetzt grammatische Strukturen erläutern möchte, oder den Eindruck hat, die muss erläutert werden, [dass] man die L1 stark einsetzen müsste. Es könnte, aber ich denke in der UPP ist das nicht so sinnvoll und da ist, finde ich es persönlich besser, wenn da eher kommunikativ ausgerichtete Stunde gezeigt wird, wo auf den Einsatz der L1 weitestgehend verzichtet wird“* (Interview F3, pg. 6, ll. 171-177).

6.1.8.2. More open view on L1 use

Some teacher trainers appear to be less strict when it comes to teacher trainees using the L1. Some say that it depends on the situation and what the reasons for switching are. Interviewee F11 rarely sees use of the L1 but would not necessarily judge it negatively. *“Selten. Wobei ich das ja gar nicht so schlimm finden würde, wenn man mir hinterher erklären kann, warum das jetzt nötig war. Was ich problematischer finde, ist so der Aspekt, dass das angekündigt werden sollte und das oft nicht passiert“* (Interview F11, pg. 5, ll. 122-124). Some reasons, when they are well explained, would be seen as acceptable. *“Es käme tatsächlich darauf an, auf die Begründung der Lehrperson. Sie muss ja auch einen Plan abgeben, mussten Sie ja auch. Wenn es begründet ist, es gibt ja Positionen, die sagen, es macht Sinn, ja, in bestimmten Situationen. Wenn die nachweisen können, sie haben diese Position gelesen und mir begründet erklären können, warum sie das machen, finde ich, ist es eher ein Zeichen der Reflexionsfähigkeit. Wenn sie es aber aus*

den eben genannten Gründen machen, sprich: Unsicherheit, fehlende Erfahrung, nicht nachdenken, Reflex einfach nur oder Bequemlichkeit im schlimmsten Fall sogar, würde ich es eher negativ bewerten. Aber ich denke, es kommt immer darauf an, wie die Begründung seitens der LehramtsanwärterIn wäre“ (Interview F2, pg, 6, ll. 175-183).

Teacher trainer F4 tells her trainees which situations would be suitable for the use of the L1. *“Insofern hat sich das [...] verändert, dass ich ganz gezielt überlege und auch meinen Referendaren empfehle, an welchen Stellen es sinnvoll ist es miteinzubeziehen. [...] auch gerade das Thema Reflexionsphasen, auch da müssen wir viel mehr leisten als noch vor einigen Jahren“* (Interview F4, pg. 6, ll. 167-170). Along the same lines, the same interviewee does not per se have a problem with the trainees switching to the L1. *“Und wenn man bewusst entscheidet in der und der Phase wurde es unruhig, da habe ich die und die Anweisung auf Deutsch gegeben, dann finde ich das auch kein Problem“* (Interview F4, pg. 9, ll. 271-273).

Many of the teacher trainers say that they would consider it on a case-by-case basis. *“Das kommt darauf an, in welchen Situationen L1 gesprochen wird, das ist das erste. Und die zweite Bedingung: Es kommt darauf an, ob das ein bewusster Einsatz ist und dieser Einsatz auch transparent gemacht wird. Also, ist er angekündigt? Ich finde das hochproblematisch, wenn das einfach passiert, von eins in zwei, oder dass die Schüler wissen, warum ist es jetzt gerade okay und sonst muss ich auf Englisch sprechen, warum ist es nicht ok. Also, dass es einfach angekündigt ist, der Sprachenwechsel. Das ist so die erste Voraussetzung. Und die zweite ist einfach, ist es wirklich nötig und da kriegt man ja ein Gespür für. Es gibt halt Situationen, da ist es absolut legitim und auch absolut verständlich und auch zielführend, und es gibt Situationen, da sagt man, nein, da ist nicht nötig. Das ist nicht funktional und so wird die Situation auch bewertet. [...] Ja, im Grunde ist es ja nachvollziehbar, wenn ein LAA sagt: „Ja, ansonsten verstehen die alle die Aufgaben nicht.“ Dann würde ich sagen: „Stopp, dann müssen Sie [...] [die] Aufgabenstellung vereinfachen.“ Wenn der Grund aber ist, die Aufgabenstellung ist schon vereinfacht und ich habe zweimal noch versucht sie nachzusteuern und dann habe ich gemerkt, es kommt irgendwie immer noch nicht an. Dann hatte ich keine andere Wahl, ins Deutsch zu gehen und ich habe genau das auch angekündigt, dann finde ich es*

in Ordnung. Es ist immer so eine Einzelfallentscheidung“ (Interview F9, pg. 7, ll. 204-224).

Interviewee F5 says that they see it differently to when they were themselves in the teacher training and that they have become more open regarding use of the L1. *“Wie gesagt, im Alltag muss man sich häufiger nochmal daran erinnern und immer wieder darüber nachdenken [...] also wenn ich jetzt daran zurückdenke, [...] dann kriegt man ja schon auch manchmal vom Kollegen gesagt, ja wenn der Fachleiter kommt, dann, [...] Deutsch ist das absolute Tabu. Oder wenn ich dann auch zu Beginn der Lehramtsanwärter Ausbildung mit den Lehramtsanwärtern Sorgen thematisiere, und die mich dann fragen so: „Was mache ich denn, wenn die Schüler Deutsch sprechen? So ist es dann ein schlechter Unterrichtsbesuch?“. So insgesamt, dass die das Gefühl haben, sobald ich den Klassenraum betrete, darf niemand mehr ein deutsches Wort sagen. [...] vielleicht bin ich da einfach offener geworden, dass ich sage, wenn das eine gute Lösung ist, dann darf das auch so sein“* (Interview F5, pg. 7, ll. 212-223).

Teacher trainers also seem to differentiate between the beginning of the teacher training and when the trainees are more advanced in their training. *“Es würde sicherlich einen Notenabzug geben, [...] aber meistens ist das nicht das ausschlaggebende Element. [...] das klingt jetzt so böse, aber die Erfahrung ist, [...] jetzt schon beim ersten UB finde ich das überhaupt nicht schlimm. Die müssen erst mal gucken, die müssen lernen. Der ist ja auch nicht benotet und auch nur bedingt bewertet. Also dieser Welpenschutz, [...] der ist ganz wichtig. So, wenn das jetzt aber viel später passiert, sagen wir mal, vierter UB, dann korreliert das häufig mit anderen Schwächen, weil, die sind ja eigentlich schon im selbstständigen Unterricht, die haben schon selber Rituale erproben können, um Einsprachigkeit zu etablieren. Insofern kann ich da gar nicht sagen, wie groß das jetzt ins Gewicht fällt, [...] also ich kann mich an nichts erinnern, wo nicht dann auch andere Schwächen dann zu einer schlechteren Note geführt haben“* (Interview F8, pg. 10, ll. 310-323).

A further difference that is made is which type of school the trainee is working at. *“Ich glaube, das hängt tatsächlich mit den Lerngruppen auch zusammen. Also ich merke, dass dadurch, dass ich sehr viele Gesamtschulen auch sehe und Referendare, das ist natürlich dann ein anderes Niveau, als ich*

das jetzt gerade von meinem eigenen Unterricht Leistungskurs am Gymnasium beschreibe. Das heißt, ich hab' da auch nicht diesen Anspruch, dass alles immer komplett in der Fremdsprache sein muss. Aber ich achte schon darauf dann, also das hat sich insofern verändert. Ich bin ja ein bisschen toleranter geworden, weil ich eben auch schaue, was ist denn überhaupt leistbar, und das sind ja auch zum Teil Kinder, die haben jetzt Förderschwerpunkte, da kann ich nicht als Erstes das Primat der L2-Nutzung voranstellen“ (Interview F10, pg. 5, ll. 142-150). This interviewee would also check whether it has something to do with the language level of the trainee. “Oder geht es darum, dass ich mich selber in Englisch nicht ausdrücken kann und ich das Gefühl habe, der switcht immer dann, wenn er nicht weiter weiß? Und es ist natürlich auch so, dass die Sprachkompetenz an sich hier jetzt nicht erstmal im zweiten Staatsexamen per se bewertet wird, sondern die Kommunikation mit der Lerngruppe, die Lehrkraft als sprachliches Vorbild, das spielt natürlich eine Rolle, also sprachspezifische Kommunikation. Aber es gehört eben auch zu fachgerecht, meiner Meinung nach, dass man nicht dann wechselt, wenn man es selber nicht kann. Also das wäre so ein Punkt“ (Interview F10, pg. 9, ll. 273-279).

For many, the debriefing that happens at the end of the observed lessons is very important for seeing whether or not they are in agreement with the use of the L1. “Also ich würde erst mal, wenn das ein UB ist, in die Beratung gehen und sagen, warum hat jemand gedacht, das muss unbedingt sein und dann schauen, ob man Alternativen entwickeln kann“ (Interview F12, pg. 5, ll. 143-145).

6.1.8.3. L1 in the teacher training programme

Teacher trainers were asked whether information about L1 use is part of the teacher training programme. Many of them say that it is a topic in their seminars but that there is not a whole session dedicated to it. “[...] jedes Fachseminar hat immer einen Schwerpunkt. [...] Wir haben beispielsweise ein Fachseminar zum Thema Aufgabeninstruktion und da fließt das dann eben mit ein, oder eben auch, also die Nutzung von L1, wann könnte das sinnvoll sein. Oder eben auch bei dem Fachseminar bei dem Thema Lesekompetenz, wenn es dann um Wortschließungsstrategien beispielsweise geht, da fließt das dann mit ein. Ob ich jetzt ein ganzes Seminar zu dem Schwerpunkt [geben würde], wie kann ich die L1 sinnvoll einsetzen, glaube ich nicht, aber es wäre tatsächlich mal ein

sehr interessanter Gedanke, die Sachen mal zu sammeln. [...] es wäre [...] auch nochmal die funktionale Einsprachigkeit weitergedacht. Nochmal zurück zu dem, dass man sagt L1 ist total verpönt, sondern zu sagen, wie kann ich denn eigentlich sinnvoll damit umgehen, bevor ich alles verteufle. Wäre definitiv schon ein interessante Gedanke, tatsächlich das auch mit den Lehramtsanwärtern gemeinsam zu erarbeiten, fände ich auch spannend. Wobei ich zum jetzigen Zeitpunkt sage, unser Schwerpunkt gerade, ist eindeutig daraufgelegt, wie kann ich es machen, in der englischen Einsprachigkeit zu bleiben.[...] das wäre aber sicherlich auch eine Frage, wenn man sie thematisieren würde, mit den Lehramtsanwärtern gemeinsam auch, etwas, wo ich denke zum Ende der Ausbildung auch stehen müsste. Nachdem sie alle anderen Bedingungen, so zu sagen und auch Werkzeuge erlernt haben, was man machen kann und dann auf Basis dieser Expertise zu schauen, wann ist es denn aber sinnvoll, die L1 gewinnbringend einzusetzen“ (Interview F5, pg. 13, ll. 398-415).

Interviewee F7 talks about the importance of informing the teacher trainees about Butzkamm's Enlightened Monolingualism and what that means when teaching English. *“Ja, unbedingt. Wenn wir sagen, wir wollen vermitteln das Prinzip der funktionalen Einsprachigkeit, dann muss ja auch überlegt werden, wann ist es denn funktional und was ist es nicht, damit hinterher nicht immer gesagt wird, ja, das war jetzt funktionale Einsprachigkeit. Also da muss man ja dann eben wirklich auch darauf schauen. [...] ich gebe, wie gesagt, so als grobe Richtschnur diese zeitliche Effizienz dann eben mit und klar, dann wird es irgendwann, wenn wir über Vermittlung von Strukturen sprechen und auch wenn wir über Wortschatz sprechen, dann wird auch immer nochmal der Einsatz der Muttersprache thematisiert, ja“ (Interview F7, pp. 8-9, ll. 260-267).*

Teacher trainer F12 said that it is something they had not previously considered. *“Tricky question. So habe ich da noch nie drüber nachgedacht. Ich kann mir vorstellen, dass man sagt, ja, wir können darüber mal sprechen. Wie kann man das, wann nutzen und kleine Konzepte entwickeln? Das aber wirklich nur als absolutes kleines Scaffolding oder in den Gruppen, in denen es nicht anders geht. Also Sie merken, mir widerstrebt das total. Im bilingualen Unterricht arbeiten wir an diesen Konzepten, da überlegen wir ziemlich genau, wann wird was eingesetzt? Aber das ist ja auch eine ganz andere Zielvorgabe.*

Da habe ich das Primat des Sachfaches, das ist was ganz anderes“ (Interview F12, pg. 6, ll. 178-187).

6.1.9. Teacher trainer opinion on learner L1 use

The next section shall look at teacher trainer opinion on learner L1 use. Some expressed the opinion that it is understandable that they switch whereas others state that it is important to counteract it.

6.1.9.1. Understandable

Teacher trainer F3 saw it as being an indication that the lessons were interesting and motivating because pupils clearly want to join in and express themselves. *“Ist aus meiner Sicht völlig verständlich, dass die Schülerinnen und Schüler das machen, weil es aus deren Sicht [...], wenn der Unterricht motivierend ist und es tatsächlich um die Sache geht und nicht so sehr jetzt irgendwelche sprachlichen Phänomene, wollen sie sich ja mitteilen und wollen über irgendwas sagen. Das geht dann in der Muttersprache einfach, in der L1 einfacher und von daher finde ich das völlig verständlich, dass die Schülerinnen und Schüler versuchen in der L1 zu antworten“ (Interview F3, pp. 2-3, ll. 62-67).* Teacher trainer F6 is of a similar opinion. *“Ich finde es aber eigentlich nicht schlimm, wenn Schüler es machen, wenn es darum geht, dass sie [...] sich beteiligen wollen am Unterricht und ich gehe davon aus, dass sie sich eigentlich immer Mühe geben und dann halt erst mal, dass die Vokabeln fehlen. Man würde unterscheiden, welche Schüler das sind und falls jemand es sehr gut kann, aber vielleicht gerade keine Lust hat sich da zu bemühen. Das ist was anderes, wo ich eher mal bitte, Englisch zu verwenden, als jemanden, der eher Schwierigkeiten hat und der sich nicht so häufig melden, sodass sie sich überhaupt in das Unterrichtsgeschehen miteinbringen“ (Interview F6, pg. 2, ll. 56-63).*

Some teacher trainers have a differentiated view depending on which age of pupils they are dealing with. *“Und dann in den anderen Phasen, gerade, wenn wir jetzt ein Plakat erstellen in der Fünf [...] brauchte man gar nicht erst zu hoffen, dass die 20 Minuten streng Englisch sprechen. [...] Steht ja auch in keinem Lehrplan. Also, das ist ja das Wichtige. Das ist das, was ich [...] den Referendarinnen und Referendaren auch zur Entlastung immer bewusst mache. Dass es in Gruppenarbeitsphasen [...] Ende der Klasse acht das*

angebahnt, gesetzt wird“ (Interview F8, pp. 2-3, ll. 59-65). A further differentiation is made by one teacher trainer who sees it as understandable that certain pupils will have great difficulties speaking English all the time. *“Aber ich glaube, es ist einfach nicht realistisch, [...] bei dem [...] Leistungsstand unserer Schüler, [...] da tatsächlich die Einsprachigkeit wirklich so einzufordern. Bei manchen Gruppen vielleicht noch, aber nicht bei allen“* (Interview F5, pg. 4, ll. 120-127).

6.1.9.2. Try to counteract it

Teacher trainers also see it as something that needs to be counteracted. The use of the L1 is seen by some as being predominantly negative. *“Also in den allermeisten Fällen tatsächlich negativ. Also immer da, wo sie nicht eigentlich es anders könnten oder es auch zumindest mit Paraphrasierung und so weiter könnten, sehe ich das negativ, weil für die Schüler gilt natürlich auch, je mehr Praxis sie bekommen, und wir geben ihnen ja so viel Zeit eben in Murmelphasen, im Schonraum, dieses, dass mehrere Leute gleichzeitig sprechen, damit sie Englisch sprechen und nicht, damit sie Deutsch sprechen. Also insofern sehe ich das unbedingt negativ“* (Interview F7, pg. 3, ll. 73-78). They then see it as being their job to reduce the amount of L1 spoken by the pupils. *“[...] das ist ja mein erzieherischer Job, das zu etablieren, dass die das nicht tun. Wenn ich nichts sagen würde, würden die das permanent tun. Dann würden die auch in der Oberstufe [...] entweder sagen: „Can I say that in German?“ Oder sie würden von vornherein mir auf Deutsch antworten. Also, es ist wichtig, einfach Rituale zu etablieren, dass ganz klar ist, sobald die in den Raum [gehen], eigentlich im Flur schon, dass ich die auf Englisch anspreche. Und dann, so ganz allmählich lassen sie sich drauf ein, und es muss Konsequenzen haben, wenn sie es nicht tun“* (Interview F8, pg. 3, ll. 86-92). In general, some teacher trainers want their learners to speak as much English as possible, which means the reduction of the L1 in lessons. *“Nein, [...] ich wünsche mir, dass sie das immer mehr abstellen können, einfach weil wir im Englischunterricht um Redeanlässe ringen und die Redeanlässe, die es gibt, die sollen dann auch bitte auf Englisch kommen“* (Interview F11, pg. 2, ll. 55-57).

6.1.10. School as language setting

The next set of codes summarise interview content pertaining to the subject of school as language setting. Here there are ideas of authenticity and well as school as a multilingual setting.

6.1.10.1. Authentic language setting

Interviewee F1 mentioned the aspect of native speakers as English language teachers and said that this creates a more authentic language setting, *“Wir haben natürlich auch Kollegen, die Native Speaker sind, insofern hat man da auch dann einen ganz authentischen Einsatz in einem nicht authentischen Umfeld, wenn wir Schule jetzt als künstliches Umfeld darstellen“* (Interview F1, pg. 1, ll. 23-25).

6.1.10.2. Multilingual setting

Teacher trainer F4 talks about the importance of honouring multilingualism in lessons and how this is often neglected at school. *“Es wäre schön, wenn dieser Aspekt Mehrsprachigkeit, also die Idee nicht nur Englisch lernen zu lernen, sondern auch andere Sprachen in ihrer Funktion, Bedeutung, in ihrer Reichweite schätzen zu lernen, einbezogen würde. Der kommt allerdings zu kurz. Also bleibt es jetzt, wenn man auf den Lehrplan guckt im Moment bei diesem Ziel Freude am Sprachenlernen und eben elementare, grundlegende Kenntnisse [zu] vermitteln, auf die die weiterführende Schule auch sehr gut aufbauen kann“* (Interview F4, pg. 7, ll. 218-223).

6.1.10.3. School languages (e.g. French, Latin etc.)

Many teacher trainers talked about the presence of other typical school languages, creating the potential for a multilingual environment in the English language classroom. Teacher trainer F6 saw other languages as not playing a significant role, but mentioned the school languages. *“Also, in Bezug auf die weiteren Fremdsprachen, also Latein, wenn es darum geht, Vokabeln zu erklären oder auch schon mal auf grammatikalische Phänomene zurück zu kommen. Eventuell auch Französisch, Spanisch, wenn da eben Parallelen zu entdecken sind. Ich habe relativ wenige Schüler mit Migrationshintergrund, in meiner Schule jetzt. Deswegen andere Sprachen spielen da eigentlich keine Rolle, oder eine ganz geringe Rolle“* (Interview F6, pg. 4, ll. 115-119).

Interviewee F10 talks of integrating other foreign languages learned at school when doing vocabulary work. *“Französisch, Lateinisch, Spanisch. Ja, ich weiß nicht, das fängt an bei so historischen Geschichten. Wir hatten ganz kurz über den Norman Conquest gesprochen. Und dann schaut man sich eine englische Speisekarte an und da steht dann Beef und Mutton und so weiter drauf und dann sind da welche, die haben Französisch gelernt und aha, man isst gut in Frankreich, und das ist natürlich auch eine Zuschreibung. Aber das assoziieren wir natürlich. Und dann kommen mal Begriffe fürs Essen [...] aus dem Französischen. Oder, ja, es gibt ja ganz viele Wörter, die die tatsächlich aus anderen Sprachen schon kennen, aus dem Lateinischen oder aus dem Französischen, und das kann man dann auch ganz gut nutzen [...]. Im Englischen das Wort „feast“ zum Beispiel hat ja eine andere Bedeutung als bei uns das Fest. Aber das kommt ja alles daher und im Französischen „la fête“ und „la fiesta“. [...] Die lernen ja auch mehrere Sprachen und haben dann ein Wort gelernt, aber das ist schon vielseitiger einsetzbar“* (Interview F10, pg. 7, ll. 214-226). Teacher trainer F11 expresses her interest in using other modern foreign languages to help learners make use of all their linguistic resources. *“Und ich wünsche mir, dass die Schülerinnen und Schüler an der Stelle merken, dass sie Ressourcen haben, aus denen sie schöpfen können“* (Interview F11, pg. 4, ll. 106-108).

6.1.10.4. Heritage languages (e.g. Turkish, Arabic, Polish etc.)

Heritage languages are often mentioned as being of significance for many pupils but that when so many are in one classroom it is difficult to involve all of them. *“Ich habe einen Leistungskurs, da haben von 22 [SchülerInnen] 15 einen Migrationshintergrund, aber [...] es sind höchstens mal zwei, drei, die aus dem gleichen Sprachraum kommen, sondern, das ist chinesisches, albanisch, kroatisch, bosnisch, polnisch, rumänisch, marokkanisch, türkisch-, das ist ja das eher Gängige, was man hier hat, griechisch, französisch, also die Bandbreite. Da spielt das weniger eine Rolle, weil es einfach so wild durcheinander ist. [...] manchmal war es auch etwas homogener, dann eher der türkische und marokkanische Sprachraum, da kann man das vielleicht aufgreifen, dass man sagt: So, wie ist das denn?“* (Interview F8, pg. 8, ll. 255-261).

Moreover, it is recognised by many of the teacher trainers as a particular challenge because they do not speak these languages. *“Man hat natürlich jetzt*

in der heutigen Gesellschaft in den meisten Schulen, Schüler mit unterschiedlichen Herkunftssprachen, die ich meistens nicht beherrsche. Ich versuche aber, wenn ich jetzt das Prinzip der muttersprachlichen Spiegelung zum Beispiel einsetze, dann auch durch Nachfragen herauszubekommen, ob vielleicht in den Herkunftssprachen der Schülerinnen und Schüler Phänomene anders dann gespiegelt werden, oder ob irgendwelche Strukturen vielleicht ähnlich sind und ob das helfen könnte, die Strukturen in der englischen Sprache zu verstehen. Aber bei den Herkunftssprachen meiner Schülerinnen und Schüler, bringt mich das meist, oder bringt das die Schüler meistens auch nicht viel weiter, weil ich die Herkunftssprachen nicht beherrsche. Also ich kann jetzt auch nicht dann irgendwie gut analysieren, ob jetzt eine englische Struktur einer arabischen vielleicht ähnlicher ist als einer deutschen“ (Interview F3, pg. 5, ll. 144-154).

Sometimes the pupils draw parallels between their heritage language and English themselves. *“Wenn ein neuer Wortschatz genannt wird, vor allen Dingen, dann sagen mir Schüler: „Ach, das heißt auf Türkisch das und das, das habe ich sofort verstanden.“ Also [...] so positiv besetzt. [...] also erstmal finde ich das toll, dass sie das merken und dann finde ich, gehört dann da auch eine Wertschätzung hin“ (Interview F11, pg. 4, ll. 115-118).* Teacher trainer F5 talked about her experience with a new girl in the class who could speak quite good English but no German. *“Und dann war das ja ganz spannend, wenn es Aufgaben im Englischbuch gab, zum Beispiel, da gab es auch diese Aufgabe zum Thema Worterschließung, dann hatte sie sich gemeldet und gesagt, ich kann die Aufgabe nicht lösen. Aber nicht weil sie das Englisch nicht verstand, sondern weil diese Aufgabe im Englischbuch Deutsch erforderte. Ja, das ist schon [ein] ganz interessantes Thema, was man mit all den Sprachen im Klassenraum macht“ (Interview F5, pp. 9-10, ll. 298-303).*

Interviewee F4 talks about incorporating cultural aspects of heritage languages into the classroom. *“Dann [...] finde ich schön, das Thema Markt oder Märkte als ein Thema [...] in verschiedenen Sprachen zu behandeln. Wo man sich über das Konzept Markt unterhält, was ja in den unterschiedlichen Kulturen unterschiedliche Bedeutung hat und dann vielleicht auch mal einzelne Obst- und Gemüsesorten zu benennen und zu sagen, wer da einkauft. Um*

einfach auch mal den Klang einer anderen Sprache zu hören und da der Sprache Wertschätzung entgegen zu bringen“ (Interview F4, pg. 8, ll. 232-238).

6.1.11. Goals of English language teaching

The final section will look at codes surrounding the topic of the goals of English language teaching and learning.

6.1.11.1. Intercultural competences

The most commonly mentioned goal of English language teaching was the teaching and fostering of intercultural competences. This was summarised in a very similar way by the teacher trainers. *“Ja, das ist jetzt so typisch Fachleiterspruch, aber interkulturelle Handlungsfähigkeit oder Handlungskompetenz, das liegt mir auch persönlich am Herzen, weil ich glaube, dass das früher tatsächlich eher eine Wissensvermittlung war, also Wissen über Sprache, Grammatikregeln explizit, also so deklaratives Wissen und auch Landeskundewissen über ein Land, was ja auch nicht schadet. Aber durch diesen interkulturellen Aspekt ist natürlich eine ganz neue Perspektive hinzugekommen, die ich auch total wichtig finde. Weil Kultur sich durch die Sprache vermittelt und ja, weil die ja auch mit sehr vielen Zielkulturen dann in Kontakt kommen sollen [...] Aber diese Fähigkeit, in fremdsprachlichen Kontexten zu handeln und dabei auch zu schauen, mit welchen Kulturvertreterinnen und -vertretern habe ich es jetzt eigentlich zu tun und auch in dem Bewusstsein zu handeln, dass mein eigenes Handeln kulturell bedingt ist und dass ich mir vielleicht nicht anmaßen kann, alles zu verstehen“ (Interview F10, pp. 6-7, ll. 191-202).*

6.1.11.2. English as a global language

A further aspect mentioned by several teacher trainers was that of the goal of teaching English as a global language. *“Was sich auch geändert hat, ist so dieser Fokus weg von den englischsprachigen Zielkulturen. Also, dieses, dass Englisch nicht nur, „speaking with the Native Speaker“, sondern auch [...] Englisch als Verkehrssprache [...] als globale Sprache. Das hat sich sichtlich auch nochmal geändert“ (Interview F9, pg. 5, ll. 152-155).* Moreover, the expansion of what is thought of as an English speaking country and fostering an awareness for this was touched upon. *“Es gibt eine Akzeptanz von absolut*

unterschiedlichen Englishes. Wenn ich an indisches Englisch denke, afrikanisches Englisch und so weiter, australisches. Genau, schwer zu verstehen, aber alles ist akzeptiert und sehr variantenreich. Ja? Und darüber bin ich unglaublich froh. Das ist viel, viel offener geworden und dieses Fach finde ich versteht sich vielmehr mittlerweile als Mittler in Kulturen und nicht nur als das Fach“ (Interview F12, pg. 6, ll. 101-106).

6.2. Teacher trainees

The following part of the thesis shall present the results of the 12 interviews conducted with teacher trainees or newly qualified teachers of English.

6.2.1. Reasons for L2 use

The first section shall present interview content concerning reasons for L2 use in the English language classroom.

6.2.1.1. Linguistic role model

Two teacher trainees mentioned the point of feeling the responsibility to be a linguistic role model for the English language when teaching learners. *“Dass, wenn man, gerade in einer fünften Klasse startet, es ja auch darum geht, dass man ein Sprachvorbild ist und dass es deswegen auch sehr wichtig ist, dass man halt wirklich sehr, sehr viel in der englischen Sprache ist“ (Interview R12, pg. 2, ll. 35-37).* In addition, interviewee R6 believes it is important to set an example to the pupils by consistently using the L2 in lessons. *“Also mir war es schon sehr wichtig, dass ich weiterhin die L2 als Unterrichtssprache behalte. Ich meine, ich bin ja auch Sprachvorbild und dann muss ich auch die L2 benutzen, das ist wichtig, dass ich sie benutze, denn welche Verbindlichkeit besteht denn, wenn ich die L1 benutze. [...] die Schüler sollen jetzt aber bitte in ihrer Gruppenarbeit auf Englisch sprechen“ (Interview R6, pg. 6, ll. 186-190).*

6.2.1.2. Input theories

Input theories were also mentioned as an argument for the teacher predominantly using the L2 in the English language classroom. *“Trotzdem sollte man als Lehrkraft, glaube ich, dieses Language Bath zur Verfügung stellen, also wenn die Schüler auch zwischendurch auf Deutsch sprechen, dass man dann trotzdem als Lehrkraft immer auf Englisch antwortet, oder denen so ein*

Language Bath mit ganz vielen Begriffen und Wörtern gibt, damit die halt so einen Input haben. Ich glaube das ist Krashen? Also der hat halt diese Input, Output Theory, wo er also, ich weiß nicht mehr genau, was er da gesagt hat, aber dass man sehr viel Input kriegt als Lerner und dadurch halt auch das Output dann produzieren kann. Was genau da war, weiß ich auch nicht mehr“ (Interview R9, pg. 1, ll. 30-37).

6.2.1.3. Developing strategies for understanding

A further argument given in support of exclusive L2 use in the foreign language classroom was to foster the development of certain strategies to help learners in situations where they are to use the new language. *“Ich würde jetzt persönlich sagen, damit die Schüler es lernen, eben, in Situationen auch was zu umschreiben, wenn sie etwas nicht sagen können. Denn wenn sie im Ausland wären, könnten sie es auch nicht mal eben in einer anderen Sprache übersetzen“ (Interview R11, pg. 1, ll. 14-16).*

6.2.1.4. General avoidance of the L1

A few of the teacher trainees could not articulate exactly why the L2 should be used exclusively but they had a vague feeling that it should be done. *“Also ich kenne welche aus dem Studium. Aber ich würde das jetzt bestimmt alles durcheinanderwerfen, die Namen und so. Aber, ja, da gibt es ja verschiedene Theorien. Also [...] es gibt ja so welche, die besagen, dass es total schlecht ist, überhaupt die L1 zu benutzen im Englischunterricht. Also dass man das auf jeden Fall vermeiden soll, dass es halt, ja, also quasi, ja, einfach nicht sein soll“ (Interview R1, pg. 1, ll. 12-16).*

6.2.1.5. Monolingualism

Another argument that was named was to do with the primacy of monolingualism. *“Es gibt aber auch Leute, die dagegen sind, weil das, ja, quasi eine Verwirrung innerhalb des Gehirns auslösen könnte und dadurch [...] gibt es auch Theoretiker, die sagen: Nein, monolingual in der Sprache ist besser“ (Interview R10, pg. 1, ll. 16-19).*

6.2.2. Remaining in the L2

6.2.2.1. Desire to remain in the L2

The teacher trainees offer lots of insights into the extent to which they try to remain in the L2. On the whole, they are quite motivated to use as much English as possible in their lessons. *“Ich habe ein Hospitationspraktikum an einer anderen Schulform gemacht, und da hatte ich das Gefühl, dass bei zwei Lehrkräften, bei denen ich da mitgelaufen bin, viel mehr durchweg Deutsch gesprochen wurde, dass da die englische Sprache die Ausnahme war. [...] das hat mir nochmal vor Augen geführt, wie wichtig mir persönlich das doch ist, dass Englisch eben die Arbeitssprache ist und dass die Schülerinnen und Schüler auch von klein auf daran gewöhnt werden. Mir ist klar, dass das im fünften Schuljahr auch schwierig ist, weil die Sprachkenntnis der Schülerinnen und Schüler da noch so spärlich entwickelt ist, dass es auch für mich ziemlich schwer ist, meine Sprache so runterzubringen, dass sie von den Schülerinnen und Schülern verstanden wird. Aber das hat mir schon nochmal gezeigt, wie wichtig mir persönlich das ist, und wichtig da auch irgendwo Hartnäckigkeit ist und diese Ritualisierung da auch als Lehrkraft drauf zu achten, um auch vielleicht diese Sprachhemmungen irgendwo zu unterbinden und das etwas authentischer und natürlicher zu gestalten, dass im Englischunterricht Englisch als Arbeitssprache verwendet wird“* (Interview R5, pg. 5, ll. 145-167).

6.2.2.2. Strategies for remaining in the L2 learned through teacher training

A few teacher trainees talk about the importance of paraphrasing as a technique for remaining in the L2. *“Strategien würde ich sagen, also ich glaube, [...] Vielleicht so paraphrasieren würde helfen. Sachen in eigenen Worten nochmal sagen, Synonyme, Antonyme finden. Genau. Ich glaube, das wäre so das, was mir dazu einfällt an Strategien, die ich verwenden würde, um denen vielleicht auch schwierigere Wörter näherzubringen“* (Interview R4, pg. 8, ll. 247-251). Furthermore, interviewee R8 mentioned being taught how best to paraphrase. *“Also mir wurde vermittelt, dass es bei Umschreibungen von Wörtern wichtig ist, ja, sich möglichst gezielt auszudrücken, also möglichst knapp zu fassen und möglichst klar zu formulieren, dass ich nicht so viel um den heißen Brei herumrede, sondern dass ich klar mir vorher überlege, wie*

formuliere ich meine Umschreibung des Wortes und nicht dass ich dafür zehn Sätze verwende, sondern einen Satz“ (Interview R8, pg. 9, ll. 284-288).

Visual methods were often mentioned by the teacher trainees as a further supportive technique for the teacher's use of English. *“Und was halt viel geholfen hat, ist, dass man halt so ikonische Sprache auch verwendet. Also, dass man eben viel mit Bildern arbeitet. [...] Ich hatte in meiner Referendariatsschule den Vorteil, dass da halt die Smartboards sind, also das heißt, man konnte alles anwerfen, alles zeigen am Smartboard, und das habe ich dann einfach auch genutzt. Und wie man so schön sagt: „So ein Bild sagt manchmal mehr als 1000 Worte,“ weil man dann halt einfach, anstatt denen jetzt zu erklären, dass sie irgendwas runter schreiben müssen, dann so ein Icon für Schreiben verwendet und die das kennen“ (Interview R12, pg. 9, ll. 275-282).* Teacher trainee R8 talks of establishing symbols as a form of visual support which they consistently used on their worksheets. *“Also ich habe viel mit Symbolen zum Beispiel auf den Arbeitsblättern jetzt direkt viel mit Symbolen gearbeitet, das heißt, Lesen, dann habe ich da eine kleine Brille gehabt, Schreiben, einen kleinen Stift, arbeite mit einem Partner, zwei Menschen, also so Icons, die einfach neben diesem Arbeitsauftrag dann direkt standen, sodass ich das möglichst kurz und knapp formuliert habe [...]“ (Interview R8, pg. 9, ll. 292-296).*

The idea of using simple language, suitable for the level of English of the respective learners, was a further strategy. *“Also, dann braucht man auch gar nicht komplizierter irgendwie daherreden. Man muss es halt keep it simple. Man muss es halt einfach halten“ (Interview R12, pg. 9, ll. 283-284).* Trainee R5 describes in a bit more detail how that could be achieved. *“Ja, und wie gesagt, in meinem eigenen Sprachniveau mich auch der Schülersprache annähern, also gerade in den unteren Klassen mich verständlich auszudrücken, kurze Sätze, keine Schachtelsätze, die ja eh fürs Englische eher untypisch sind“ (Interview R5, pg. 11, ll. 357-360).* However, teacher trainee R11 recognises the difficulty in this. *“Wobei ich da trotzdem auch manchmal sagen muss, gerade bei den Kleinen fällt es mir manchmal wirklich auch schwer, das so einfach zu sagen. Da suche ich so nach ganz einfachen Wörtern, die die wahrscheinlich alle kennen und so. Aber es fällt mir dann schwer, das alles so runterzustufen alles“ (Interview R11, pg. 8, ll. 225-228).*

Finally, the same interviewee also mentions how they learned the importance of cooperation with other colleagues. *“Ich denke, es kommt auch, liegt auch ein bisschen daran, dass, wenn man mit der Fachschaft zusammensitzt, mit anderen Englischkollegen spricht und so, da es einfach klar ist, dass die viel Englisch sprechen sollen und dass man, also, dass ich so das Gefühl habe, man sollte wirklich nicht viel Deutsch da mit einfließen lassen. [...] auch so ein bisschen, dass ich auf deren Erfahrung gehört habe und jetzt deshalb eben noch mehr darauf achte. Ja“* (Interview R11, pg. 4, ll. 98-103).

6.2.2.3. Ways to get learners to remain in the L2

One aspect mentioned is that of encouraging the learners to speak English. *“Ja. Ich finde es aber schon sinnvoll, ich finde es aber schön, man muss sie ermutigen und auch zeigen: „Guck mal, das könnt ihr auch schon.“ [...] wenn die das merken, dann haben die auch mehr Lust auf Englisch zu reden und teilweise nach dem der Unterricht vorbei ist, reden sie auch weiter auf Englisch, oder wenn sie mich auf dem Flur sehen, reden sie auch mit mir auf Englisch“* (Interview R2, pg. 6, ll. 172-176).

An array of approaches are spoken about by the teacher trainees to help in encouraging the learners to speak as much English as possible. *“Um das zu vermeiden, habe ich eine Methode, die nennt sich bei mir Grumpy Cat, also das ist so eine einlaminierete Karte, die dann Schülerinnen und Schüler bekommen, wenn sie Deutsch sprechen, ohne vorher auch um Erlaubnis gefragt zu haben. [...] wer am Ende der Stunde diese Grumpy Cat hat, der muss am Anfang der nächsten Stunde den Stundeninhalt zusammenfassen“* (Interview R5, pg. 2, ll. 53-58), *“Ich habe in meiner siebten Klasse zum Beispiel [...] so eine Englisch-Karte so eingeführt, dass die dann alle auf Englisch sprechen müssen. Aber es gab dann keine Strafarbeit oder so, [...] also die mussten dann Kuchen backen, wenn die drei Mal so einen Strich bekommen haben am Ende der Stunde, dass sie auf Deutsch geredet haben“* (Interview R2, pg. 5, ll. 158-162), *“Aber ich habe so eine neue Regel bei den Älteren jetzt eingeführt, die haben immer so eine Flagge, eine Englandflagge, und wenn die auf Deutsch sprechen, also die erste Gruppe, die ich höre, kriegt die Flagge, und dann geht das immer so weiter. Also die geben das, wenn die jemanden anderes hören, der auf Deutsch gesprochen hat, [...] weiter. Am Ende der Stunde, derjenige, der die Flagge*

hat, muss eine Kurzpräsentation in der nächsten Stunde halten, und das bringt super viel, also bei den älteren Schülern“ (Interview R9, pg. 3, ll. 82-88).

Interviewee R12 had an approach which was decided upon with numerous English teachers at the school. *“Wir hatten dann uns mit mehreren Lehrerinnen darauf geeinigt, dass wir so etwas, wie eine Englisch Police machen, die dann halt, also, die wurden dann quasi verhaftet, wenn sie zu viel Deutsch gesprochen haben während Gruppenarbeitsphasen und mussten dann am Ende der Stunde eine kleine Präsentation über irgendein Thema halten“ (Interview R12, pg. 2, ll. 76-80).*

A technique for increasing the amount of English spoken by learners is to provide them with the necessary help and language-support. *“Grundsätzlich versuche ich die Schülerinnen und Schüler dazu anzuhalten, Englisch zu sprechen. [Ich] mache das aber schon auch auf individueller Basis. Wenn ich jetzt Schülerinnen und Schüler habe, die sich im Englischunterricht sehr zurückziehen und sehr wenig beteiligen, dann versuche ich die natürlich möglichst in den Unterricht zu integrieren, stelle auch sprachliche Hilfen zur Hand, zum Beispiel Scaffolding, Phrases und so weiter“ (Interview R5, pg. 3, ll. 75-80).* This was reiterated by teacher trainee R8. *„Wenn ihnen einzelne Wörter halt nicht bewusst sind oder sie sie nicht kennen, dann habe ich ja auch immer Wörterbücher, [...] wo sie dann nachschlagen können“ (Interview R8, pg. 3, ll. 73-75).*

6.2.2.4. Difficulties getting learners to remain in the L2

A few teacher trainees mention facing difficulties getting their pupils to remain in the L2 in English lessons. *“Am Ende des Schuljahres wurden die eh ein bisschen schwierig und dann wurde es nicht immer mehr so eingehalten. [...] ich war da nicht so streng damit, weil [es] sowieso auch andere Sachen zu tun [...] gab [...]. Dann habe ich das irgendwie nicht immer so im Blick gehabt“ (Interview R2, pg. 6, ll. 165-168).*

Interviewee R10 appears to still have lots of questions concerning the topic. *“Es sind ja so viele Sachen, hat man an der Uni gelernt, und dann lernt man Sachen im Referendariat. Mir fehlen aber trotzdem noch sehr viele Sachen. Das ist auch zum Beispiel was, das würde ich mir auch gerne nochmal irgendwie ein bisschen angucken, weil ich nämlich, wie gesagt, die Lösung*

nicht habe und ich das sehr, sehr schwierig finde, keine Hilfe zu geben in der Muttersprache. Aber dann, wenn ich sie gebe, wird sie ja anscheinend nicht so genutzt, wie ich es als sinnvoll finde und da die Balance zu finden irgendwie. Aber wie gesagt, ich finde das halt inkonsequent zu sagen: [...] Wenn ihr Probleme habt, dürft ihr Deutsch reden, und dann sage ich: Nein. Aber auch nur mit mir, in Gruppengesprächen zum Beispiel müssen die sich auseinandersetzen mit sich selber und ihren eigenen Problemen auf Englisch. Also das ist zum Beispiel was, das machen die auch. Das machen die, das schaffen die tatsächlich ganz gut. Aber dieses one on one, das haben die noch nicht so ganz so“ (Interview R10, pg. 3, ll. 84-95).

6.2.3. Reasons for teacher L1 use

The following section shall present the interview content from teacher trainees on the reasons teachers use the L1 in English lessons.

6.2.3.1. Explanation of grammatical phenomena

Teacher trainees mentioned this aspect very often. Some talk about how they themselves use the L1 when dealing with grammar topics. Teacher trainee R1 has a vague idea that this is an accepted approach. *“Ja, oder verschiedene andere Sachen, [...] manchmal wird ja auch gesagt, dass es besser ist, Grammatik auf Deutsch dann zu machen“* (Interview R1, pg. 1, ll. 19-20). Interviewee R10 was quite convinced that it was the best way to introduce grammatical topics. *“Okay, weil ne, wie gesagt, bei Grammatikeinführungen finde ich es halt schwachsinnig. Das geht halt nicht. Dann verlierst du die Leute halt direkt und deswegen, ja, das macht Sinn, das in Phasen einzuteilen und dann auch ganz transparent zu sagen: Okay, das machen wir jetzt“* (Interview R10, pg. 4, ll. 105-108).

Others see it as an option after attempts in the L2 have been exhausted. *“Aber an einigen Stellen, zum Beispiel Grammar, ich finde das ist oft so ein komplexes Thema. Ich mache es erst einmal immer auf Englisch, versuche das auch immer so induktiv zu machen, dass man Beispielssätze zum Beispiel hat und dann, dass sie selber auf die Regel kommen. Aber, um die Regel zu besprechen, da wird häufig die L1 benutzt, weil das oft so komplex ist, vor allem wenn man Unterschiede auch von verschiedenen Zeiten zeigen will. Wir haben jetzt gerade zum Beispiel Simple Present gemacht und jetzt haben wir Present*

Progressive, und die waren vollkommen durcheinander, was ist da so der Zusammenhang. [...] das habe ich zum Beispiel auf Deutsch gemacht, das fand ich auch nicht frustrierend. Das habe ich verstanden, ich fand es selber komplex damals als Schülerin. Und dann habe ich gesagt: Gut, mache ich auf Deutsch, das frustriert mich nicht“ (Interview R9, pg. 3, ll. 66-76).

Teacher trainee R5 observed this from other teachers. *“Bei Grammatik-Themen habe ich das schon mal beobachtet, dass da gewechselt wird. Was ich auch beobachtet habe, und das fand ich jetzt nicht so schlecht, [...] dass man die Grammatik auf Englisch komplett einführt und dann die Grammatikseite im Buch aufschlägt, die wiederum zweisprachig gestaltet ist und die dann nochmal zweisprachig mit den Schülerinnen und Schülern durchspricht, das habe ich schon mal beobachtet. Das war dann so eine Art Verständnissicherung der Grammatikeinführung. Ich kann mir vorstellen, dass das funktional ist, dass man da nochmal sagt so, das sehen wir jetzt hier nochmal erklärt, schaut das haben wir uns gerade erarbeitet“ (Interview R5, pg. 9, ll. 286-294).*

6.2.3.2. Organisational matters

Organisational matters was also mentioned as a common reason to switch to the L1. *“Also Verständnisprobleme und, wozu noch, zur Klärung von so, ja, außerunterrichtlichen Dingen, das heißt, wenn jetzt zum Beispiel ein Schulfest anstand oder irgendwie ein Schüler xy in der fünften Stunde die Klasse wechseln sollte oder, oder, oder, solche, also so Dinge, die eher organisatorisch waren. Oder es musste ein neues Buch angeschafft werden oder eine Lektüre oder, um einfach sicherzustellen, dass es alle mitbekommen haben und jeder [es] verstanden hat“ (Interview R8, pg. 8, ll. 235-240).*

Teacher trainee R6 says they would differentiate between classes and see whether they can understand such things in the L2. *“Ja, und zwar man muss das natürlich auf die Schüler anpassen. Es gibt Schüler und Lerngruppen, da ist der Gebrauch der Zielsprache generell kein Problem. Aber es gibt einfach auch Lerngruppen, da werden einzelne Schüler nicht verstehen, was man in der Zielsprache sagt. Da muss man mit der L1 anfangen, einfach um sicherzugehen, dass die zum richtigen Zeitpunkt im richtigen Raum für die Klausur sind. Das wäre natürlich wünschenswert, wenn man da nicht unbedingt*

immer alles irgendwie auf Deutsch sagen müsste“ (Interview R6, pg. 2, ll. 43-48).

6.2.3.3. Convenience

A few teacher trainees mention switching languages because it is more convenient. Some mention this aspect in general. *“Ja und manchmal glaube ich auch wirklich einfach, weil es bequemer ist. Weil es bequemer ist, nicht zu überlegen, wie heißt das jetzt auf Englisch, ja“ (Interview R11, pg. 6, ll. 163-165).* Others say it more clearly directed at fellow teachers, distancing themselves from that aspect. *„[...] dann, dass ich das Gefühl hatte, dass es Manchen zu anstrengend ist, die ganze Zeit über Englisch zu sprechen. Das heißt, sie fallen immer wieder in die L1, weil es einfach einfacher ist, also so nach dem Motto: Ich mache mir das Leben schwer, wenn ich die ganze Zeit Englisch sprechen muss“ (Interview R8, pg. 5, ll. 142-146).* Teacher trainee R7 seems to also refer to themselves when talking about this aspect. *“Ich finde es nicht angemessen, L1 zu benutzen, es ist nur einfacher. Weil du nimmst dir was vor im Unterricht, dann willst du irgendwie durchkommen. Das ist oft eine Zeitfrage, das eben einfach dann schnell in Deutsch zu sagen, weil dann weiß man okay, das ist jetzt eigentlich gar nicht so wichtig, dass ich das auf Englisch sage, die sollen das dann einfach verstehen und dann kann ich hier weitermachen, das ist Bequemlichkeit auf jeden Fall“ (Interview R7, pg. 1, ll. 24-28).*

Interviewee R3 mentions laziness as a reason for L1 use by pupils. *“Wie gesagt, [bei] meine[n] Schüler[n] sehe ich meistens, dass es wirklich [...] ein bisschen so Faulheit ist, weil das nicht- Theoretisch sind die Sachen, die sie sagen auch Englisch ausdrückbar“ (Interview R3, pg. 2, ll. 47-49).*

6.2.3.4. Time management

Connected to the aspect of convenience, the L1 is often mentioned as a time-saving technique used by teachers. A few trainees mention it as being a reason that they switch languages. *“[...] manchmal könnte ich mir auch tatsächlich vorstellen, ja, so war es bei mir auch am Anfang [...] Es ist eine Zeitersparnis. Weil, du musst es dann nicht noch mal wiederholen lassen von jemand anderem, sondern du kannst dann sagen: „Hier. Ihr sollt das und das machen.“ Es ist eine Zeitersparnis, ja“ (Interview R11, pg. 4, ll. 115-118).*

Interviewee R2 talks about the problem of lack of time in general for teachers. *“Dann kann man auch schneller weiter machen, wenn man das schnell auf Deutsch klären [kann] und dann hat man auch mehr [...] Zeit danach, das weiter zu machen. [...] Ich glaube schon, wenn man mehr Zeit hat, man hat natürlich im Alltag nicht immer so viel Zeit“* (Interview R2, pg. 5, ll. 128-142). The same interviewee continued this thought at another part of the interview, being somewhat critical of their own use of the L1. *“Manchmal ist es von mir vielleicht auch so ein bisschen, nicht Faulheit, aber es ist manchmal einfacher Sachen schnell, also aus Zeitgründen teilweise auf Deutsch zu besprechen, oder zu erklären“* (Interview R2, pg. 7, ll. 202-204).

6.2.3.5. Lack of English language skills

Teachers' lack of English language skills is mentioned as a potential reason for them switching to the L1. This is something that is said in reference to other teachers and not themselves. Teacher trainee R8 talks about lessons they have observed by colleagues who had not studied English. *“Also ich habe jetzt im Referendariat und auch in meiner Vertretungsstelle jetzt im Anschluss auch ein paar Englischunterrichte mir angucken können und habe teilweise gemerkt, dass es oft Lehrer sind, die fachfremd das Fach unterrichten, selber einfach zu schlecht Englisch sprechen, dafür dass sie das selber ja durchziehen können, die ganze Stunde über Englisch zu sprechen, also einmal das Fehlen der fachlichen Kompetenz einfach der Grund ist [...]“* (Interview R8, pg. 5, ll. 138-142).

Interviewee R12 talks about the lack of time abroad as perhaps playing a role. *“Ich glaube, wenn sie es viel verwenden, weil sie unsicher sind. [...] wenn man zum Beispiel vielleicht jetzt kein Auslandsaufenthalt hatte, oder wenn man sich sonst in seiner Freizeit glaube ich nicht viel mit der Sprache auseinandersetzt, die man da studiert hat, dann, ja, glaube ich, ist so diese gewisse Unsicherheit da und dann lässt man sich vielleicht auch eher dann dazu verleiten“*. They go on to say how this was also the case for them, but how they have worked to counteract this lack of language experience in an English speaking country. *“Also, ich muss da auch immer an mir arbeiten, weil, ich habe zum Beispiel jetzt auch keinen Auslandsaufenthalt oder so während meines Studiums oder [der] Schulzeit gemacht. Und ich mache das ebenso, indem ich halt in meiner Freizeit wirklich sehr, sehr viel Englisch einfach lese und auch*

gucke. Also, ich gucke eigentlich alles, was ich mir angucke, Gott sei Dank ist das ja mittlerweile auch viel, viel einfacher, wirklich auf Englisch, alle Serien, alle Filme auf Englisch. Ich kaufe mir eigentlich nur noch Bücher auf Englisch, damit ich ebenso da halt einfach besser reinkomme. Damit ich das halt einfach dann auch wirklich vor den Schülern und Schülerinnen halt, eben nicht diese Unsicherheit habe. Aber ich glaube, wenn man das nicht macht, dann könnte ich mir schon gut vorstellen, dass da so eine gewisse Unsicherheit da ist und dass das dann eher dazu verleitet“ (Interview R12, pg. 6, ll. 175-188).

6.2.3.6. Giving task instructions

A few teacher trainees talk about using the L1 for the purpose of giving task instructions. Teacher trainee R8 talks of how they observed this sometimes in lessons. *“[...] meistens ging es um Verständnisprobleme oder, ja, um sicherzugehen, dass irgendwelche Inhalte verstanden werden. Arbeitsanweisungen oft und gerade in den niedrigeren Klassen, was Englisch, ja auf Englisch erklärt wurde und die Schüler haben es auf Deutsch wiedergegeben, was ja auch in Ordnung ist. Aber, dass teilweise von vornherein die Arbeitsanweisung auf Deutsch von den Lehrern schon erklärt wurde und nicht von den Schülern auf Deutsch wiedergegeben werden musste, so wie es sonst öfter der Fall ist“ (Interview R8, pg. 8, ll. 230-235).*

Interviewee R6 talks about it being a strategy they use, *“An einem Arbeitsauftrag zum Beispiel sagen wir, man hat den Auftragsauftrag gestellt und fragt die Schüler auf Englisch, so, was solltet ihr jetzt machen, die geben einem was zurück und das ist Mumpitz, dann wird in der Regel nochmal auf Deutsch geklärt: „So das war jetzt aber echt nicht richtig, so das und das“, weil sonst lässt man die Schüler, gerade bei einer längeren Arbeitsphase, doch ein Stück weit in die falsche Richtung arbeiten“ (Interview R6, pp. 9-10, ll. 305-310).*

6.2.3.7. Discipline

The L1 is often mentioned as the language of choice in situations where pupils misbehave. Some talk about observing this in lessons they have seen. *“[...] bei disziplinarischen Dingen, das habe ich auch in Hospitationen beobachten können, dass [...] häufig dann auf Deutsch zurückgeswitcht wird, vielleicht weil auch der Lehrperson die sprachlichen Mittel fehlen, um*

Enttäuschungen oder Ärger vernünftig oder angemessen auf Englisch kommunizieren zu können“ (Interview R5, pg. 6, ll. 186-190).

For some it sounds like a conscious decision made, to switch to the L1 for disciplinary matters. *“Bei mir findet das dann statt, wenn ich irgendwelche Maßnahmen durchführe [...] Also, es kommt häufig tatsächlich in Störsituationen vor. Gerade auch bei den jüngeren Schülerinnen und Schülern, weil ich das Gefühl habe, die verstehen mich sonst nicht. [...] das ist etwas, das ist mir sehr wichtig, dass die sich, ja, gewissermaßen verhalten, richtig verhalten. Wenn sie das nicht machen, dann sage ich es auch auf Deutsch“ (Interview R11, pg. 1, ll. 22-26).* At another point in the interview, the same interviewee refers again to this aspect and how it is often a spontaneous reaction. *“Das wäre bei mir, gerade dann auch der Fall, wenn mich in diesem Moment was aufregt oder so, dann ist es natürlicher, wenn man dann auf Deutsch sagt: „Lass es!“ Und: „Denke doch mal an unsere Regeln.“ [...] Dann, weil sie gehört werden wollen und verstanden werden wollen, denke ich. Das ist ein großer Punkt“ (Interview R11, pg. 4, ll. 111-115).*

Interviewee R5 mentioned factor is using the L1 for giving feedback to individual pupils regarding their behaviour in class. *“Manchmal in Zweiergesprächen [...] Aber das geht so in Richtung disziplinarische Probleme, weil diese Zweiergespräche sich häufig auf das Verhalten der Schülerinnen und Schüler bezogen, dass dann gesagt wird du, das ist nicht in Ordnung“ (Interview R5, pg. 9, ll. 234-236).*

Teacher trainee R6 describes the difficulty of remaining in the L2 if a pupil is disturbing the class using the L1. *“Und Disziplinarprobleme. Also ich würde sagen, an manchen Stellen, wo eben auch die Schüler schon zum Beispiel lautstark auf Deutsch dran waren, oder auch auf Deutsch irgendetwas reingerufen haben, da ging es dann auch manchmal auf Deutsch zurück. [...] Naja, wie gesagt, diese Situation der L2 ist dann ohnehin gebrochen, wenn da irgendein Schüler was Deutsches reinruft, dann ist eh klar, okay, wir sind jetzt nicht mehr in diesem Sprachumfeld L2 [...] Das muss man sich dann überlegen, ob man in der L1 oder L2 antworten möchte, aber das ist eben eine Situation, in der ich es durchaus beobachten konnte, dass dann eher in der L1 geantwortet wird“ (Interview R6, pg. 10, ll. 310-318).*

6.2.3.8. Student-teacher relationship

A small number of teacher trainees talk about the use of the L1 as supporting student-teacher relationships. Interviewee R2 mentions supporting a pupil if they are emotionally distressed. *“[...] wenn es eher um die persönliche Beziehung geht und nicht konkret um den Inhalt der Stunde, genau, wenn zum Beispiel ein Schüler traurig ist oder irgendwie sowas“* (Interview R2, pg. 1, ll. 19-21). Referring to younger classes, interviewee R6 feels that the L1 is important at the beginning of their time at a new school. *“Und bei manchen Schülern führt der Gebrauch der L1 zu einem ganz großen Stück Sicherheit und Verbindlichkeit“* (Interview R6, pg. 2, ll. 51-53).

6.2.3.9. To discuss important topics

Discussing important topics was mentioned relatively often as a reason for switching to the L1 during English lessons. One aspect was talking about problems concerning grades and not being able to successfully complete school. *“[...] erzieherische Sachen, Fehlstunden. Wenn die unentschuldigt sind, wenn es auch wirklich um Dinge geht, wo ja auch die Schulkarriere in Gefahr sein kann. Also ich habe jetzt viel in der EF unterrichtet, und da geht es ja um Abschlüsse und da muss der Schüler einfach auch in der L1 darüber unterrichtet werden darüber, das geht jetzt auf dem Monitum zu. Also in der Regel, in solchen Fällen dann durchaus, weil ich ja auch eine gewisse Rechtssicherheit haben will“* (Interview R6, pg. 2, ll. 59-65).

A further aspect was that of exams. *“Und tatsächlich in so Situationen, wo es eher umso organisatorische Dinge geht, wie Klassenarbeiten, wo ich sichergehen möchte, dass sich jeder jetzt wirklich den Termin notiert hat oder jeder den Raum, wenn es einen Raumwechsel gibt oder so, dass ich das natürlich erst mal auf Englisch, aber dann, um sicherzugehen, dass es wirklich alle verstanden haben, dann auch noch mal in der L1 hinterherschleibe“* (Interview R8, pg. 2, ll. 38-42).

6.2.3.10. Lack of learner understanding

Frequently mentioned was switching into the L1 because of pupils' lack of understanding. Interviewee R9 talks about this being more so the case with younger learners. *“Also ich merke das bei den jüngeren Schülern vor allem,*

also da ist auch hauptsächlich wo ich am meisten die deutsche Sprache auch einsetzen muss, dass die häufig Sachen einfach nicht verstehen. Wenn ich denen auch dieses Language Bath zur Verfügung stelle, die verstehen es einfach nicht. Und dann sind die: „Hä, was und habe ich jetzt nicht verstanden“. Manchmal bittest du sie nur einfach das Schulbuch rauszuholen, da frage ich erst einmal die Schüler, ob jemand anderes es kurz erklären kann auf Englisch, wenn das nicht klappt, dann machen sie es auf Deutsch, wenn sie es aber auch nicht verstanden haben, die anderen Schüler, dann switche ich manchmal [...] ins Deutsche, genau“ (Interview R9, pg. 2, ll. 42-50).

Teacher trainee R4 also talks about using the L1 as a last resort when there are considerable difficulties in getting the pupils to understand. *„Ich würde die L1 einsetzen, wenn ich merke, dass jemand etwas überhaupt gar nicht versteht. Also nachdem ich es vielleicht zuerst einmal auf Englisch für die ganze Klasse erklärt habe, die Übungen machen dahingehend und ich dann aber merke, da sind kolossale Verständnisprobleme. Also dann würde ich immer in die L1 nochmal switchen, um halt denen das verständlich zu machen“* (Interview R4, pp. 1-2, ll. 29-34). Some talk about this aspect in relation to what they have observed from other teachers. *„Ich glaube, weil sie das Gefühl hatte, dass die Schüler und Schülerinnen sie dann nicht verstehen und sie glaube ich dieses „Hä“ dann auch verunsichert und irritiert hat. Das muss man auch aushalten können“* (Interview R12, pg. 8, ll. 265-267).

6.2.3.11. Underestimating learners' understanding

Two teacher trainees state how teachers tend to underestimate how much their pupils actually understand. *„Und dass sie den Schülern vielleicht auch zu wenig zutrauen. Also dass sie einfach gesagt haben: Ja, das verstehen die auf Englisch eh nicht, ich brauche es gar nicht erst versuchen, ich versuche es auch erst gar nicht, ich mache [es] direkt auf Deutsch, damit ich sichergehen kann, dass sie es verstanden haben. Also das gar nicht so herausfordern oder von den Schülern fordern, dass sie sich mal, ja, ausprobieren sollen und mal versuchen, alles aus sich rauszuholen, was sie schon können, also dass eigentlich so, ja, denen weniger zugetraut wird, als sie können“* (Interview R8, pg. 5, ll. 146-152).

Interviewee R9 said that she taught in the same class as a teacher who spoke a lot of German and found that the pupils could understand her well. *“Also ich glaube die unterschätzen ihre Schüler total. Also einige Klassen, wo ich selber unterrichtet habe, wo ich so ältere Klassen, siebte, achte, wo ich unter Anleitung [unterrichtet habe], habe ich Englisch gesprochen und die haben mich super verstanden. Dann habe ich die Lehrkraft wieder gesehen, wo ich gesehen habe, okay die spricht größtenteils Deutsch, was ich nicht verstanden habe. Also ich glaube wirklich, einige Lehrer unterschätzen ihre Schüler“* (Interview R9, pg. 5, ll. 160-164).

6.2.3.12. Meeting individual learners‘ needs

Interviewee R10 mentions seeing which pupils need extra help and using the L1 in these circumstances. *“Aber sehr viele haben da extreme Probleme und wenn man dann zwischendurch mal auf Deutsch was erklärt für die Leute, auch unter vier Augen meistens, ist das dann so, dass sie dann wieder Anschluss finden können anstatt die ganze Stunde immer weiter im Dunkeln zu tappen [...] das unterscheide ich halt so ein bisschen nach Bedarf der einzelnen Personen, aber halt auch nach Alter, weil die halt in der Unterstufe eher dann noch mehr Probleme haben als in der Oberstufe“* (Interview R10, pp, 1-2, ll. 27-37).

Teacher trainee R12 says how they have classes with special needs pupils and that here the L1 is used more readily. *“Wobei mir auch aufgefallen ist, dass ich in Klassen, wo inklusive Kinder sind auch schneller dazu neige, dann gerade so Übersetzungssachen zu machen. Dann meistens, dass die starken Kinder dann noch mal das wiederholen und wenn die starken Kinder gerade nicht da sind, dass ich dann halt selber auch zur L1 greife“* (Interview R12, pg. 2, ll. 52-56).

6.2.3.13. General classroom discourse

Trainee R3 gave an example of a switch to the L1 which represents spontaneous discourse in the classroom. *“Irgendein Kind hat irgendwas gefragt und die Lehrerin hat auf Deutsch geantwortet, weil die Frage auf Deutsch kam. Das war wahrscheinlich einfach nur gerade Lapsus“* (Interview R3, pg. 6, ll. 166-167).

6.2.3.14. Vocabulary explanations

Interviewee R9 felt that teachers they saw did not attempt to paraphrase. *“Die versuchen das selten zu paraphrasieren habe ich den Eindruck gehabt. Also jedenfalls ist es immer so ein Übersetzen, wortwörtliches Übersetzen und wenn er es nicht kennt, dann wird es auf Deutsch gesagt“* (Interview R9, pg. 7, ll. 217-220). Trainee R4 uses the L1 themself to help with vocabulary explanations. *“Und ich nutze manchmal die L1, wenn ich selbst gerade vielleicht kein Äquivalent habe, um es in der Fremdsprache mit einem Synonym auszudrücken, oder wenn es jetzt irgendwie eine schwierige Umschreibung ist, oder zum Beispiel [...] Konjunktionen oder so, wo es jetzt schwierig ist, denen das verständlich zu machen. Es ist schwieriger, eine Konjunktion zu erklären, als zum Beispiel jetzt ein Nomen oder ein Verb oder ein Adjektiv, oder wo es jetzt Antonyme gibt, Synonyme“* (Interview R4, pg. 2, ll. 35-42).

Interviewee R6 gives the example of drawing parallels between the languages. *“Und man kann auch manchmal auf Parallelen aufmerksam machen, man kann auch manchmal sagen: Okay, wir haben hier einen Ausdruck, der ist anders als im Deutschen oder der ist so ähnlich oder dieses und jenes Ding meint ungefähr dieses; oder es kann ja auch sein, wenn wir so Vokabeldinge machen, dass eben ein Begriff mehrere Übersetzungen hat. [...] ich mache jetzt auch Religion, aber wenn wir mal Himmel nehmen, dann ist das im Englischen Heaven und Sky und einfach ein Verständnis, dass es für dieses eine Wort im Deutschen im Englischen zwei Begriffe gibt, die jeweils unterschiedliche Teile unseres Konzeptes darstellen, das denke ich, ist schon wichtig“* (Interview R6, pg. 5, ll. 142-149).

Trainee R8 felt that use of the L1 was often the best way of getting the pupils to learn a new word. *“Und in den Situationen, wo es halt um die Klärung von Begriffen geht, die sie nicht kennen, finde ich es eigentlich mehr oder weniger akzeptabel, weil eben die Wörter nicht bekannt sind und es teilweise den Schülern auch einfach hilft, [...] die Vokabel sozusagen neu zu erlernen, anstatt eine Umschreibung von einem Wort neu zu erlernen, dass sie einfach wirklich wissen, Pferd ist Horse auf Englisch und können sich das so abspeichern und nicht diese Erklärung: “It is a brown animal with brown hair und tralalala“, sondern dass ich einfach ein Wort für das äquivalente deutsche Wort auf Englisch dann einfach habe“* (Interview R8, pg. 3, ll. 82-88).

6.2.3.15. Mediation tasks

Teacher trainee R3 mentions the use of the L1 as being central in mediation tasks. *“Und man hat Mediation. Das heißt, man hat ja an einigen Stellen wirklich sozusagen vom Kern der Planung oder von den Lehrbüchern und Lehrwerken vorgesehenen Wechsel der Sprachen“* (Interview R3, pg. 3, ll. 71-74).

6.2.3.16. Intercultural competences

Interviewee R1 mentions the use of the L1 for specifically fostering intercultural competences through getting to know about cultural aspects of language learning. *„Und dann aber auch, dass es bestimmte [...] Phasen gibt, wo es vielleicht auch gut ist, die L1 zu benutzen. Für, weiß ich nicht, wenn man jetzt irgendwie über kulturelle Sachen spricht oder so“* (Interview R1, pg. 1, ll. 16-19).

6.2.3.17. Lack of preparation

Some teacher trainees mention lack of preparation as leading to teachers using the L1 in English lessons. *“Da würde natürlich helfen, wenn man vorher seinen Unterricht so gut vorbereitet hat, dass man dann so irgendwelche Kärtchen hat, weil man ja weiß, ich will die und die Frage stellen, dass man da irgendwelches Scaffolding [einsetzt], aber das ist ja mit 28 Stunden nicht unbedingt machbar“* (Interview R7, pg. 2, ll. 38-41). Teacher trainee R2 expressed similar thoughts. *“Aber die Rahmenbedingungen sind nicht immer da, um das zu schaffen. Man hat nicht immer so viel Zeit, um alles vorzubereiten im Voraus“* (Interview R2, pg. 6, ll. 196-197).

6.2.3.18. Comparing languages

This was mentioned by a few teacher trainees. Interviewee R5 talks about using the L1 when it comes to pointing out common mistakes in the L2. *“Das kann man in Ausnahmefällen machen, gerade wenn es eben auch um den Sprachvergleich geht, wenn man sagt: „Achtung, Achtung, Fehler, hier gibt es eine große Fehlerquelle“. Ich habe das zum Beispiel bei der Einführung vom Will-Future gemacht, weil ich beobachtet habe, dass viele Schülerinnen und Schüler dann “I will“ für “Ich will“ sagen und da finde ich, bietet sich ein Sprachvergleich an, zu sagen: “Achtung, Achtung“, “I will“ heißt “Ich werde“, und “Ich möchte“ oder “Ich will“ heißt “I want to“, also um da ebenso einen False*

Friend auszuräumen. Das wäre eine Situation, an der ich sogar die Verwendung der L1, also von Deutsch, als notwendig erachte, weil das ein Fehler ist, der häufig passiert, und man da ebenso ein bisschen Aufmerksamkeit drauf lenken sollte, und das funktioniert nur, wenn man die L1 an der Stelle einbezieht“ (Interview R5, pp. 9-10, ll. 299-308).

Trainee R12 talks about more of a general use of the L1 when looking at similarities and differences between the L1 and L2. *“Dass [es] gerade in jüngeren Klassen von Vorteil sein kann, dass man dann doch die L1 benutzt und dann halt genaue Beispiele, am besten deutsche, wenn man jetzt zum Beispiel mit dem Englischen Deutsch und Englisch dann verbindet: Wo ist es gleich? Wo ist unterschiedlich? Aber das dann doch in der L1 Sprache macht“ (Interview R12, pg. 1, ll. 22-26).*

6.2.3.19. Humour

Teacher trainee R3 observed a joke made by a teacher in the L1. *“Und einmal tatsächlich ein Witz auf Deutsch gemacht“ (Interview R3, pg. 6, l. 167).*

6.2.3.20. Reflecting

Interviewee R1 talks about using the L1 for phases of reflection in their lessons. *“Und wofür ich es auch benutze, ist dann häufig am Ende der Stunde in den Reflexionsphasen, wenn man nochmal einfach den Unterricht, die Stunde reflektiert, also wie man einmal das Arbeiten [...] und dann aber auch, weiß ich nicht, welche neuen Sachen man gelernt hat oder was man irgendwie benutzt hat oder so“ (Interview R1, pp. 1-2, ll. 30-34).*

6.2.3.21. Personal conviction

A few teacher trainees mention switching to the L1 because they are personally convinced in that moment that it is the right use of language. Interviewee R1 mentions that they always find it better for certain select portions of the English lesson. *“Und dann denke ich aber auch, dass es halt auch so Gründe gibt, dass man sagt, okay, da kann man jetzt besser so reflektieren oder so. Das kann man besser auf Deutsch machen mit den Kindern“ (Interview R1, pg. 4, ll. 120-122).* Trainee R5 is also convinced of the value in its use. *“Ich finde es dann in Ordnung, wenn ich dieses Kommunikationsziel damit erreiche, und wenn ich*

das Gefühl habe, alles andere wäre wirklich viel zu umständlich. Ich versuche es ja erst auf Englisch, es ist ja nicht so, dass ich per se dann zur L1 wechsele, sondern erst nach mehreren Versuchen, etwas zu umschreiben, anders zu erklären, auch die Schüler etwas erklären zu lassen. Erst wenn ich dann das Gefühl habe, das wird immer noch nicht verstanden, dann sehe ich das auch als funktional an und bin da nicht kritisch mit mir selbst und finde das jetzt nicht verwerflich, in die L1 zu wechseln“ (Interview R5, pg. 2, ll. 38-44).

6.2.4. Reasons for learner L1 use

The following section shall present codes on the topic of L1 use by learners in the English language classroom and the reasons why they switch.

6.2.4.1. During cooperative learning

One of the most common reasons teacher trainees mentioned for learners switching to the L1 is during phases of working in groups or with a partner. *“Das ist vor allem in Gruppenarbeitsphasen und vor allem in freien Gruppenarbeitsphasen, also das merkt man sehr schnell, dass wenn man so standardisierte Sachen verlässt, also zum Beispiel so ein eins zu eins Gespräch wo sie genau wissen, was sie sagen müssen, also auf Englisch. Aber sobald es dann Arbeitsorganisation gibt, also so praktisch Metastrategien, da fangen sie an Deutsch zu wählen, also von wegen: “Du bist dran, eh das war aber falsch“. Das sind so ganz typische Stationen, weil sie dann einfach auf die einfache Sprache zurückfallen für sie“ (Interview R3, pg. 2, ll. 33-39).*

Interviewee R5 mentions the aspect of feeling unseen by the teachers. *“Außerdem, in Gruppenarbeiten, wenn ich als Lehrperson nicht direkt dahinterstehe, dann fällt mir auch auf, dass häufig in die L1 aus Bequemlichkeit vermute ich, zurückgewechselt wird oder auch aus Unsicherheit. Also wenn die Schüler sich unbeobachtet fühlen, dass in solchen Momenten dann zur L1 zurückgegriffen wird“ (Interview R5, pg. 2, ll. 50-53).*

Trainee R12 talks about the aspect of peer influence in groups and the effect that continual practise has. *“Ansonsten ist es halt einfach in der Gruppenarbeit, wenn einer anfängt, folgen die anderen [...] und wenn einer dann kontinuierlich Englisch spricht, folgen tatsächlich auch die anderen. [...] Da merkt man dann auch gerade bei so was, bei Gruppenarbeiten, wenn man eine gute*

Durchmischung hat, wenn man [ein] paar Starke eben in einer Gruppe dann hat, die sich dann vehement vielleicht an die Regel halten, dann folgen auch die anderen. [...] Da muss man dann aber wirklich am Anfang hinterher sein. [...] Ich habe so eine Klasse gesehen, die wirklich da vier Jahre lang drauf trainiert worden ist. Die reden kein einziges Wort mehr in Gruppenarbeiten in der L1, also das kommt überhaupt nicht mehr vor, da werden auch alle Fragen auf Englisch gestellt. Alles. Aber kontinuierlich. Die Lehrerin hatte das seit der fünften Klasse permanent eingeübt“ (Interview R12, pg. 3, ll. 82-92).

6.2.4.2. Lack of language skills

This is often spoken of as a reason for learners switching to the L1. Sometimes this happens for a single word in a sentence. *“Also wenn zum Beispiel wir Schüler haben, das machen wir sogar relativ oft im Unterricht, und denen fehlt ein bestimmter Begriff und die haben ihre Aussage soweit eigentlich geplant und sind schon mitten dabei, das zu äußern, aber ihnen fehlt plötzlich ein Begriff, sagen wir mal “Environment“, dann sagen die plötzlich: “We have to protect the...“, dann stoppen die kurz und plötzlich, Codeswitching, “...Umwelt“ (Interview R6, pg. 1, ll. 7-11). Trainee R11 reports something similar, saying that the pupils rarely try to paraphrase the word they do not know. “Und wenn sie eben ein bestimmtes Wort nicht kennen. Sie umschreiben das generell eher selten. Sie wissen dann schon, dass sie das eigentlich machen sollten, aber das fällt ihnen noch häufig schwer und dann nehmen sie einzelne Wörter und übersetzen die ins Deutsche“ (Interview R11, pg. 2, ll. 58-61).*

Other times it is more a general switch into the L1 because the learner does not know how to continue in the L2. *“Aber bei den schwächeren Schülern merkt man halt sehr sehr schnell, dass die das benutzen, weil sie halt gar nicht erst diesen Schritt machen, oder es irgendwie versuchen, das auf Englisch zusammenzubringen, weil es ist anstrengender und länger dauert“ (Interview R3, pg. 2, ll. 51-54). Interviewee R7 has sympathy for these pupils who have difficulties in learning English. “Also kommt immer drauf an, welche Schüler das sind. Wenn das jetzt schwache Schüler sind und die freuen sich darüber, dass sie gerade die Frage auf Englisch verstanden haben und sie möchten gerne was dazu sagen, dann kommt oft: “Kann ich das auch auf Deutsch sagen?“, weil sie sich nicht so fit fühlen, das selber auf Englisch sagen“ (Interview R7, pg. 2, ll. 35-38).*

6.2.4.3. Repeating task instructions

This was often mentioned as a reason for learner L1 use. Teacher trainee R1, who works with younger pupils, finds it acceptable that the learners switch to German if they do not know how to say what they want when repeating task instructions. *“Also damit auch alle dann das halt auch gesichert ist, vor allem bei Arbeitsanweisungen, dass alle Kinder verstanden haben, was zu tun ist, weil die oft noch ganz am Anfang des Lernprozesses sind und dann verstehen auch nicht alle gleich viel. [...] Manchmal erklären Kinder auch Sachen dann, und dann wird es auch manchmal so ein Gemisch aus Deutsch und Englisch, aber das finde ich auch vollkommen in Ordnung, wenn die dann halt so viel, wie sie schon können auf Englisch sagen und was nicht dann halt auf Deutsch sagen“* (Interview R1, pg. 2, ll. 49-55). Interviewee R12 makes use of more proficient learners to summarise for those who understand less. *“Mittlerweile mehr so, entweder dieses Sandwich Sprechen oder, dass ich eben Kindern, die stärker sind halt auch das mal alles zusammenfassen lasse in der L1“* (Interview R12, pg. 5, ll. 162-164).

6.2.4.4. Due to L1 setting

A few teacher trainees mention the surrounding L1 environment as playing a major role in learners tendency to switch into German. *“Ich finde aber generell, dass man, auch wenn man immer so authentische [...] Sprechsituationen verschaffen soll [...]. Das ist nie wirklich authentisch, man sitzt einfach in einem Klassenraum und sie können alle, oder also, 99 Prozent der Zeit reden die miteinander auf Deutsch, und dann ist das einfach ein bisschen konstruiert und man kann ja nicht ignorieren, dass die alle eher auf Deutsch sprechen und dass die auch alle Deutsch können“* (Interview R2, pg. 2, ll. 56-61). Trainee R5 has a very similar opinion. *“Ein anderer Grund dafür könnte sein, dass eben diese Sprechsituation sehr wenig authentisch ist, da wir nun mal alle oder sehr wenige jetzt Englisch als Muttersprache haben, und das ja schon ein künstliches Ambiente ist im Englischunterricht, wo natürlich alle wissen, dass das Kommunikationsziel könnte ich jetzt leichter auf Deutsch erreichen“* (Interview 5, pg. 3, ll. 69-73).

6.2.4.5. Intercultural competences

Teacher trainee R1, who works with younger learners, allows the learners to express themselves in the L1 when it comes to aspects of intercultural learning. *“Und auch wenn es halt wirklich auch interkulturelle Sachen gibt, was sie einfach noch nicht ausdrücken können auf Englisch, dass die dann auch die Möglichkeit bekommen, das auf Deutsch dann zu tun“* (Interview R1, pg. 3, ll. 81-83).

6.2.4.6. Private conversations

Teacher trainee R2 found it acceptable that pupils sometimes ask their fellow pupils for help with certain tasks in class. *“Ich finde es auch, aus meiner Erfahrung heraus als Schülerin, kann ich das gut nachvollziehen, dass manchmal, wenn jemand etwas nicht verstanden hat, man fragt ja nicht immer die Lehrerin oder den Lehrer, sondern du fragst halt deine Mitschülern und wenn das der Fall ist und da sprechen sie auch auf Deutsch, aber ich merke, dass sie sich gegenseitig auch was erklären oder so, finde ich auch völlig, völlig in Ordnung“* (Interview R2, pg. 2, ll. 43-48).

6.2.4.7. Pressure from peer-group

Finally, an aspect mentioned by only teacher trainee R5 was that learners may feel reluctant to speak English in front of their friends and peers. *“Und manchmal natürlich auch durch Hemmungen, vielleicht auch vor der Peer-Group Englisch zu sprechen, dass das auch so ein Faktor ist, der Schülerinnen und Schüler hemmt“* (Interview R5, pg. 3, ll. 73-75).

6.2.5. Role of the L1 and its effect

The next codes summarise the teacher trainees' feelings on the role of the L1 and what effect it has.

6.2.5.1. No/minimal role

Some teacher trainees believe the role of the L1 to be very small or non-existing. *“Also im Idealfall sollte sie keine große Rolle spielen, würde ich sagen, weil eben idealerweise im Englischunterricht im Raum ausschließlich Englisch gesprochen werden sollte und möglichst viel Englisch, die Schüler mit möglichst*

viel Englisch zu umgeben und möglichst viel der Sprache auszusetzen“ (Interview R8, pg. 3, ll. 95-98).

6.2.5.2. Supportive role

A number of teacher trainees stressed the supportive role the L1 can play in the English language classroom. *“Also es ist ja nicht [ein] markiertes Ziel, sondern das Werkzeug, um irgendwo hinzukommen. Ich würde es als so Shortcut oder Arbeitserleichterungsmittel ansehen“* (Interview R3, pg. 2, ll. 42-44). This notion was reiterated by teacher trainee R10. *“Also die ist für viele Schüler halt quasi Unterstützung, also [um] Verständnisprobleme zu klären, die auf sprachlicher Natur basieren, noch nicht mal, dass die irgendwas nicht verstehen, was inhaltlich angeht, sondern wirklich, dass die Sprache fehlt und dass die L1 darin helfen kann zu wissen, was man tun muss“* (Interview R10, pg. 4, ll. 117-120).

6.2.5.3. Existing linguistic system

A commonly mentioned aspect was the role of the L1 as the existing linguistic system available to the learners in the English language classroom. *“Also natürlich haben die Schüler immer auch so das Bedürfnis, eine gewisse Passung zu ihrer Muttersprache hinzubekommen oder zu ihrer L1, weil das das Sprachsystem ist, von dem sie ausgehen. Also es ist ja nicht so, dass wir die L2 im luftleeren Raum lernen, sondern wir haben da ja klare Bezüge, und zwar ich meine jetzt nicht False Friends, sondern einfach das ist das Sprachsystem, was die Schüler schon kennen“* (Interview R6 – 137-142). Interviewee R11 reported something similar. *„Ich würde sagen, die ist das Grundgerüst, an der sich auch eine neue Sprache orientiert. Also, wenn du ein Verständnis für eine bestimmte Sprache hast, [...] fällt es dir dann leichter, eben auch eine andere Sprache zu lernen“* (Interview R11 – 78-80).

Trainee R5 talks about how this existing linguistic system could be a potential source of mistakes and how it should be considered when teaching a new language. *“Ich glaube, dass wir ja im Aufbau einer Sprache ganz viele Fehler haben, die eben aus dieser L1 zu L2-Übergeneralisierung sozusagen entstehen. Also wenn ich jetzt [die Aussprache] zum Beispiel aus meiner L1 auf die L2 übertrage, dann entstehen in der L2 Fehler, oder grammatische Phänomene aus der L1 [in die] L2 übertrage, also Interference. Das muss ich*

natürlich als Lehrkraft wissen, dass das ein häufiges Muster ist bei Fehlern in der L2. Und dass eben im Aufbau dieser Interlanguage das häufig passiert, dass eben durch diese Interference-Fehler da was übertragen wird und beim Deutschen fällt mir das natürlich auf, wenn ich dann sehe, okay, da hat jemand die deutsche Aussprache aufs Englische übertragen, oder den deutschen Satzbau“ (Interview R5, pp. 3-4, ll. 93-101).

Interviewee R5 also talks about the existing linguistic system as being a potential source of learning for pupils when it comes to comparing and reflecting upon the languages. *“Ich glaube, dass bei Verständnisproblemen, und vielleicht auch um über Sprache zu sprechen. Es kann ja auch sein, das kriege ich als Lehrperson vielleicht gar nicht mit, dass in Gruppenarbeitsphasen auch gesagt wird: „ach überleg mal, das ist doch so wie im Deutschen“, oder dass gesagt wird: „Mensch, das ist ganz anders als in meiner L1 oder genauso wie in meiner L1“. [...] diese Sprachreflexion, die ja auch Bestandteil des Englischunterrichts und des Sprachunterrichts allgemein ist, die ist natürlich wertvoll auch für uns und die können wir auch gut im Unterricht thematisieren. Aber ich glaube, dass wir so an sich auf Sprachvergleiche auch gut nutzen können, um den Lernfortschritt zu fördern“ (Interview R5, pg. 4, ll. 113-121).*

6.2.5.4. Allowing learners to achieve a higher cognitive level

Numerous teacher trainees expressed sentiments pertaining to the notion of the L1 allowing learners to work at a higher cognitive level. *“Also kommt immer drauf an, welche Schüler das sind. Wenn das jetzt schwache Schüler sind und die freuen sich darüber, dass sie gerade die Frage auf Englisch verstanden haben und sie möchten gerne was dazu sagen, dann kommt oft: „kann ich das auch auf Deutsch sagen?“, weil sie sich nicht so fit fühlen, das selber auf Englisch sagen“ (Interview R7, pg. 2, ll. 35-38).* This idea was corroborated by other interviewees. *“Also zum einen sicherlich, dass die Schüler sich überhaupt ausdrücken können, so Verständnis, weil ich glaube [...] man kann ja auch nicht so viele Vokabeln aufnehmen, wie zum Beispiel jetzt so ein Kind, [das] L1 lernt und ich vermute, dass bei den jüngeren Schülern, die noch gar nicht so viele Vokabeln auf Englisch drauf haben. Das heißt, wenn so ein Code-Switch zwischendurch stattfindet, dient das sicherlich zur Verständigung, aber auch so ein bisschen zur Motivation, also was gleichzeitig auch zur Motivation führt überhaupt etwas zu sagen“ (R9, pg. 4, ll. 120-126).*

6.2.5.5. Counteracts fears

Trainee R6 talked about the role of the L1 in reducing learner fears. *“Das heißt natürlich wollen wir, dass die Schüler sich in Englisch äußern, aber Code-switching kann eben auch eine gewisse Angst nehmen, überhaupt sich zu äußern, weil sonst Schüler wirklich manchmal sehr still werden“* (Interview R6, pg. 2, ll. 36-38).

6.2.5.6. Enlightened monolingualism

A few trainees mentioned the role of the L1 within the language teaching methodology of enlightened monolingualism. *“Also auf didaktischer Ebene kenne ich den Begriff der aufgeklärten Einsprachigkeit, wo es eben darum geht, dass als Zielperspektive der möglichst durchgängige Gebrauch der Zielsprache eben angestrebt wird, aber gewisse Dinge, gerade wenn es um organisatorische Fragen geht, in der L1 trotzdem gemacht werden“* (Interview R6, pg. 1, ll. 17-20).

6.2.5.7. Multilingual understanding of language

Interviewee R10 mentions the notion of a multilingual understanding of language and the role the L1 plays within this. *“Also für [mich] ist [es] halt tatsächlich einfach multilinguales Verständnis von Sprache, dass Sprachen an sich klar verschiedene Systeme sind, aber Sprache halt quasi ein System ist und dadurch man von anderen auch was borgen kann und damit auch ja quasi [...] seine eigene Sprache kreiert [...]“* (Interview R10, pg. 1, ll. 12-16).

6.2.5.8. Interpersonal communicative role

Trainee R2 talks of the L1 as playing an important interpersonal communicative role between teacher and pupil and with fellow pupils. *“Ich finde oft so, ja in der Beziehung zu Schülern, also von meiner Seite zu Schülern, aber auch zwischen Schülern, finde ich die Muttersprache [...] spielt eine wichtige Rolle“* (Interview R2, pg. 3, ll. 76-80).

6.2.6. Problems of L1 use

The teacher trainees interviewed mentioned numerous potential problems in using the L1 in the English language classroom.

6.2.6.1. Impedes language learning

Many teacher trainees were of the opinion that overuse of the L1 can impede language learning success. Interviewee R1 speaks in general about the negative effects of using the L1 too often in the English language classroom. *“Also wenn man jetzt im Englischunterricht nur Deutsch redet, vor allem wenn die Lehrkraft auch nur Deutsch redet, dann ist es für die Kinder ja auch so, dass [...] Englisch dann gar nicht die Hauptsprache des Unterrichts ist und das sollte meines Erachtens schon so sein, weil dann wird ja gar nicht die Relevanz der Sprache so richtig anerkannt und dann sehen die Kinder das ja auch nicht dann ein, auf Englisch zu reden. Also wenn man zu viel Deutsch spricht und auch die Kinder alles nur auf Deutsch sagen lässt, denke ich schon, dass das einen negativen Effekt haben wird, dass sie dadurch halt weniger dann lernen“* (Interview R1, pp. 3-4 , ll. 94-101).

Interviewee R6 details an experience with a particular class at school. *“Also ich würde sagen, in einem, vielleicht sogar zwei Fällen in einer EF, die ich eine Zeit lang unterrichtet habe, da haben die Sprachfähigkeiten eher abgenommen, weil einfach kein Nutzen, kein Gebrauch der L2 bei diesen Schülern stattfand. Und das denke ich, ist dann schon sehr schockierend, also diese Regression, dieses Rückfallen in ein geringeres Sprachniveau, auch dass es schwierig fällt, die Schüler von diesen sehr alltagsgebundenen Sprachgebrauch auch zu abstrakteren Themen zu führen, weil einfach die Grundlagen nicht sitzen, keine Sicherheit im Sprachgebrauch besteht und auch bei manchen Schülern sehr wenig Motivation, die L2 zu nutzen. Da denke ich, das merkt man und damit muss man bei manchen Schülern dann rechnen und auch sich damit auseinandersetzen“* (Interview R6, pp. 5-6 , ll. 169-178).

6.2.6.2. When it happens without noticing

Trainee R7 talks about instances where increased L1 use goes unnoticed by the person teaching. They firstly talk about their own practice in lessons. *“Ich habe zum Beispiel auch mal jetzt ab und zu mal eine Referendarin mitgenommen, und die sagte: „Aber du redest ja ganz schön viel Deutsch mit denen“, und mir ist das gar nicht so bewusst gewesen. [...] im regulären Unterrichtsgeschehen kriegst du ja keine Rückmeldung darüber, wie jetzt dein Unterricht war, dass man dann irgendwie das übersieht und dann ist es*

*irgendwie schon drin“ (Interview R7, pg. 4, ll. 115-119). They then go on to talk about observations of other teachers. *“Ich glaube denen ist das selber gar nicht so aufgefallen, [...] also die Lehrerin, die auch selber sehr viel Deutsch redet, hat dann bei mir irgendwann mal gesagt: „Oh, du redest aber ganz schön viel Deutsch“, wo ich mir so denke: “Häh was?“ Also ich glaube denen ist das nicht bewusst, weil die kein Feedback mehr kriegen so wie ich das damals gekriegt habe, mir ist es ja auch nicht aufgefallen. Ich glaube das ist einfach so das Muster, in das die so verfallen“ (Interview R7, pg. 6, ll. 185-189).**

6.2.6.3. Inconsistent actions

Interviewee R10 speaks about the problem of teachers being inconsistent in their actions concerning L1 use. *“Also in Gruppenarbeiten sage ich denen ja auch: „Wenn du was nicht weißt, dann paraphrasierst du das“ und dann bin ich die Lehrerin, die dann auf einmal schnell was auf Deutsch sagt, weil ich keinen Bock habe, nochmal zwei Mal zu paraphrasieren, das geht ja nicht, ne, Vorbildfunktion“ (Interview R10, pg. 7, ll. 210-213).*

6.2.6.4. When it becomes routine

Two trainees speak of the problem of L1 use becoming routine and both teachers and pupils relying on it. *“Die Problematik, die ich hier sehe, liegt darin, wenn das routinemäßig gemacht wird, dass Schülerinnen und Schüler sich denken, warum machen wir das denn jetzt hier auf Englisch, wir gucken doch gleich eh nochmal im Buch nach, also dass man sich drauf verlässt: „die sagt das gleich eh nochmal auf Deutsch, ich kann jetzt auf Durchzug schalten“, also dass man sich denkt okay, ich muss jetzt nicht aufpassen, das kommt gleich nochmal auf Deutsch. Das würde ich als große Gefahr da sehen“ (Interview R5, pg. 9, ll. 294-299). This point is reiterated by interviewee R10. *“Viele Schüler nutzen das halt auch ein bisschen zu viel, und das kann dann glaube ich aber auch sehr schnell Probleme machen. Also wenn man immer darauf sich verlässt, dass man Sachen übersetzt bekommen hat, dann erinnert man sich ja auch nicht an die Vokabeln oder denkt: „Ja, gut. Dann muss ich die Vokabeln ja eh nicht lernen, die sagt mir ja die Vokabeln“. Das ist halt so ein bisschen das Problem“ (Interview R10, pg. 7, ll. 226-230).**

6.2.6.5. Pupils take advantage

Trainee R10 mentioned a further problem concerning L1 use in the English language classroom, namely that pupils could start taking advantage. *“Aber, wie gesagt, ich habe halt noch ein bisschen Probleme, wenn ich das dann anbiete, dass es nicht ausgenutzt wird, also dass es halt nicht überhandnimmt, weil, wie gesagt, ich möchte das halt sinnvoll einsetzen können. Die Schüler sehen da manchmal nicht so quasi die Technik, die ich dahinter verwende, also dass es für bestimmte Sachen intelligent ist, Deutsch zu benutzen und für andere halt nicht, aber die haben da nicht ganz so den Durchblick da“* (Interview R10, pg. 6, ll. 193-198).

6.2.7. Teacher trainees’ opinion on L1 use

This section shall take explore how teacher trainees feel primarily about their own use of the L1 and how this has developed over the course of their teacher training.

6.2.7.1. Feeling frustrated at using the L1

When asked about their feelings pertaining to L1 use while teaching, some teacher trainees reported feelings of frustration. *“Ja, an einigen Stellen bin ich wirklich frustriert, weil das oft Sachen sind, so Vokabeln zum Beispiel, die sie lernen sollten, wir versuchen das dann immer so ein bisschen zu paraphrasieren, aber oft verstehen die jüngeren Schüler das nicht. Ich habe halt hauptsächlich jüngere Schüler, ich habe die Fünfer im Moment, also im selbstständigen Unterricht. [Das] ist auch schon oft frustrierend, wenn die das auch nicht durch das Paraphrasieren verstehen und dann man das wirklich auf Deutsch sagen muss“* (Interview R9, pg. 2, ll. 61-66). Trainee R10 reiterates this point. *“Und das frustriert mich dann auch, weil ich weiß [...] Wenn die ein bisschen mehr arbeiten würde, könnten wir das auch auf Englisch klären“* (Interview R10, pg. 2, ll. 51-53).

Interviewee R11 talks of her frustration at the topic of language choice in the classroom in general. *“Ja, ich bin manchmal frustriert. Zum Beispiel bei den Grammatikphasen. [...] Ich habe es auch vorher häufiger gelassen. Allerdings gab es dann direkt nach zwei, drei Wochen schon die ersten Anrufe von den Eltern, dass das nicht gehen würde. [...] Die jungen Lehrer hätten jetzt so einen*

neuen Ansatz, dass alle immer Englisch sprechen würden die ganze Stunde. Da war ich natürlich ein bisschen eingeschüchtert, wobei mir das jetzt [...] mehr oder weniger egal ist, weil ich dahinterstehe. Aber seitdem achte ich eben schon ein bisschen mehr darauf, an bestimmten Stellen mehr Deutsch einzusetzen und trotzdem ist es da manchmal so, dass ich denke, nein, eigentlich würde ich hier gerade nicht gerne Deutsch einsetzen wollen, würde ich es lieber auf Englisch versuchen zu beschreiben“ (Interview R11, pg. 2, ll. 33-42).

Trainee R12 describes a frustrating situation in a specific class. *“Also, ich war auch schon frustriert. Ich hatte auch schon einen Grundkurs in Englisch, wo ich einfach das Gefühl hatte, dass ich wirklich mit Englisch kein bisschen weiterkomme. Gut, weiß man natürlich auch nicht, was so vorher dann jeweils passiert ist in den Lerngruppen und wo ich wirklich auch einfach gemerkt habe, dass die noch nicht an dieses globale Verstehen rangekommen sind. Also, wo man einfach gemerkt hat, die haben sich wirklich an jedem englischen Wort aufgehangen und haben dadurch halt auch einfachste Sätze nicht aus dem Zusammenhang heraus interpretieren können, und das hat mich frustriert, weil irgendwann fängt man dann an zu switchen. Man fängt dann [an], in [der] L1 zu reden, wobei man sich eigentlich fest vorgenommen hat, nein, man macht es nicht. Aber je mehr Kinder vor einem sitzen, einen mit großen Augen angucken und die Kinnlade runterfallen lassen, ja, desto mehr lässt man sich davon auch beeinflussen“ (Interview R12, pp. 2-3, ll. 60-70).*

Trainee R3 talks of how using the L1 causes them to have a guilty conscience. *“Also ich habe da immer so ein schlechtes Gewissen, weil ich dann immer denke, ich habe es nicht so einfach auf Englisch erklären können, dass ich das verständlich gemacht habe. Und das ist dann so, toll das ist jetzt gerade das last resort, dann noch irgendwie Deutsch zu benutzen. Ich habe nur ein schlechtes Gewissen, weil ich eigentlich denke so, eigentlich müsstest du es auf Englisch hinkriegen“ (Interview R3, pg. 2, ll. 26-30).*

Other teacher trainees say that their feelings are mixed concerning L1 use. *“Also in den Situationen, wo ich das quasi selbst plane vorher und mir das überlege und denke, das ist sinnvoll, das da zu benutzen, weil ich da auch die Erfahrung gemacht habe, dass das sinnvoll ist und dass das uns auch weiterbringt, finde ich das gut. Genervt bin ich eher, wenn es so Situationen-*

also von mir selbst, wenn das so Situationen sind, wenn ich denke: okay, wir haben nicht mehr so viel Zeit, wir müssen jetzt noch schnell diese Aufgabe machen und jetzt haben wir nicht mehr Zeit, dass irgendwer das übersetzt, oder ich habe schon drei Kinder drangenommen und die haben es nicht richtig verstanden und wir sagen es einfach oder so. Das ist dann eher, wo ich dann manchmal so denke, das war jetzt nicht so toll“ (Interview R1, pg. 2, ll. 38-46).

Interviewee R8 differentiates depending on the age of the learners. *“Na ja, es kommt auch so ein bisschen auf die Klassenstufen an, sage ich jetzt mal. Bei den Fünftklässlern ist einfach teilweise das Niveau in der L2 [...] noch nicht so hoch, dass ich da sichergehen kann, dass es alle verstanden haben. Bei höheren Klassenstufen, also neunte, zehnte Klasse oder so, die wirklich schon auch gut Englisch sprechen, da würde ich dann da eher nicht so [da]hinter stehen, dass ich in die L1 switche, weil ich davon ausgehen kann, dass es da eigentlich verstanden werden sollte“ (Interview R8, pg. 2, ll. 48-53).*

Finally, a few teacher trainees report not feeling frustrated at all at their L1 use. *“Nein, finde ich nicht schlimm. Ich finde es viel einfacher, oft mit den Schülern auch zu reden. Die können sich auch besser ausdrücken und dann ist es oft auch entspannter, genau. Nein, ich finde das überhaupt nicht nervig“ (Interview 2, pg. 1, ll. 25-27).* Interviewee R4 reiterates this aspect. *“Nein. Würde ich eher nicht sagen, weil ich immer zuerst versuche, es auf der Fremdsprache auszudrücken. [...] Aber frustrierend finde ich es gar nicht in dem Sinne, weil ich einfach weiß, dass Schüler oder Klassen heterogen sind und dass man nicht von allen die gleiche Ausgangslage erwarten kann“ (Interview R4, pg. 2, ll. 46-54).*

6.2.7.2. Changing expectations concerning L1 versus L2 use

A commonly talked about aspect by the teacher trainees was their changing expectations concerning language use in the classroom from their time before the teacher training to during and, for some, after. A frequently mentioned progression was away from strict, exclusively L2 communication towards accepting L1 use as a helpful tool in the L2 classroom. *“Also ich glaube, dass ich da, ja, also dass ich am Anfang noch so ein bisschen unsicher war, dass ich auf jeden Fall wollte, dass immer nur Englisch verwendet wird, dass das auch so ein bisschen meine Einstellung war aus dem Studium heraus. Und dass ich*

durch das Referendariat, durch die Fachleiterin, auch so ein bisschen darauf gekommen bin, wenn man wirklich so Reflexionsphasen hat oder so interkulturelle Phasen, dass es auch in Ordnung ist, mal Deutsch zu sprechen und dass es auch einen dann voranbringen kann und dass es nicht immer nur schadet oder schlecht ist, wenn man das macht“ (Interview R1, pg. 4, ll. 104-110).

Trainee R9 is surprised at how much L1 they actually use in lessons. *“Ich hätte nicht gedacht, dass ich so häufig Deutsch benutzen würde. Ich habe es mir auch anders vorgenommen [...], aber es geht oft nicht. Häufig muss ich einfach die deutsche Sprache benutzen. Einfachheitshalber, verständnishalber, weil sie mich dann einfach nicht verstehen und oft auch gar nicht wissen, was sie tun sollen, wenn ich es nicht noch einmal auf Deutsch erkläre“ (Interview R9, pg. 5, ll. 146-150).* Interviewee R3 reiterates this point. *“Ich muss ganz ehrlich sagen, [...] dass ich mit der Zeit mehr Deutsch gesprochen habe. Ganz am Anfang weiß ich, dass ich noch viel viel viel viel stringenter war damit. Dass ich wirklich versucht habe alles mit Englisch zu machen. Dass ich dann irgendwann angefangen habe da ein bisschen nachlässiger zu werden“ (Interview R3, pg. 3, ll. 77-80).*

Trainee R4 talks about how they feel they have found a happy medium. *“Das ist eine sehr gute Frage. [...] Also im Ausbildungsunterricht bin ich sowieso sehr, sehr, sehr bemüht, nur Englisch zu sprechen, weil ich den Eindruck habe, dass das auf jeden Fall gut ankommt, wenn du nicht ständig auf Deutsch sprichst. Aber in meinem eigenen Unterricht habe ich mir das am Anfang auch auf die Fahne geschrieben, nur Englisch gesprochen, habe so eine Karte gebastelt: „English only“, da wurde Quatsch mit gemacht. Spaß mit gemacht. [...] ich habe halt wirklich gesehen, dass [...] stellenweise auch nicht umsetzbar war, nur auf der Fremdsprache zu kommunizieren. Und ich glaube, ich habe da aber einen ganz guten Mittelweg gefunden so, um halt genau diese Sachen zu klären. Vokabelfragen, die halt schwer vielleicht zu übersetzen sind, dass man die nochmal auf Deutsch kurz anspricht, oder das Thema Klassenarbeiten und Co, aber ich habe doch gemerkt, dass das etwas idealistisch war, wie ich am Anfang da ran gegangen bin“ (Interview R4, pg. 4, ll. 117-128).*

Interviewee R5 talks about sticking predominantly to her principles concerning language use. *“Also ich bin ins Referendariat gestartet auch mit der Ansicht, dass man möglichst viel Englisch im Englischunterricht sprechen sollte und an dieser grundsätzlichen Einstellung hat sich bei mir auch nichts geändert. Ich habe natürlich schon bemerkt, dass es sehr mühsam sein kann, in einigen Klassen Englisch als Arbeitssprache immer wieder einzufordern. Man fühlt sich manchmal wie so ein Kassettenrekorder, der immer wieder sagt: „Say it in English“. [Ich] versuche dann auch die Schüler zu ermutigen, weil auch mit dieser Grumpy Cat-Sache, häufig dann die Frage kommt: „Can I say it in German“, also dass sie halt dann um Erlaubnis fragen. [:::] da versuche ich die Schüler halt positiv zu bestärken und zu sagen: “Versuch es doch mal, du kannst das bestimmt“. Aber es ist mühsam, das immer wieder einzufordern und sich selbst dabei auch treu zu bleiben und auch diese Grumpy Cat-Sache in jeder Stunde durchzuziehen. Das ist mühsam, das habe ich jetzt auch festgestellt, aber trotzdem halte ich daran fest“* (Interview R5, pp. 4-5, ll. 125-139).

Teacher trainee R11 talks of being stricter with exclusively L2 use than at the beginning of their teacher training. *“Also, ich persönlich jetzt rede [selbst] weniger auf Deutsch als am Anfang. Vorher habe ich es noch häufiger gemacht, weil ich immer wirklich jedem Kind gerecht werden wollte [...] Ich wollte, dass alle es wirklich verstehen und [...] bin dann öfter ins Deutsche gewischt ganz am Anfang und jetzt eben noch viel seltener“* (Interview R11, pg. 3, ll. 89-92).

6.2.7.3. How to use the L1

When talking about using the L1, a few interviewees mentioned doing this with clear transitions between the languages. *“Aber es ist wichtig dann den Schülern klar zu machen: “Okay I will switch back to German“, oder: “I will switch back to English“. Ich finde den Schülern müsste schon ganz konkret bewusst gemacht werden, es ist jetzt eine englische Phase und jetzt ist eine kurze deutsche Phase“* (Interview R91, pg. 2, ll. 43-146). Interviewee R1 reiterates this with advice given by her teacher trainer. *“Also es wurde auf jeden Fall thematisiert. [Wir haben] öfter drüber gesprochen, wie man das am besten machen kann und auch, ob man das vorher anzeigt oder ankündigt oder so. Da gibt es ja auch verschiedene Möglichkeiten mit irgendwie Flaggen mit Deutsch*

und Englisch, oder manche hatten das irgendwie mit einem Schal, den man dann an oder abmacht oder irgendwie ein Handzeichen. Also wir haben schon über verschiedene Möglichkeiten gesprochen, oder dass man einfach sagt, okay, ich wechsele jetzt ins Deutsche und dann "I switch to English now". Halt so. Also ich habe das halt so eher gemacht, nicht noch mit irgendwelchen Zeichen, aber das schon ankündigen. Das war halt ein Thema und auch, ja, in welchen Phasen ist es sinnvoll und wann sollte man, wann ist es besser, das auf Englisch zu machen" (Interview R1, pg. 7, ll. 211-220).

6.2.7.4. Observed L1 use

As part of the teacher training programme, trainees are required to sit in and observe a certain amount of English lessons held by qualified English teachers. Teacher trainees were asked about what they observed during this time concerning the use of language. Some report situations in which very little to no L1 was used. *"Ich habe das auch schon mal mitbekommen, dass Lehrer wirklich nur auf Englisch reden und das geht auch, das klappt auch, [das] kann man schon schaffen" (Interview R2, pg. 7, ll. 206-207).* They went on to give a reason for the high level of English use. *"Wir sind auch eine bilinguale Schule und es gibt sehr viele, sehr gute Englischlehrer. Ich würde sagen, die meisten davon haben wirklich durchgehend Englisch gesprochen" (Interview R2, pg. 8, ll. 243-244).* Interviewee R3 also expressed how impressive they found it when a teacher was able to conduct a lesson exclusively using the L2. *"Ich habe einmal eine Klasse gehabt, die war von einer anderen Lehrerin. Die hatte eine fünfte Klasse und die haben wirklich alles auf Englisch gemacht. Das war schon verdammt beeindruckend, wohingegen ich hier Klassen von Ausbildungslehrern gesehen habe, wo bis auf die Aufgaben nichts auf Englisch gemacht worden ist. Ich sehe mich immer so ein bisschen dazwischen" (Interview R3, pp. 2-3, 61-65).* Interviewee R8 speaks about one teacher's extensive use of English and sees this as the reason for the pupils' school success in English. *"Also ich hatte einen Englischlehrer, [...] bei dem ich sehr gerne hospitiert habe, der auch längere Zeit in den USA gelebt hatte und wirklich konsequent nur Englisch gesprochen hatte, [...] es sei denn, es ging um jetzt irgendeine Planung des Schulfestes, wo wirklich was ganz genau erklärt werden musste, was auch gerade gar nichts mit dem Englischunterricht zu tun hatte, wurde Deutsch gesprochen, ansonsten wirklich konsequent Englisch. Also da gab es vielleicht*

innerhalb von fünf Stunden mal fünf Minuten, wo Deutsch gesprochen wurde. Das fand ich sehr positiv. [...] ich habe auch gemerkt, dass da die Schülerinnen und Schüler wirklich ein sehr hohes Niveau auch am Ende erreicht haben mit der Sprache, also die haben wirklich am Ende alle richtig gute Englischnoten erzielt“ (Interview R8, pg. 7, ll. 208-217).

Trainee R7 spoke of a teacher's insistence on an exclusively L2 classroom, on the other hand, as being something rather negative. *“Dann war ich sogar mit einer dabei, die war ein bisschen älter, die hat alles auf Englisch gemacht, also auch mit den Fünfern und Sechsern. [...] also die war sowieso so eine Person, vor der man gleich so ein bisschen Angst hat, also so eine sehr, sehr strenge Lehrerin. [...] Irgendwo aus, weiß ich nicht, aus der Türkei oder so. Auf jeden Fall sprach sie Englisch auch mit einem sehr heftigen Akzent, und sie hat sich aber auch im Lehrerzimmer mit den Englischlehrern auf Englisch unterhalten, weil sie sich da halt ein bisschen wohler fühlte als auf Deutsch. Auf jeden Fall habe ich da im Unterricht hospitiert, und da habe ich halt gemerkt, dass die Schüler eigentlich nichts verstanden haben, sie dann aber immer so böse wurde, aber auch auf Englisch böse wurde, dass die so eingeschüchtert waren, dass sich keiner getraut hat, irgendwie zu sagen: „Das verstehe ich nicht“ (Interview R7, pg. 6, 162-172).*

Some mention age as being an influencing factor in teachers' language policy within the classroom. *“Jetzt bei einigen, bei den älteren Lehrkräften, bei den jüngeren, die gerade aus dem Ref auch raus sind, habe ich zwei Lehrkräfte, die sind noch super dabei, also das Höchstmaß an Englisch zu benutzen. Das merkt man schon [...] aber bei den älteren ist mir wirklich aufgefallen, die sprechen schon echt viel Deutsch“ (Interview R9, pg. 7, 208-211).* This point concerning teacher-age was reiterated by interviewee R11. *“Es gab einige Lehrkräfte, gerade auch junge, die haben es [zu] 100, oder sagen wir mal [zu] 90 Prozent auf Englisch durchgezogen“ (Interview R11, pg. 5, ll. 150-151).*

Another reason given for language use is the differentiation between learners abilities and ages. *“Das ist sehr unterschiedlich. Also es gibt Leute, und das ist auch wieder unterschiedlich, das wird tatsächlich auch oft so gehandhabt, Oberstufe, Unterstufe. Aber da sind tatsächlich sehr, sehr viele die absolut gar kein Deutsch in irgendeiner Art und Weise reden, also wirklich*

nichts und dann gibt es aber auch Leute, und das ist halt eher wieder in der Unterstufe, beziehungsweise ich habe da glaube ich auch eine Person gesehen, die das komplett so gemacht hat, dass sie [die] Oberstufe komplett monolingual gemacht hat und in der Unterstufe gesagt hat: Ich switche mal“ (Interview R10, pg. 8, ll. 257-263).

Some teacher trainees report observing a lot of L1 use. *“Aber in Hospitationsstunden habe ich halt auch Unterricht gesehen, wo halt diese 80 Prozent Deutsch vorherrschend waren. [...] Die haben gar nicht erst angefangen, Englisch zu reden. Das fing auf Deutsch an. Da war ich auch so ein bisschen schockiert von, wenn ich ganz ehrlich bin“ (Interview R3, pg. 5, ll. 144-149).* This was reiterated by interviewee R5. *“Ich habe ein Hospitationspraktikum an einer anderen Schulform gemacht, und da hatte ich das Gefühl, dass bei zwei Lehrkräften, bei denen ich da mitgelaufen bin, viel mehr durchweg Deutsch gesprochen wurde, dass da die englische Sprache die Ausnahme war“ (Interview R5, pg. 5, ll. 152-155).*

The aspect of age came up again, with interviewee R7 seeing this as an influencing factor in the amount of L1 spoken. *“Und dann gibt es da noch so die alten Lehrerinnen, die halt auch viel auf Deutsch machen“ (Interview R7, pg. 6, ll. 177-178).* This point was expanded on by interviewee R9. *“Ich glaube wenn ein Schüler eine Frage nicht beantworten kann, ist es dann sehr schnell wieder ins Deutsche gewechselt, damit der Schüler wieder antwortet. Die versuchen das selten zu paraphrasieren, habe ich den Eindruck gehabt. Also jedenfalls ist es immer so ein Übersetzen, wortwörtliches Übersetzen, und wenn er es nicht kennt, dann wird es auf Deutsch gesagt, das ist jetzt bei einer Lehrkraft [der Fall]. Ich war nicht bei so vielen, ich war insgesamt bei drei Englischlehrkräften, zwei sind halt Referendare, oder die waren vor kurzem Referendare, sind noch super drin. [...] bei einer, die schon länger im Beruf ist, merke ich das halt immer wieder, dass sie sehr schnell ins Deutsche switcht und das halt hauptsächlich, wenn die Schüler direkt nicht eine Antwort geben können auf Englisch, oder die fragen halt auch immer: “Can I say that in German? Yes, you can“ und das ist dann bei den älteren Schülern auch. [...] ich glaube die Schüler können da mehr, wenn man [es] auch nicht [zu]lässt, Deutsch zu sprechen“ (Interview R9, pg. 7, ll. 216-227).*

Trainee R4 sees a teacher's frequent use of the L1 as hindering the pupils' school success in the subject. *"Ich hatte ein Beispiel aus meinem Praxissemester. Da hat eine Oberstufenlehrerin fast nur Deutsch gesprochen und dementsprechend schlecht waren die Schüler halt auch vorbereitet. [...] Und da dachte ich so, das hängt auch mit der Lehrperson zusammen, die halt quasi viel Deutsch spricht"* (Interview R4, pg. 4, ll. 108-112). One reason offered for a teacher who used a lot of L1 was that they taught English even though they were not a qualified English teacher. *"Ich hatte, bevor ich mein Referendariat angefangen [habe] einmal in einem Praktikum, [...] eine Person, die hat sehr, sehr viel L1 verwendet. Es stellte sich aber dann nachher auch heraus, dass sie das Fach fachfremd unterrichtet"* (Interview R12, pg. 8, ll. 252-254).

6.2.8. Teacher trainers' opinion on L1 use

The interviewees reported varying opinions of their teacher trainers concerning the use of L1 in the English language classroom. These could be located on a spectrum from very strict rules concerning exclusive L2 use, to views that seem to be more open towards the use and potential benefit of L1 use in the foreign language classroom.

6.2.8.1. Negative view of L1 use

Teacher trainee R2 talks about how she received criticism for using the L1 as a support technique when explaining a task. *"Ja, aber es wurde dann halt auf jeden Fall in der Nachbesprechung angemerkt, dass ich das gemacht habe, dass ich das übersetzen lassen habe, oder zusammenfassen lassen habe auf Deutsch und das [...] fand er nicht so toll. Er fand, glaube ich, ich hätte irgendwie das nochmal anders auf Englisch erklären sollen und dann wirklich nur, wenn Bedarf ist, das auf Deutsch zusammenfassen lassen und nicht irgendwie [...] einfach mal so als Routine"* (Interview R2, pg. 9, ll. 268-273). The same trainee goes on to lament the discrepancy of her teacher trainer's statements concerning use of the L1. *"Er tut immer so, als wär er ganz locker, [...] also im Seminar, aber, in Unterrichtsbesuchen dann nicht. Also es wurde eigentlich immer gelobt, dass ich auf Englisch geredet habe, in den anderen Unterrichtsbesuchen"* (Interview R2, pg. 9, ll. 288-290).

Interviewee R3 talks about her teacher trainer as being very strict when it came to the pupils speaking any German in observed lessons. *“Mein Fachleiter ist sehr, sehr, sehr, sehr auf L2 Verwendungen bedacht. Das heißt, jedes Mal, wenn ein Schüler irgendwie Deutsch sprechen würde, wäre das sofort ein Minuspunkt gewesen, also es war auch die Rückmeldung. Ich hatte einen UB in meiner sechsten Klasse, wo die Kinder so Vokabellernposter machen mussten, und da saß er hinten und hatte dann leider [...] sich dahin gesetzt, wo die etwas schwächeren Schüler saßen, und obwohl die wussten, okay ich hatte da diese Englischflagge dran gemacht: „Du musst jetzt Englisch sprechen“, haben die natürlich nachher bei dem Peer Review natürlich dann Deutsch gesprochen [...] das war dann so ein: „Nein da musst du drauf achten. Du musst sie da[zu] bringen, dass sie wirklich die ganze Zeit Englisch sprechen. Das geht nicht anders“. Ja mein Fachleiter ist wie gesagt sehr, sehr anti-Deutsch“* (Interview R3, pg. 6, ll. 172-181). A similar point was reiterated by teacher trainee R6. *“Wir haben relativ kurz mal über dieses Konzept der aufgeklärten Einsprachigkeit gesprochen. Generell natürlich nicht so positiv. [...] Oder was heißt natürlich, aber man muss einfach sagen, gerade in Kooperationsphasen, gerade wenn es sich um längere Äußerungen in der L1 handelt, wird einerseits eigentlich erwartet, dass das nicht passiert und andererseits, dass man das unterbindet oder irgendwie da auch den Schülern eine Möglichkeit gibt, in die L2 zurückzugehen. [...] die L1 als Kommunikationssprache wird absolut nicht geduldet, und das wird einem auch in Nachbesprechungen so kommuniziert. [...] ich hatte tatsächlich den Fall mit einer Q1, und es gab einzelne Schüler, die eben in so einer Gruppenphase, da ging es um einen Gallery Walk, und die sollten die Plakate besprechen [...] da haben sich einige Schüler auf Deutsch ausgetauscht und dann wurde mir einfach auch in der Nachbesprechung gesagt so, darf das auf keinen Fall in der UPP sein. [...] das war mir auch durchaus an dem Punkt klar, das ist natürlich dann nicht ganz einfach, wenn man da 20 Schüler hat, und dann passiert das aber doch mal; und da angemessen drauf zu reagieren, aber auch gelassen zu bleiben, denke ich, ist auch eine Herausforderung, [die] man dann für eine UPP, aber auch für den normalen Unterricht meistern sollte“* (Interview R6, pg. 12, ll. 377-392).

6.2.8.2. More open view of L1 use

On the other hand, some trainees reported instances where their teacher trainers appeared to be more open towards the idea of using the L1 in lessons. *“Also sie hat uns durchaus dazu ermutigt. Also jetzt nicht ständig und nicht die ganze Zeit, also sie hat schon gesagt, einsprachiger Englischunterricht ist wichtig, aber, ja, in bestimmten Phasen, zum Beispiel, wenn niemand versteht, worauf man hinausmöchte und man schon mehrere Kinder zur Sprachmittlung drangenommen hat, dass es dann auch in Ordnung ist, mal ein, zwei Wörter oder Sätze auf Deutsch kurz einzuwerfen, damit alle wissen, okay, was machen wir gerade, worum geht es gerade? Und halt auch am Ende, also dieses Metasprachliche und das Reflektieren, hat sie auch gesagt, dass sie das durchaus sinnvoll findet, das auch auf Deutsch zu machen“* (Interview R1, pg. 7, ll. 201-208).

Concerning giving task instructions, interviewee R11 talks about a technique their trainer encouraged them to use. *“Ja, also es ist zumindest nicht negativ aufgefallen. [...] ich glaube, es gab ganz am Anfang mal eine in meinem ersten Unterrichtsbesuch, da war ich bei einer Lehrerin in der Klasse im Ausbildungsunterricht und da habe ich einmal eine Frage, eine Aufgabenstellung noch mal auf Deutsch gesagt, und da sagte er mir eben: „Ja, mach es doch einfach so, du sagst es einfach wirklich nur auf Englisch und dann lässt du die Schüler das auf Deutsch übersetzen“ Habe ich auch dankend angenommen und mache ich seitdem so. Ja”* (Interview R11, pg. 7, ll. 193-198).

6.2.8.3. Discrepancy between normal and examination lessons

Interviewee R4 speaks about the difference between normal lessons and examination lessons. *“Der sagt auch, dass nach Möglichkeit die L1 halt möglichst wenig verwendet werden sollte, aber er ist sich dessen bewusst, dass es halt Ausnahmen geben muss, oder geben kann. Und ja, es ist vielleicht so im normalen Unterricht vielleicht jetzt auch dann weniger strikt als jetzt zum Beispiel in der unterrichtspraktischen Prüfung oder so, wo das halt einfach nicht vorkommen sollte, also denke ich auch, dass er da ein ganz gesundes Maß irgendwie hat, wie es verwendet werden sollte. Aber ja, auch in Prüfungssituationen würde er, glaube ich, schon drauf hinweisen, wenn man da Deutsch sprechen würde“* (Interview R4, pp. 7-8, ll. 226-232). This apparent

discrepancy between normal lessons and those taught as a trainee in exam conditions was a common theme mentioned by several interviewees. *“Gar nicht, weil mein Fachleiter nicht dafür ist. Also auch er hat gesagt, wenn es halt mal sinnvoll ist, in Grammatikstunden oder sowas, aber er wollte nie Grammatikstunden sehen. [...] [Den Schülerinnen und Schülern] habe ich vorher gesagt, dass sie bitte super darauf achten müssen, dass sie Englisch miteinander reden, weil das halt nicht so gerne gesehen wird, dass sie nicht Englisch miteinander reden“* (Interview R10, pg. 9, ll. 276-283).

6.2.8.4. Dealing with L1 use in teacher training

The interviewees were also asked about the extent to which L1 use was dealt with as a topic within their seminars at the respective teacher training institutes. Interviewee R1 reports that this had been a subject of discussion during their training. *“Also es wurde auf jeden Fall thematisiert. Da haben wir öfter drüber gesprochen, wie man das am besten machen kann und auch, ob man das vorher anzeigt oder ankündigt oder so. [...] Und auch, ja, in welchen Phasen ist es sinnvoll und wann sollte man, wann ist es besser, das auf Englisch zu machen“* (Interview R1, pg. 7 , ll. 211-220).

The other teacher trainees state that the topic was touched upon briefly or not dealt with at all. Trainee R8, however, remembers a few techniques that were mentioned. *“Also, da fällt mir wirklich nur dieses, ja, quasi diese Sandwichmethode noch ein, die ist mir im Kopf geblieben, also dass man ein Wort zum Beispiel erklärt und dann immer Horse-Pferd-Horse sagt, dass man das quasi die L1 in die Mitte des Sandwiches stellt [...]. Und daran erinnere ich mich und eben an diese Arbeitsanweisungen, [...] dass das Verständnis überprüft werden kann, indem ich das auf Deutsch wiedergeben lasse von den Schülern, ob die Arbeitsanweisung verstanden wurde und ansonsten halt, um direkt Vokabeln einfach zu klären. An der Tafel zum Beispiel habe ich immer so eine “Vocabulary Box“ in der Ecke gehabt, wo ich dann wirklich Wörter, die im Unterricht aufgekommen sind, notiert habe mit der deutschen Übersetzung, dass [es] so eine Vokabelbox gab, die sich jeder am Ende abgeschrieben hat mit Wörtern, die wir im Unterricht gebraucht hatten, die neu waren. Das waren eigentlich jetzt so die drei Stellen, die mir einfallen“* (Interview R8, pg. 10, ll. 310-322).

Trainee R5 learned about Butzkamm's concept of enlightened monolingualism. *“Wir haben darüber im Seminar gar nicht so viel gesprochen. Also wir haben über diese funktionale Einsprachigkeit als Begriff gesprochen, die ja auch Raum für die L1 lässt. Also darum ja funktional, also es heißt, dass schon auch irgendwo Raum für die L1 im Englischunterricht da ist. Aber wir haben im Fachseminar keine Strategien oder konkreten Anwendungsbeispiele besprochen, bei denen jetzt gesagt wurde: „So, ach übrigens, an dieser Stelle würde es sich anbieten, mal auf Deutsch zu wechseln, oder an dieser Stelle könnte man das gut machen, außer bei Mediation, also das ist jetzt nochmal eine andere Sache. Aber so im Unterricht oder im Fachseminar haben wir nicht darüber gesprochen, an welchen Stellen es denn jetzt wirklich Sinn ergibt, mal in die L1 zu wechseln“* (Interview R5, pg. 10, ll. 329-337).

Finally, some feel that it was not dealt with at all. *“Ich kann nur für mich sprechen, aber ich wurde jetzt nicht in meiner Zeit, im Referendariat da ausgebildet. Ich habe auch nie was gefunden, wo konkret erklärt wird oder vorgeschlagen wird, wie man das erreichen soll, dass man nur auf Englisch redet. Also ich würde mir wünschen, dass ich mehr in dieser Hinsicht auch, also keine Ahnung, so besser ausgebildet wäre, vielleicht“* (Interview R2, pg. 7, ll. 199-206).

6.2.9. Teacher trainees' opinion on learner L1 use

Some teacher trainees seem to be more open towards learners' L1 use whereas others feel the need to counteract it.

6.2.9.1. Understandable

As a trainee in a primary school, interviewee R1 finds it understandable that the learners use the L1. *“Also ich finde das schon sinnvoll. Halt bezogen auf bestimmte Situationen, wie schon gesagt, und Sanktionen gibt es da bei mir gar nicht in der Grundschule jetzt, also für die Grundschüler, wenn die etwas auf Deutsch sagen“* (Interview R1, pg. 2, ll. 59-61).

Interviewee R2 feels it is difficult to find the balance between when to push for L2 use and when to accept L1 use. *“Ich habe sehr viel Verständnis dafür, also weil ich auch [...] in einem Land wohne, in dem eine andere Sprache als meine Muttersprache gesprochen wird [...]. Ich habe auch sehr viel Verständnis*

dafür, wenn Schüler auch Fehler machen und dass es auch sehr frustrierend sein kann, wenn man sich nicht ausdrücken kann und man unbedingt etwas sagen möchte. [...] ich finde das soll vermieden werden, also dann immer lieber so, dann doch das auf Deutsch sagen. Dann hat man diesen Frust da nicht mehr. [...] es ist einfach eine Fine Line. Man muss irgendwie die Schüler ermutigen, [...] dass sie trotzdem auf Englisch reden, aber nicht das Gefühl haben, [...] die würden sich sonst blamieren, oder wenn sie etwas falsch machen würden auf Englisch, oder dann sagen die gar nichts“ (Interview R2, pg. 6, ll. 179-189).

Several teacher trainees speak about being more or less strict concerning L1 use depending on the individual's abilities and needs. *“Grundsätzlich versuche ich die Schülerinnen und Schüler dazu anzuhalten, Englisch zu sprechen. [Ich] mache das aber schon auch auf individueller Basis, wenn ich jetzt Schülerinnen und Schüler habe, die sich im Englischunterricht sehr zurückziehen und sehr wenig beteiligen, dann versuche ich die natürlich möglichst in den Unterricht zu integrieren, stelle auch sprachliche Hilfen zur Hand, zum Beispiel Scaffolding, Phrases und so weiter. Wenn da dann aber letzten Endes mal auf Deutsch gewechselt wird, dann kann ich das auch gut verzeihen“* (Interview R5, pg. 3, ll. 75-81).

6.2.9.2. Try to counteract it

Teacher trainees also express instances of feeling less understanding about learner L1 use. Interviewee R2 expresses how they find it disappointing that the learners use the L1 despite clearly having command of the L2. *“Manchmal reden die Schüler mit mir auf Deutsch und ich rede auf Englisch dann irgendwie zurück. Sie verstehen mich aber trotzdem, finde ich manchmal auch ein bisschen schade“* (Interview R2, pg. 3, ll. 90-92). Interviewee R6 underlines the importance they see in insisting on the use of the L2 during cooperative learning phases. *“Gruppenarbeiten sind ein ganz großes Thema, denke ich, weil wir versuchen ja unseren Englischunterricht kooperativ auszulegen, mir ist das natürlich auch wichtig, dass die Schüler in Arbeitsphasen auch mit anderen etwas erarbeiten, aber ein wichtiger Faktor oder ein wichtiger Vorteil dieser Arbeitsphasen ist ja, dass die Schüler eigentlich in der Zielsprache miteinander sprechen sollen. Den Redeanteil der Schüler erhöhen, wenn ich immer nur mit einem Schüler im Unterrichtsgespräch mich unterhalte, dann bringt es für den*

Großteil der Klasse nichts. Aber wenn dann gerade in solchen Phasen, und das denke ich schon, dass da manche Schüler zu neigen, wenn gerade in solchen Phasen eben dann doch Deutsch gesprochen wird, dann wird zumindest ein Teil dieser kooperativen Arbeit für das Sprachenlernen, ja nutzlos, oder nicht sinnvoll. [...] ich denke da ist es dann auch wichtig, dass eine gewisse Verbindlichkeit herrscht, dass in kooperativen Arbeitsphasen nach wie vor die Zielsprache verwendet wird“ (Interview R6, pg. 3, ll. 88-98).

6.2.10. School as language setting

The next set of codes summarise interview content pertaining to the subject of school as language setting. Here there are ideas of authenticity and well as school as a multilingual setting.

6.2.10.1. Authentic language setting

Teacher trainee R7 talks about the English language classroom and is sceptical about whether it can represent an authentic language setting. *“Hat sich auf jeden Fall nicht natürlich angefühlt, aber ich meine, was fühlt sich im Englischunterricht schon natürlich an?“ (Interview R7, pg. 7, ll. 202-203).* This point is reiterated by interviewee R2. *“Ich finde aber generell, dass man, auch wenn man immer so authentische [...] Sprechsituationen verschaffen soll, für den Schüler, das ist nie wirklich authentisch, man sitzt einfach in einem Klassenraum und sie können alle, oder also, 99 Prozent der Zeit reden die miteinander auf Deutsch. Und dann ist das einfach ein bisschen konstruiert und man kann ja nicht ignorieren, dass die alle eher auf Deutsch sprechen und dass die auch alle Deutsch können“ (Interview R2, pg. 2, ll. 56-61).*

6.2.10.2. Multilingual setting

Teacher trainees had many ideas of how school and the English language classroom represent a multilingual setting. Interviewee R5 talks about this aspect in general. *“Bei der Ausfüllung des Fragebogens habe ich in erster Linie an Deutsch gedacht, weil Deutsch meine L1 ist und wahrscheinlich auch vom Großteil unserer Schülerinnen und Schüler. Dabei ist mir dann aber eingefallen, dass wir natürlich andere Erstsprachen auch haben und wir ja auch dazu angehalten sind, Mehrsprachigkeit im Unterricht zu fördern. Also in der Referendarsausbildung gibt es zum Beispiel diese Leitlinie Vielfalt und da ist*

eben auch die Mehrsprachigkeit als Ressource und nicht als Hindernis sozusagen wahr[zuh]nehmen. Darum könnte ich mir auch Situationen vorstellen, wo man die Mehrsprachigkeit noch viel positiver in den Unterricht einbeziehen könnte“ (Interview R5, pg. 3, ll. 84-91).

6.2.10.3. School languages (e.g. French, Latin etc.)

Some interviewees mention other typical school languages when referring to the multilingual setting. Latin is mentioned as one of those languages. *“Die Schule, an der wir jetzt gerade uns befinden, ist eine Lateinschule, also sie hat ein Lateinprofil. Dementsprechend haben sehr viele Kinder auch Latein. Das heißt, zumindest bei Wortschatzeinführungen kann man auch auf Latein zurückgreifen beziehungsweise die Kinder bringen das von sich selber mit“* (Interview R3, pp. 4-5, ll. 125-128). This language was also mentioned by interviewee R5. *“Dadurch, dass ich Latein als Zweitfach habe, habe ich mich selbst schon häufig dabei beobachten können, den Wortursprung von einigen englischen Wörtern anhand von lateinischen Vokabeln zu erklären. Wenn ich genau weiß, da sitzen einige Schülerinnen und Schüler vor mir, die auch in meinem Lateinkurs sitzen, dann sage ich schon häufig: „Hier, Leute, das wisst ihr doch, collect, colligere“ oder sowas. [Ich] verweise dann auf den lateinischen Ursprung, weil ich glaube, dass das zum Beispiel beim Wortschatz eine gute Stütze sein kann“* (Interview R5, pg. 7, ll. 224-230).

Another language mentioned when it comes to multilingual aspects of English lessons is French. *“Tatsächlich kann ich jetzt nur sagen, dass ich manchmal dann auch mit Kindern, die schon Französisch jetzt gelernt haben, [...] manchmal so ein paar Französisch Gleichungen gestellt habe, weil das eben eine Sprache ist, die ich auch kann“* (Interview R12, pg. 7, ll. 223-225).

6.2.10.4. Heritage languages (e.g. Turkish, Arabic, Polish etc.)

Heritage languages, the languages that some learners have connections to from their home lives, are also mentioned. Interviewee R5 gives an overview of the learners that English teachers sometimes have in front of them. *“Also das sind natürlich alle Erstsprachen, die die Schülerinnen und Schüler mitbringen, das ist eine ganz breite Palette. In meinem jetzigen Englischkurs in der sechs, habe ich Kinder, die aus dem Irak kommen, Iran, aus dem arabischen Raum, aus der Türkei, bunt gemischt. Ich habe auch eine mit russischen Wurzeln, also*

da gibt es eine ganz breite Palette an Erstsprachen, die die Schülerinnen natürlich mitbringen und von dem ausgehend sie natürlich auch Englisch lernen. [...] Je nach Erstsprache ist es für die Schülerinnen und Schüler wahrscheinlich auch unterschiedlich schwierig, Englisch zu erlernen, je nachdem, wie viele Gemeinsamkeiten oder Unterschiede auch zwischen ihrer Erstsprache und Englisch bestehen. Außerdem habe ich Schülerinnen und Schüler, die erst vor kurzer Zeit nach Deutschland gekommen sind, [...] die jetzt im Moment eine ziemlich schwierige Zeit durchmachen, weil sie ja nicht nur Deutsch als Fremdsprache, sondern auch Englisch als Fremdsprache lernen und da eine Riesenwelt für sie eröffnet wird und ein ziemlicher Workload für sie besteht“ (Interview R5, pg. 7, ll. 212 – 224).

Trainee R8 is firstly of the opinion that these languages do not or should not play a role in the English languages classroom, goes on, however, to say how they could actually be used as support for learners. *“Ja, dann natürlich alle Muttersprachen der Kinder, die halt gerade in Sonderklassen vertreten sind und das ist oft Türkisch, Arabisch von den Zuwanderern, das heißt, je nachdem was man für Schüler in der Klasse hat, hatte ich ja eigentlich mehr oder weniger da bestimmt 20 verschiedene Sprachen oft vertreten, die aber eigentlich im Unterricht keine Rolle gespielt haben oder spielen, [...] weil das einfach nicht zum Englischunterricht gehört. [...] Im Englischunterricht soll Englisch gesprochen [werden] und nicht Arabisch, aber klar gab es Schüler, die ganz neu jetzt zum Beispiel nach Deutschland gekommen sind und dann mit in der Klasse waren. Und dann gab es einen anderen Schüler, der zufällig die gleiche Muttersprache hatte und die haben dann mehr oder weniger zusammen gearbeitet und oft sich mal gegenseitig unterstützt oder diesem neuen Kind geholfen, indem sie zum Beispiel auf Arabisch versucht haben zu erklären, was jetzt gerade im Englischunterricht aktuell thematisiert wird. Insofern haben diese Sprachen, also die Muttersprachen der Kinder, dann vielleicht an dieser Stelle eine Rolle gespielt, um einfach, ja, neue Schüler zu integrieren, die noch nicht so gut Englisch sprechen und die zu unterstützen und [um] die daran heranzuführen, eben die Inhalte des Unterrichtes mitzubekommen und zu verstehen“ (Interview R8, pg. 6, ll. 177-191).*

Interviewee R2 talks about the use of L1 in the classroom as being problematic when not all learners share the same L1, but how this can also

create opportunities for learning, “[...] ich merke auch, dass ich andere Schüler drin habe, die nicht aus Deutschland kommen. Dadurch merkt man auch, wie groß die Rolle [...] der L1 [ist], von der Mehrheit, weil ich kann da auch nicht einfach ganz viel auf Deutsch reden, weil eine das dann nicht mitbekommt, weil sie das nicht versteht. Das ist dann auch ganz schön, wie die anderen Schüler auch versuchen mit ihr zu reden auf Englisch. Oder nicht versuchen, die tun das. [...] die sind dann natürlich eher, wie sagt man das, motiviert, dann mit ihr auf Englisch zu reden, weil sie es müssen, sonst versteht sie das nicht“ (Interview R2, pg. 4, ll. 97-103). Interviewee R5 speaks of the difficulties faced because of a lack of knowledge about the various L1s of learners. *“Ein Problem wird es dann auch für mich, wenn ich die L1 einiger Schülerinnen und Schüler nicht kenne, dann kann ich nämlich auch diese Interferenzfehler schlecht erkennen, und ich glaube, dass es gut täte, wenn Englischlehrkräfte noch mehr Kenntnisse auch in den verschiedenen Erstsprachen ihrer Schülerinnen und Schüler hätten, um eben diese Diagnose genauer zu stellen und diese Interferenzfehler besser zu beobachten und zu diagnostizieren, und dadurch auch Arbeitsmöglichkeiten im Englischunterricht abzuleiten“* (Interview R5, pg. 4, ll. 101-107).

Trainee R9 talks about multilingualism in the English language classroom and how the use of heritage languages can sometimes be a way of building up learners' confidence. *“[...] ich habe nicht so viele Schüler mit einem Migrationshintergrund in meiner Klasse. Aber ich habe einige Türkisch stämmige Kinder und bei denen erkenne ich häufig, dass sie Gemeinsamkeiten zu der Muttersprache wiederkennen: „Ja und im Türkischen ist das genauso und im Türkischen sagen wir das und das“, ist immer so ein Erfolgserlebnis. Also ich hatte jetzt zum Beispiel letztens den Begriff ganz banal Cinema, und dann hat ein Schüler gesagt, dass das im Türkischen genauso ähnlich ist und das ist ein sehr, sehr leistungsschwacher Schüler und das war für ihn ein Erfolgserlebnis, sich den Begriff zu merken. [...] In der nächsten Stunde [habe ich] extra noch einmal gefragt, was heißt denn noch einmal Kino, also ich habe das Bild gezeigt: „What does that mean in English, how do you say that in English?“ und dann konnte der sich das merken, weil der den Zusammenhang mit dem Türkischen hatte“* (Interview R9, pg. 6, ll. 186-197).

Interviewee R10 speaks about the necessity of being flexible when it comes to multilingualism in the classroom. *“Ich habe eine Sprachschülerin bei mir, die ist Polin, das heißt also, die kann ein bisschen Deutsch, so ein bisschen Englisch, aber halt größtenteils Polnisch. [...] Wir versuchen dann mit allen drei Sprachen, also ich kann kein Polnisch, aber so mit allen drei Sprachen, dann sind irgendwie doch da manchmal Parallelen, die sie sieht. Und ich lasse sie da auch ganz frei das so machen, wie sie das will. [...] Manchmal macht sie Sachen auch erst auf Polnisch und übersetzt das dann, manchmal schreibt sie auch direkt auf Englisch, und da bin ich halt tatsächlich so, wie es für sie am besten ist, kann sie das gerne machen, weil sie eh bei mir in dem Sinne nicht benotet wird, sondern sie soll halt irgendwie ein bisschen was mitkriegen“* (Interview R10, pg. 6, ll. 171-180).

6.2.11. Goals of English language teaching

The final section will look at codes surrounding the topic of the goals of English language teaching and learning.

6.2.11.1. Intercultural competences

Teacher trainees often mention intercultural competences as being one of the central goals of English language teaching, *“Und so finde ich interkulturelles Lernen auch wahnsinnig wichtig, [...] dass sie die Sprache auch wirklich verwenden können. [...] nicht einfach nur, dass irgendwie perfekt formulieren können, aber irgendwie dann [...] nicht klarkommen würden, vielleicht im Alltag, wenn sie in einem anderen Land sind. Natürlich müssen diese Sachen aber verzahnt werden und zusammen auch verwendet, also gelernt werden. [...] interkulturelles Lernen ohne die Sprache ist dann auch kein Sprachenunterricht, Fremdsprachenunterricht. Von daher finde ich, für mich haben sie beide eine große Rolle, spielen eine große Rolle im Unterricht, im Klassenraum“* (Interview R2, pp. 7-8, ll. 229-237). This aspect was repeated by many interviewees. *“Also das vorwiegende Ziel empfinde ich, dass die Schülerinnen und Schüler vor allen Dingen sich sicher in der Fremdsprache ausdrücken können. Wobei ich immer sagen würde, dass Fluency vor Accuracy geht, dass die halt einfach, wenn die im englischsprachigen Ausland sind, sich verständigen können, alltagstägliche Themen behandeln, besprechen können, diskutieren können, [...] dass ihnen halt bewusst ist irgendwie, ich muss vielleicht nicht jede Vokabel*

ganz akkurat kennen, um mich im englischsprachigen Ausland verständigen zu können“ (Interview R4, pg. 5, ll. 146-152).

6.2.11.2. English as a global language

A few teacher trainees mention the aspect of English as a global language and the goal of learning the language to this end. *“Ich denke, dass die englische Sprache immer mehr an Bedeutung gewinnt, gerade durch die Digitalisierung, diese ganze Onlinesprache und diese ganze, ja, Programmiersprache auch und so weiter. Das ist alles auf Englisch, das heißt, die englische Sprache wird auch für uns in Deutschland immer wichtiger, also es ist eigentlich mehr oder weniger, außer man wird jetzt vielleicht Bäcker oder Mechaniker, nein, wobei da auch, wird es immer wichtiger auch Englisch sprechen zu können. Und ich denke, das hat sich in den letzten Jahren verändert, dass man in seinem Alltag immer mit englischen Begriffen, englischer Sprache in Verbindung kommt und das vor 50, 60 Jahren einfach nicht der Fall war, dass unsere Eltern, die jetzt vielleicht 60 Jahre alt sind, das in der Form nicht hatten, wie wir jetzt, oder die Schülergeneration jetzt“ (Interview R8, pp. 5-6, ll. 160-169).*

6.2.11.3. Playful English learning

Interviewee R1 talks about the goal of English language teaching and learning to create a playful introduction to learning languages, thus awakening and then fostering motivation. *“Also in der Grundschule, denke ich, ist es vor allem zu Beginn erstmal, den Kindern so einen spielerischen Einstieg in die Sprache zu ermöglichen, die zu motivieren und denen Lust darauf zu machen, dass sie halt Spaß bekommen, das zu lernen“ (Interview R1, pg. 4, ll. 125-127).*

7. Discussion

The present study offers the first in-depth exploration of the attitudes and beliefs of teacher trainers and teacher trainees in NRW concerning the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom.

7.1. English language skills

Firstly, the survey conducted prior to the interviews examines numerous interesting aspects. Concerning some of the questions, there appears to be a

high level of consensus between all participants, regardless of what group they belong to. Question one, *Ich fühle mich in der Lage, mich fließend und kompetent auf Englisch auszudrücken*, was answered by all participants with either agreement or strong agreement (arithmetic mean Likert score of 1.1 for both groups of participants), indicating either widespread confidence felt by both teacher trainers and teacher trainees in their own language abilities or, perhaps, an unwillingness to express reservations concerning their own competence. Moreover, in response to question 37 in the teacher trainer survey, *Die Referendare, die ich betreue, können fließend und kompetent die englische Sprache einsetzen*, all but one teacher trainer agreed and one agreed strongly with the statement (arithmetic mean Likert score of 1.9). Here, there is little chance of an unwillingness on the part of the teacher trainers to express that their teacher trainees have a lack of English language skills.

In the interviews, however, several teacher trainers and trainees mentioned a lack of English language skills as being a potential cause for the use or over-use of the L1 during EFL lessons, referring, however, not to themselves but rather other people's lack of English language skills. Some teacher trainers talked about the lack of English language skills their trainees had as being cause for their use of the L1. This would in fact contradict the overall picture the teacher trainees painted of their own language abilities but also the teacher trainer responses to question 37 as outlined in the paragraph above. Perhaps, on the whole, the impression of trainees' language proficiency is very positive and the interviews merely shed light on a few select examples of when trainers have had to oversee trainees lacking in English language skills, without this representing the norm.

Others refer to fellow qualified teachers who are lacking in fluency within the English language. As outlined in section 2.6, although it has been shown that code-switching is not caused by a lack of proficiency in either of the given languages (Heredia and Altarriba, 2001: 165), it does seem to be common, persistent, opinion among teachers that low proficiency could be seen as the root of L1 use in the foreign language classroom. This, as discussed in section 3.3.6., is also reiterated by some scholars who see a lack of L2 proficiency as being a source of L1 use in the classroom (see Franklin, 1990: 20-21; Harbord, 1992: 350; Butzkamm and Caldwell, 2009: 86). This suggests an ongoing

discrepancy between what certain scholars have established concerning the connection between language proficiency and code-switching and the enduring, somewhat pejorative attitude towards it. It could, however, also highlight the differences between code-switching as part of a natural bilingual setting and code-switching in a foreign language learning setting. It is difficult, without knowing the motivations behind the mentioned teachers' switches in language, whether or not their switches were indeed due to a lack of linguistic resources in the L2 or whether they were consciously, or potentially unconsciously, making use of bilingual strategies useful in the given situation. Indeed, one needs a certain level of fluency in English to be able to remain in the language throughout lessons where much of what happens requires flexible reactions by teachers. What is required is much more than a knowledge of the grammatical ins and outs of the language, but rather a confident command of the language to be able to competently and flexibly communicate in the L2 when it calls for it.

One teacher trainer mentions native speakers as a way in which a very good command of the English language can offer particularly "authentic" input in the EFL classroom. Another, however, recognises that learning English nowadays is much more than just for "speaking with the native speaker". The idea of native speakers being the only ones able to provide "authentic" language input invokes thoughts of the native speaker bias and the long-held notion that "the ideal teacher of English is a native speaker" (Phillipson, 2009: 12), which no longer reflects the learning of English today or the most common situations in which current learners of English will communicate in the language in the future. However, the fact that the teacher trainers and trainees interviewed for this study reported feeling very confident in their English language proficiency creates the impression that they do not see themselves as inferior to a native English speaker in their ability to teach the language.

7.2. Language choice in general

Questions two to five were to gauge an overall picture of the participants' feelings concerning the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom. Question two, *Ich vermeide so weit wie möglich die L1 im Englischunterricht*, was met with either agreement or strong agreement from all participants (arithmetic mean Likert scores of 1.2 and 1.4 from teacher trainees and trainers, respectively). It could be derived from this clear agreement with the avoidance of the L1 that those

participating in this study are proponents of an exclusively L2 classroom. When asked more in depth about their use of the L1 in the interviews, participants also highlighted their desire to remain in the L2 and avoid the L1 as much as possible. One refers to the journey of “*Erziehung zur Einsprachigkeit*“ as being a “*ganz dickes Brett, was man bohren muss*” (Interview 1, pg. 4, l. 107), essentially a monumental task but one of utmost importance. Moreover, question three, *Ich bin von mir selbst enttäuscht, wenn ich viel L1 im Englischunterricht verwende*, had mean Likert scores of 1.8 and 2 for teacher trainees and trainers, indicating general agreement with the statement. The aspect of disappointment and frustration was also touched upon in the interviews. Many of the teacher trainers reported feelings of annoyance, frustration and even guilt at themselves, believing that they could or should try harder and be more prepared, which would supposedly enable them to remain in the L2. Feelings of guilt seem to be common place for teachers of English when they use the L1 in their lessons and, as seen in section 3.5.2.3., this aspect has also been reported on in other studies (Copland and Neokleous, 2011: 278; Macaro, 1997: 91). This coincides with the idea of code-switching in the foreign language classroom often being seen as “forbidden practice” (Simon, 2000: 312) and “undesirable or to be regretted” (Macaro, 2005: 64). These feelings of frustration could also derive from realising a certain incongruency between how they see themselves or how they aspire to be as a teacher of English and their actual practice.

In the interviews, the trainers and trainees made it clear that speaking lots of, and even exclusively, English was a central aspect of being an English teacher, something to admire when observed in others and something they personally aim for, as also indicated in their responses to question two in the survey. In the interview data, teacher trainers and trainees report the importance of exclusive L2 use in order to embody the idea of a linguistic role-model. Moreover, primarily teacher trainees mention admiration for teachers who manage to conduct exclusively L2 lessons. This aspect of identifying with being an English teacher and this meaning extensive use of the L2 was also mentioned in the study by Bilgin (2016: 694-695), as outlined in section 3.5.5., where teacher trainees connected their use of language to who they are and who they aspire to be as teachers of English. Self-reflection is of central importance for teachers as this helps avoid incongruence between their beliefs

and practices which, if not addressed, could lead to job dissatisfaction in the long term (Buehl and Beck, 2014: 81). This idea and the importance of self-reflection was also mentioned by teacher trainers as a way of critically considering when and if L1 usage is necessary.

Others did report not feeling frustrated, believing that when they switched they did so for a reason and they stood by that, indicating that their L1 use is perhaps more congruent with their beliefs concerning the use of language in the EFL classroom. Despite agreeing with trying to avoid the L1 as much as possible, agreement with the statement given for question 4, *Ich glaube, dass sich die Nutzung der L1 im Englischunterricht nachteilig auf das Lernen der englischen Sprache auswirkt*, was less pronounced (arithmetic mean Likert scores of 2.6 and 2.1 for teacher trainees and trainers, respectively). This could indicate a less puritan view of L2 use in the EFL classroom than could be construed from the survey answers to questions 2 and 3. However, a lot of teacher trainers still agreed that the L1 can be detrimental to the learning of English. This was mostly shown in the interviews where many teacher trainers and trainees put forth the opinion that overuse of the L1 impedes language learning. Question 5 looked at a similar aspect, namely, *Ich finde es sinnvoll, die L1 im Englischunterricht in meinen Aussagen einzusetzen*. Both teacher trainees and teacher trainers tended to disagree with this statement (arithmetic mean Likert scores of 2.4 and 2.8, respectively), although there were only a few who disagreed strongly and some who actually agreed with the statement.

The underlying reasons for teacher trainers' and teacher trainees' general feelings towards appropriate language use in the English language classroom were further investigated during the interviews. Here, the participants were asked whether they knew of any theories or arguments to underpin why one should either avoid the L1 or make use of it. The extent to which individuals were able to name any theories or arguments differed. Some were not able to offer any for or against the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom at all. *"Konkrete Theorien oder wissenschaftliche Ansätze fallen mir da keine ein"* (Interview R5, pg. 1, l. 14). Others claim to base their linguistic choices on experience and intuition. *"Also alles, was ich habe, sind sozusagen Erfahrungswerte beziehungsweise so intuitive Modelle aus dem Bauchgefühl raus"* (Interview R3, pg. 1, ll. 12-13). A further group were able to vaguely refer to a theoretical

foundation of language use in the classroom without being able to be specific. *“Also ich kenne welche aus dem Studium. Aber ich würde das jetzt bestimmt alles durcheinanderwerfen, die Namen und so. Aber, ja, da gibt es ja verschiedene Theorien. Also, dass halt- also es gibt ja so welche, die besagen, dass es total schlecht ist, überhaupt die L1 zu benutzen im Englischunterricht“* (Interview R1, pg. 1, ll. 12-13). This, on the whole, indicates how several teacher trainers and teacher trainees involved in the study do not base their teaching decisions concerning language use on concrete knowledge but rather on their gut feeling and intuition. This can be seen in other studies on teacher decision making in which teachers have been shown to favour their intuitive expertise over data-based decisions (Vanlommel, Gasse, Vanhoof and Petegem, 2017: 1).

Some of the participants, however, seemed to have a more sound basis for their decision making processes concerning language choice in their lessons. One more concrete argument made by both a teacher trainer and two teacher trainees was that of the role which a teacher of English should embody, namely that of a linguistic role model. They see this as a clear argument for the extensive use of the L2 in the EFL classroom. They see it as their responsibility as teachers of English to model the behaviour desired of their students, namely the ability to remain in the L2. This was also suggested by teacher trainers as a way of ensuring L2 exclusivity as far as possible – identifying oneself as being a teacher of English, to see it and the English language as being part and parcel of who they are. These notions also derive from a fundamental feeling that the EFL classroom should, on the whole, represent a monolingual space, of which the teacher is the main driving force. As one of the teacher trainees mentions, they can only expect learners to behave in ways which have previously and consistently been shown to them, *“Denn welche Verbindlichkeit besteht, wenn ich die L1 benutze. Und die Schüler sollen jetzt aber bitte in ihrer Gruppenarbeit auf Englisch sprechen“* (Interview R6, pg. 6, ll. 186-189).

The notion of the linguistic role model seems to be able to be split into two aspects, namely the model representation of the English language itself and the model representation of a desired behaviour to remain in the L2 during lessons. The first aspect could be seen as deriving from the native-speaker bias, namely the notion that native speakers are better teachers of any language. In their

desire to completely avoid use of the L1, teachers could be attempting to model the native speaker and a native-speaking environment in their classrooms. The second aspect of the argument for exclusive L2 use in order to be a linguistic role model, however, suggests a connection with social cognitive theory and more specifically the concept of observational learning and modelling. This theory posits that modelled behaviours are observed and then, as is the goal, imitated (Bandura, 1971). In this way, the teachers' goal is that their behaviour of remaining exclusively in the L2 is modelled and imitated by the learners.

This argument for the case of an exclusively L2 classroom ties in with probably the most frequently mentioned argument in favour of L1 avoidance. Several teacher trainers and teacher trainees mention, either explicitly by name or implicitly, Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1985). The use of this hypothesis as an argument for extensive, if not exclusive L2 use was dealt with in section 3.3.1. Many of those interviewed seem to work under the belief that the more input in the L2, the better the achieved attainment in the language. They mention the aspect of the "*Sprachbad*" and how providing this is of utmost importance for successful learning of English. One teacher combines the aspects input and output in a statement in their interview. "*Ein zentrales Argument, für oder gegen die Nutzung der L1, für die größtmögliche Nutzung von der L2, ist, dass der Englischunterricht, einer der wenigen Gelegenheiten ist, wo die Schüler Englisch sprechen. Also, dass sozusagen möglichst hohe individuelle Sprechzeit und großes Sprachbad. Und, dazu gehört eben, dass ich so viel wie möglich L2 verwende und, erfahrungsgemäß, je mehr ich L2 verwende, desto sicherer werde ich. Das ist so das Hauptargument*" (Interview 9, pg. 1, ll. 15-20). Here, as is in line with developments on Krashen's initial theory that comprehensible input in a language is the driving factor in becoming proficient in a language, the learners' output is also mentioned as central to the successful learning of English (cf. Swain, 1985; Swain and Lapkin, 1995). The fact that this theory is often mentioned as an argument against L1 usage in the EFL classroom could offer a potential explanation for the guilt felt by teachers of English when they use the L1. If teachers are convinced that there is a positive correlation between L2 input and better language skills, then they see their own L1 usage as standing in direct opposition to what they deem to be most helpful for learning. In this way, perhaps teachers of English are concerned that their

use of the L1 deprives learners of reaching their potential when learning English.

This argument for an exclusively L2 classroom explained above can be seen as part and parcel of the argument that languages are best learnt in more authentic settings. This aspect was dealt with in section 3.3.2. and was a further argument put forth by teacher trainers and teacher trainees in the interviews in order to substantiate why they felt it important to remain in the L2 throughout their lessons. With creating an L2-only environment, teachers are attempting to foster an authentic English speaking environment. *“[...]ja also die Theorie, dass man eine natürliche Sprache am besten lernt, je authentischer das Setting ist. Also, ich lerne am besten, wenn ich tatsächlich in diesem Land bin und überall der Sprache begegne und deswegen versuchen wir ja einen möglichst authentischen Kommunikationsrahmen im Englischunterricht zu schaffen“* (Interview 5, pg. 1, ll. 12-16). Authenticity belongs to the fundamental principles of foreign language learning (De Florio-Hansen, 2010: 263), therefore it is understandable that teachers gravitate towards this goal. The interviewees mention instances where they try to increase the authenticity of their linguistic exchanges with pupils. *“Ich sage immer, „Where I am is England,“ sodass immer klar ist, wenn ich da bin, ist das ein englischsprachiger Raum. Ich spreche die auch auf den Fluren auf Englisch an. Ich kommuniziere auch per E-Mail in aller, aller Regel auf Englisch mit ihnen und ich erwarte das auch von den Schülern“* (Interview 7, pp. 4-5, ll. 123-126). Here, the teacher trainer attempts to create an authentic L2 setting by implying the geographical location of her interactions with the learners as residing in England. Teachers of English seem to make the connection between authenticity and L2-exclusivity. However, are foreign language classrooms only authentic if they completely eradicate use of the L1? This, once again takes a very monolingual viewpoint of language learning, assuming that the authentic and “normal” setting for learning a language is a monolingual one. Perhaps, one could also rethink the idea of authenticity in the sense of language choice, in that what is authentic for multilingual settings is not necessarily adherence to monolingual norms.

A further argument given in the interviews is maintaining an exclusively L2 classroom with the goal of fostering language-learning strategies. This aspect was also discussed in section 3.3.3. as one of the arguments in favour of a

monolingual L2 classroom. Without being explicitly mentioned by any of the interviewees, the type of language-learning strategies being referred to are “compensation strategies” which entail learners gauging meaning from context when they have incomplete knowledge at hand (Oxford, 1990: 138). One teacher trainer explains relatively well what compensation strategies are, without naming them as such. *“Dann, was noch wichtig ist, die Kinder lernen ja, sollen ja wesentliche Strategien der Entschlüsselung lernen, wie sie Kommunikation verstehen können. Eine wesentliche Strategie ist eben aus Kontext heraus, Mimik, Gestik, unter anderem auch zu verwenden, um Inhalte zu verstehen und das gelingt eben nur in einer Einsprachigkeit“* (Interview 4, pg. 1, ll. 24-28). All these aspects which are used in addition to the mere words that are said in an utterance are ways in which learners can compensate when they do not understand the linguistic input in its entirety. Extensive research on the topic of language-learning strategies has also shown their importance. A strong positive correlation between high strategy use and more success in foreign language learning has been shown by various researchers and this notion is now a widely accepted fact (cf. O’Malley and Chamot, 1990; Green and Oxford, 1995; Peacock and Ho, 2003). “Good language learners have a wide repertoire of learning strategies and use of series of strategies, rather than a single one, when engaged in a learning task” (Božinović and Sindik, 2011:7). Therefore, the teacher trainers’ and teacher trainees’ intuition about the importance of fostering these strategies seems to be right on the mark. Fostering language-learning strategies enables learners to help themselves and develop into more successful, autonomous learners. In this sense, it seems to be of importance to remain in the L2, at least for specific portions of lessons, to encourage learners to develop compensation strategies and enable them to build up a tolerance to the ambiguity of situations in which not all linguistic input is understood.

When asked about the role of the L1 in the EFL classroom in the interviews, teacher trainers and trainees gave answers ranging from it having no role, to it being a helpful resource for various learning opportunities. The responses from the participants can certainly be considered within Macaro’s (1997: 91) differentiation of positions on the role of the L1 in the foreign language classroom, namely the Virtual Position, the Maximal Position and the Optimal Position. Some interviewees could be considered to occupy a Virtual position, advocating for total exclusion of the L1 from the L2 classroom. An interesting

quote by one teacher trainer highlights this position very well when they describe the L1 as being the villain in the EFL classroom, “*die Rolle des Antagonisten. (lacht) Des Bösewichts, den es zu bekämpfen gilt, den man als Doppel-Null-Agent ausschalten muss*“ (Interview 1, pg. 4, ll. 101-103). This opinion corresponds with the move away from and ensuing villainization of the Grammar-Translation Method of foreign language teaching. Following a long phase of extensive use of the L1 in the Grammar-Translation Method, it was thereafter seen as having no function in the foreign language classroom. Such was the advent of the Direct Method, where the approach moved towards a teaching of foreign languages akin to how first languages are learned, “the learner is urged to think in the L2 and avoid code-switching or mixing” (Sridhar, 1994: 802). The aforementioned quote from the teacher trainer, depicting the L1 as the villain in the EFL classroom, additionally reminds one of the initial quotation in this thesis, insisting that the L1 “has no place whatsoever in the foreign-language class, whether in the form of the spoken or of the written word, or even in the pupils' thoughts” (Bolitho, 1976: 113).

Other teachers can be seen as occupying the Maximal Position, being less puritan in their beliefs but mainly advocating for extensive use of the L2. They were less dramatic in their views than in the above teacher trainer quotation but their statements focussed on extensive and near to exclusive use of the L2 without demonising the L1. They, however, see “probably no pedagogical value in learner use of L1 and almost certainly none in teacher use of L1” (Macaro, 1997: 91). This is reflected in the teachers' insistence that they try to use the L1 as little as possible and only when it is absolutely necessary. The majority of the teacher trainers and teacher trainees can be seen to locate the space somewhere between this view and that of the Optimal position, where they see “some value in teacher use of L1 and some value in learner use of L1” (ibid.). This can be seen reflected in the amount of instances that were reported where L1 use in the classroom could serve certain purposes which shall be touched upon further on in the discussion. The occupation of different spaces along this spectrum could be considered as a potential explanation to why some interviewees expressed feelings of guilt at their use of the L1 and others do not. If they occupy a space more towards the Virtual Position, then they are much more likely to feel a certain incongruence between their actions and their

principles concerning language choice in the EFL classroom if they occasionally make use of the L1.

In the interviews, many teacher trainees report their opinion concerning L1 and L2 use in the EFL classroom as having developed and changed over the course of their teacher training. This suggests that beliefs concerning the topic are not static, but rather subject to change caused by personal experiences had while teaching. This has also been shown to be possible in other research on teacher beliefs (Richardson, 2003: 11). Many mention an initial more puritan approach to the use of the L2 as slightly dwindling over time when they were confronted with the realities of the classroom and the potential benefits of using the L1. Some say this in a way that more sounds like they are still, to some extent, working through this change in beliefs and they continue to harbour disappointment at not speaking as much English as they had planned at the beginning of their teacher training, whereas others seem to have realised, in practise, what benefits using the L1 can actually have. This second group speak of having found balance in the distribution of language use in their English lessons.

It was, however, also the case that some teacher trainees feel that they had become stricter with their insistence on L2-only policies in the classroom throughout their training and that they had, in fact, stuck very strongly to the principles concerning language use that they had at the beginning of their teacher training. These thoughts portrayed in the interviews indicate that beliefs and intentions concerning use of language in the EFL classroom have a tendency to change and be affected by outside influences such as experiences in the classroom. In this way, it could be assumed that beliefs garnered throughout trainees' academic careers can be affected and influenced throughout the practical part of their teacher training and through the input given to them by their trainers.

7.3. Use of the L1 for organisational matters and discipline

The following section shall move on to examine the functions and uses of the L1 in the EFL classroom as shown in the survey and the interviews. The survey interestingly showed several questions for which the results differed significantly depending on whether they were answered by a teacher trainer or

a teacher trainee. Several of the questions that showed significant results could be subsumed under the same category and, thus, could have similar reasons for the different results between the two groups. The first of these questions to be addressed are questions 6 and 7, namely, *Ich finde es sinnvoll, für organisatorische Dinge, die L1 zu verwenden* and *Ich nutze häufig die L1 für organisatorische Dinge*. For these questions, teacher trainees were significantly ($q=0.008$) and ($q=0.006$), respectively, more likely to agree with the given statement than the teacher trainers. The second pair of questions that will be discussed in this section are 8 and 9, namely, *Ich finde es sinnvoll, für Disziplinprobleme die L1 zu verwenden* and *Ich verwende häufig die L1 für Disziplinprobleme*. Teacher trainees were once again significantly more likely ($q=0.008$) and ($q=0.037$), respectively, to agree with the given statements.

There are several potential explanations for these significant differences in the results. Firstly, as discussed in section 2.4., the multilingual turn and with it a shift towards the acceptance of multilingualism as a norm is a relatively recent and still on-going development in academia and pedagogy (cf. May, 2014; Conteh and Meier, 2014; Ellis, 2021). Being fresh out of university, teacher trainees are more likely to have been taught in seminars dealing with the topics on English language teaching and educational studies through the lens of the multilingual turn. This could, potentially, open up younger teachers of English to the realities of the pupils in their classrooms as multilingual individuals and make them keen, whether consciously or not, to hone their multilingual competences rather than adhere to strict monolingual norms within the foreign language classroom.

The significant difference between teacher trainers' and teacher trainees' language choice for disciplinary and organisational matters could also be caused by the teacher trainees' lack of experience. The significantly different results when it came to these aspects stand in contrast to the anecdotal, observational information given during the interviews by teacher trainees concerning the tendency for older teachers to be more inclined to use the L1 in English lessons. The survey, in fact, suggests that younger, more inexperienced teachers, use the L1 more so for the above mentioned two aspects. Teacher trainers in this study have an average of 16.6 years teaching experience. This is in comparison to the teacher trainees who are either still part way through their

training or just finished, amassing to no more than a year or two experience each. These years of experience the teacher trainers have, have allowed them to hone their skills and become increasingly comfortable being teachers of English and standing in front of classes of pupils. Over time, they have supposedly developed tips and tricks which enable them to feel more comfortable remaining in the L2. Moreover, those asked are not only more experienced teachers of English but also teacher trainers, therefore deemed to have a particularly high level of experience and expertise in the teaching of English. This lack of experience that teacher trainees have is also referred to by teacher trainers. They see teacher trainees' lack of experience as being a potential cause for their increased use of the L1. One teacher trainer sees it as being something that occurs often at the beginning for teacher trainees but has hope that, after time, they will achieve a more exclusively L2 learning environment in their English lessons. *„Aber ich glaube, das ist wirklich eine Erfahrungssache und eine Übungssache“* (Interview 2, pg. 5, ll. 154-155), suggesting that the ability to remain in the L2 is a skill to be learned and improved upon.

Concerning the answers given for the questions on L1 usage for discipline problems, one further explanation could be that discipline problems are something that teacher trainees have to deal with on a more regular basis than their more experienced counterparts. Their tendency towards reverting to the L1 for this function could be to do with a so called “Praxisschock” (Kostorz and Schlosser, 2014: 9) often experienced by young teachers during their training when, all of a sudden, they are the ones standing in front of a class and are faced with the monumental task of successfully leading the class and teaching them. This could, indeed, be one reason as to why teacher trainees tend more towards the L1 when dealing with discipline problems because they are still very much in the process of learning how best to deal with them in general, let alone how best to deal with them in a foreign language. On the whole, teacher trainees talk about using the L1 for discipline problems sometimes as a conscious decision made because they think that the learners will not understand them in the L2. *“[...] weil ich das Gefühl habe, die verstehen mich sonst nicht. Und das ist etwas, das ist mir sehr wichtig, dass die sich, ja, gewissermaßen verhalten. Richtig verhalten. Wenn sie das nicht machen, dann sage ich es auch auf Deutsch“* (Interview R11, pg. 1, ll. 22-26).

Another aspect, is the emotional trigger which can be a cause of switching languages. Code-switching can happen for a multitude of reasons, which can be categorised into situational and metaphorical switching, metaphorical switches being “when the speaker wants to convey a meaning beyond what s/he says” (Garfaranga, 2007: 97). Here, one could talk about code-switching for disciplinary matters as a bilingual strategy to convey meaning beyond what is being said, whether or not this is conscious, for example to convey personal annoyance, anger or disappointment at the situation. As well as the factor of possibly being confronted with fewer instances of disciplinary problems, teachers with more experience may tend to be less emotionally triggered by the behaviour of their pupils, hence perhaps less likely to spontaneously switch languages, being able to confidently and calmly deal with the issue while remaining in the L2.

7.4. Use of the L1 for clarifying task instructions

Another common reason mentioned for switching languages during English lessons was for the purpose of giving or clarifying task instructions. The results of the survey show that all participants believe in the use of the L2 for this purpose and there was no significant difference between teacher trainers and teacher trainees in the way they answered the questions pertaining to this aspect. All participants either disagreed or disagreed strongly with questions 10 and 11, namely *Ich finde es sinnvoll, für Arbeitsanweisungen die L1 zu verwenden* and *Ich verwende häufig die L1 für Arbeitsanweisungen*. This shows a clear desire on the part of the teachers to achieve near exclusive L2 usage for the purpose of giving task instructions in class.

The interviews, in contradiction with the results of the survey, showed teachers to talk about L1 use rather often in connection with giving task instructions. As outlined in section 3.5.2.2.3., other studies have also shown classroom code-switching for the purpose of giving task instructions to be common place (De la Campa and Nassaji, 2009: 747-750; Hobbs, 2010: 50; Hosoda, 2000: 75). Some teacher trainers describe this as something often observed in teacher trainees’ lessons. *“Es ist häufig, dass eine Arbeitsanweisung erst in Englisch gegeben wird und dann übersetzt ein Schüler die nochmal für die anderen als Kontrollübersetzung. Manchmal übersetzt das aber auch die Lehrkraft. Manchmal wird es auch direkt auf Deutsch gesagt, in*

der Fünf oder Sechs, schon mal ab und zu“ (Interview 10, pg. 8, ll. 252-255). This statement, and also other statements made by teacher trainers concerning their trainees’ use of the L1 for giving task instructions, is incongruous with the answers given by the trainees in the survey. Perhaps this is an example of where practice does not adhere to beliefs held. The teacher trainees apparently have the goal of not using the L1 for such moments in their lessons but are reported by teacher trainers as struggling at this. One possible explanation is that they are still lacking in the skills and techniques needed to execute complex task instructions solely in the L2 but indeed have the intention of doing so. At the beginning of their careers as teachers, they may feel the need to hold on to the L1 and to offer it as support to ensure that everyone has understood and to give themselves a feeling of security. As one teacher trainer said, “[...] *weil das A und O ist ja immer für die Lehramtsanwärterinnen und Lehramtsanwärter, dass die Aufgabenstellung klar überkommt*“ (Interview 4, pg. 10, ll. 301-302). One teacher trainee also corroborates what the trainers said about use of the L1 for giving task instructions in their in-depth interview answers. *“Dann wird in der Regel nochmal auf Deutsch geklärt, so das war jetzt aber echt nicht richtig, so das und das, weil sonst lässt man die Schüler, gerade bei einer längeren Arbeitsphase, doch ein Stück weit in die falsche Richtung arbeiten*“ (Interview R6, pp. 9-10, ll. 305-310). Here we see that even though the general desire and intention may be to remain in the L2 for these phases, the L1 is sometimes used as a tool to help move along the lesson by ensuring learner understanding.

One important point made in reference to teachers switching to the L1 by one of the teacher trainers is the widespread misapprehension that just because something is said in the L1, all learners understand the intended meaning. *“Das ist dann durchaus eine Gefahr sogar, dass man denkt, so, jetzt habe ich das doch auf Deutsch erklärt, jetzt müsst ihr es aber verstanden haben und sich dann wundert, dass dann die Hausaufgabe oder in der Klassenarbeit trotzdem alles schiefgelaufen ist*“ (Interview 1, pg. 5, ll. 160-169). This teacher trainer sees this as being one of the major pitfalls of using the L1. Indeed, in foreign language teaching, everything in the lesson can become a topic of learning. In this way the task instruction is just as much part and parcel of what they should learn in the foreign language classrooms as the output being produced. Reducing learning to merely the output and product at the end of the

lesson and striving to reach that at all costs by taking away other chances of language learning by switching to the L1 to give the task instructions just to get the learners to the production stage of the lesson more quickly is skipping integral parts of language learning. This is recognised by another interviewee who says that the difficult part of task instructions is often not the use of the L2, as many teachers believe, but the fact that it is, in general, challenging for young learners to follow often complex instructions given in class, regardless of the language. The interviewees mention numerous aspects that learners have to remember such as which materials to use, which partner to work with, when they have to switch partners, what they have to do and so on and so forth. Another interviewee advocates for a reduction in language in general. Reducing language in the EFL classroom has the potential to make language learning much more accessible for a wider range of pupils, while still allowing for extensive use of the L2. This is something which has become a topic of interest in teaching methodology in general. There are a whole host of approaches and methods subsumed under the umbrella in Germany of “sprachsensibler Unterricht” (Qualitäts- und UnterstützungsAgentur - Landesinstitut für Schule, 2021). With this approach, teachers should become aware of the difficulties learners have with academic language in general and should introduce methods into their lessons in order to support the understanding and learning of this type of language. This can also be applied in English lessons to allow for use of the L2 while supporting learners understanding of it.

Concerning the aspect of giving task instructions, a differentiation is made between different ages of learners. It is seemingly more accepted by teacher trainers and trainees to make use of the L1 as a type of support with groups at the start of learning English than with those more advanced in the language. One teacher trainer suggests starting with supporting task instructions with use of the L1 but to reduce this gradually over time. *“Und da ist es nicht nur legitim, sondern unbedingt nötig, dass die Schülerinnen und Schüler das dann auch nochmal auf Deutsch gespiegelt bekommen, peu à peu abbauen natürlich, damit das nicht irgendwie so eine reine Gewohnheit wird“* (Interview 1, pg. 3, ll. 90-96). This notion that younger learners receive more input in the L1 than their more experienced counterparts is supported in the survey where, apart from a select few who disagreed, all other participants either agreed or strongly agreed with question 24, *Ich verwende die L1 in niedrigen Klassenstufen eher als in*

höheren Klassenstufen (Likert arithmetic means of 1.6 and 2.1 for teacher trainees and teacher trainers, respectively). This shows a general acceptance of more L1 usage with less experienced learners. This intuitive behaviour on the part of teachers is corroborated by certain studies on the use of the L1 in the foreign language classroom which show younger learners to particularly benefit from the additional use of the L1 (cf. Lee and Macaro, 2013), as shown in section 3.5.4.4.. On the whole, switching for this reason can be referred to as having a transactional function, that the idea behind the switch is to offer scaffolding to assist language learning or problem solving (Holmes and Stubbe, 2004: 135).

7.5. Use of the L1 for translating vocabulary

A further question which produced significantly different results for the two groups of participants was number 13, namely, *Ich übersetze häufig unbekannte Wörter in die L1*, for which teacher trainees were significantly more likely to agree with the given statement than teacher trainers ($q=0.0008$). Once again, the question arises of whether this is due to a principled conviction resulting from the teacher trainees being educated in a different time, or whether this is due to a lack of experience in comparison to the teacher trainers. Perhaps the younger generation of teachers is generally more open to the notion of plurilingualism and fostering a linguistic multi-competence or perhaps they are just lacking the tools and techniques to remain in the L2 for all aspects of their lessons. Due to the fact that many of the teacher trainees seemed to hold teachers in high esteem who were constantly able to remain in the L2, it is possible that the second consideration is true. Nonetheless, as seen in section 3.5.4.4., studies by Macaro and colleagues (Tian and Macaro, 2012; Lee and Macaro, 2013; Zhao and Macaro, 2016) showed how using the equivalent word in the L1 leads to better retention of new vocabulary. This, however, does not appear to be known by the teacher trainees, at least it is not mentioned by any of them as an evidence-based foundation in their decision making process concerning their use of the L1 for translating unknown vocabulary.

As outlined in section 3.5.2.2.2., translation has furthermore been shown in studies to be not only common place (Kraemer, 2006; Jingxia, 2010; Garcia Cortés and Parks, 2019), but also to be a preferred method of learners for the introduction of new vocabulary (Atkinson, 1987: 242). Perhaps, whether

consciously or unconsciously, newer teachers are more keen to appease their learners, potentially as a means of fostering the student-teacher relationship and to be accepted by the learners as a new teacher. As shown in section 3.5.5., Orland-Barak and Yinon (2005:105) also suggest establishing rapport and a good student-teacher relationship with their learners is a main concern felt by novice teachers. Moreover, paraphrasing is certainly a skill that not only learners have to practice as part of their education in the English language but also teachers as a method of how to convey the meaning of an unknown L2 word. It requires an extensive active vocabulary to be able to offer explanations, synonyms, opposites of a given unknown word. It also requires a clear knowledge of the receptive vocabulary of the learners listening to the vocabulary explanation so as not to bombard them with numerous additional new words while explaining the first one. All in all, it is clearly a skill that has to be learned and perfected by teachers of English, one which is perhaps not always the easiest route to take when standing live in front of a class. Interestingly, this result is in contradiction with the findings of Macaro concerning his comparison of teacher trainees and experienced teachers (Macaro, 1997: 86), touched upon in section 3.5.5. His findings show teacher trainees to be less likely than their more experienced counterparts to use the L1 for vocabulary explanations. For the majority of other aspects, however, teacher trainees were more likely than experienced teachers to switch languages and Macaro reasoned this by stating that teacher trainees tend to get flustered more easily and make use of the L1 to help them out in these situations (ibid., 89).

7.6. Use of the L1 for explaining grammatical phenomena

A further reason to switch to the L1 mentioned across the board in the interviews was the use of the L1 when teaching grammatical phenomena. This echoes, to a certain extent, the results of the survey and the questions 16 and 17, *Ich finde es sinnvoll, grammatikalische Phänomene in der L1 zu erklären* and *Ich erkläre häufig grammatikalische Phänomene in der L1*, where, although some teachers and teacher trainees said that they disagreed or strongly disagreed with L1 usage to explain grammar, many also said that they believed L1 usage to make sense for this aspect of teaching English and said that they use the L1 for this in their lessons (arithmetic mean Likert scores of 2.6 and 2.4 for question 16 and 2.7 and 2.8 for question 17 for teacher trainees and

trainers, respectively). This data also reiterates findings from various other studies on the topic showing the common use of L1 for grammar explanations as discussed in section 3.5.2.2.2. (cf. Horasan, 2014: 39; Garcia Cortés and Parks, 2019: 30; Copland and Neokleous, 2011: 271-272).

One major reason mentioned for the use of the L1 for this aspect was the worry that learners would otherwise not understand what was being taught. Use of the L1 for teaching grammar has also been shown to be a preferred method of learners of English for the reason that they feel they are better able to understand the novel grammatical phenomenon when offered explanation in their L1, as outlined in section 3.5.3.3. (Wei, 2013: 196; Bruen and Kelly, 2014: 9). A teacher trainee believed it to be so difficult to teach grammar in the L2 due to a lack of pupil-understanding that they were convinced that L1 usage for this aspect was the best approach. *“Okay, [...] bei Grammatikeinführungen finde ich es halt schwachsinnig. Das geht halt nicht. Dann verlierst du die Leute halt [...] ja, das macht Sinn, das in Phasen einzuteilen und dann auch ganz transparent zu sagen: Okay, das machen wir jetzt“* (Interview R10, pg. 4, ll. 105-108).

Whereas some seem to see use of the L1 as a last resort, others report using it particularly for certain grammar topics when pupil-understanding seems to be lacking. Several teacher trainers mentioned a conscious choice to use the L1 when it came to certain tenses and the comparison of differences between the L1 and L2. This was often the case when it came to tenses which do not really exist in the same way in the L1. Here, teachers seem to make a pedagogical decision to put correctly learning the grammatical phenomenon, so the content-related goal, above the communicative goal of speaking and hearing the English language. *“[...] Und es gibt schwierige komplexe Grammatikthemen, bei denen ich dann schon auch auf Deutsch vielleicht das mal erkläre oder den Unterschied vor allen Dingen zum Deutschen klarmachen würde. Zum Beispiel ein Beispiel wäre Simple Past und Present Perfect“* (Interview 2, pg. 1, ll. 26-29). Here, teachers are recognising the potential benefits of tapping into the knowledge held in the existing linguistic repertoire, hoping that this will help to support and reinforce knowledge about the L2. This comparison of languages is something mentioned not only for grammatical aspects and shows, even if not explicitly mentioned as such, the teacher trainer and teacher trainees’ knowledge of the importance of making use of and

fostering meta-linguistic awareness. This is also said by other scholars to be of great importance and an argument for allowing the use of all resources available in an individual's linguistic repertoire when learning additional languages as discussed in section 3.4.4. (Schnuch, 2015: 129-130).

The knowledge that another linguistic system is available to learners of English as a foreign language was also mentioned by interviewees in reference to the role that the L1 can play in general. One quotation, in fact, really highlights the importance of this and reiterates what scholars say on the topic of multilingual learning. *“Ja im Sinne der aufgeklärten Einsprachigkeit auch, denke ich, ist es ein sprachliches System, was schon vorhanden ist. [...] Also auf der metasprachlichen Ebene spielt es eine Rolle, [...] weil eben ein komplettes sprachliches System vorhanden ist. Was eine Verschwendung von Ressourcen auch wäre, wenn man das nicht nutzen würde im Fremdsprachenunterricht“* (Interview 3, pg. 3, ll. 72-79). The interviewee here sees the potential resource that the L1 offers and believes that this should be used to foster the learning of a new language.

What becomes apparent when considering the frequency at which the aspect of grammar was mentioned in connection with the L1 is that it clearly has, or at least is seen to have, a practical usage here. If, in fact, exclusive L2 classrooms are the goal, then a different approach entirely will have to be taken to the instruction of grammatical phenomena. As much as the teaching methodology advocates for an inductive approach to the teaching of grammar, and a move away from the isolation of single grammatical phenomena, a quick glance at school books shows that grammar is still instructed in a formal way with grammar rules and isolated tasks. This linguistic meta-language, also referred to by interviewees, is seen as one of the major barriers to teaching grammar in the L2. What the interviewees' responses concerning this aspect make apparent is that we are not dealing with an L1 acquisition environment, that grammatical aspects do have to be looked at and considered and that the key to be able to do this seems to lie in the language already available to the learners, their L1.

7.7. Use of the L1 to foster the student-teacher relationship

In the survey, question 20, *Ich finde es sinnvoll, für ein Vier-Augen-Gespräch im Englischunterricht die L1 zu nutzen*, was met with general agreement with arithmetic mean Likert scores of 1.7 and 2 for teacher trainees and trainers, respectively. Also related is question 28, *Ich verwende die L1, weil es besser für den Aufbau der Lehrer-Schüler-Beziehung ist*. This question was, on the other hand, met with general disagreement with arithmetic Likert scores of 3.3 and 3.2 for teacher trainees and trainers, respectively. Aspects mentioned pertaining to this topic in the interviews were subsumed under the category of “Student-teacher relationship”. A meta-analysis has shown student-teacher relationships to have a positive effect on school commitment and, albeit to a slightly lesser extent, academic performance (Roorda, Koomen, Spilt and Oort, 2011: 510-513). It is therefore understandable that teachers are quite aware of and sensitive towards behaviours which could have an effect on the student-teacher relationship. Within the English language classroom, language choice is one of these things that teachers are aware of. As shown in section 3.5.2.2.1., this has also been seen in other studies looking into teachers’ language use in the foreign language classroom (De la Campa and Nassaji, 2009: 747-757; Littlewood and Yu, 2011: 69; Kraemer, 2006: 445). When teachers code-switch for the purpose of one-to-one situations with pupils, it could be seen as what has been referred to as a social-affective switch, caused by inter-personal motivations (Holmes and Stubbe, 2004: 135). Changes in language tend to have strong “we”- “they” associations. In this case, a change in language for a personal conversation with a pupil could be seen as taking oneself, to a certain extent, out of the role of being the pupil’s teacher and more towards being a mentor, someone more on the same level as the pupil, using the switch in language to mark the situation as being outside of the normal classroom roles. In this regard, switching for this aspect clearly has a strong inter-personal motivation. They could be using the switch in language as a way of displaying solidarity with the pupil: “Solidarity is an attribute of relationships that arises through a shared membership with another person” (Myers-Scotton, 2006: 150). On the whole, teachers and pupils are seen as two separate groups and in particular, the fact that there is a clear linguistic disparity between a teacher of a foreign language and their pupils, a switch to the L1 would be an

indication of solidarity with the pupil, bridging the divide between foreign language teacher and learner.

One teacher trainee talks in the interview about using the L1 with the aim of reducing learner anxiety, another way of fostering a positive learning environment and a productive student-teacher relationship. As outlined in section 3.4.9., whereas some scholars corroborate the teacher trainee's feeling concerning L1 use and reduced anxiety (Yildiz and Yesilvurt, 2017: 93; Nordin, 2013; Bruen and Kelly, 2014), one study has shown how the opposite can in fact be true, showing a negative relationship between amount of L2 use in class and levels of anxiety surrounding the use of L2 (Levine, 2003: 352). In this way, perhaps the teacher trainees' aim to reduce learner anxiety by using the L1 will actually not achieve the desired effect in the long run.

Also referred to within this topic was the aspect of humour within the English language classroom, and how sometimes a joke in the L1 can also be beneficial for the student-teacher relationship. This aspect has also been seen in other studies on the subject (Edstrom, 2006: 284; De la Campa and Nassaji, 2009: 747-757), as shown in section 3.5.2.2.1. Here, once again, the teacher uses the switch to signal more than just wanting to make a joke, they are encouraging the feeling of belonging for the pupils. Although teachers, on the whole, either disagreed or strongly disagreed (arithmetic mean Likert scores of 3 and 3.4 for teacher trainees and trainers, respectively) with this question in the survey, *Ich verwende häufig die L1 für Witze oder Humor*, it was mentioned in the interviews as being a potential reason for classroom code-switching. *“Mein Gott, wenn man jetzt irgendwie das Bedürfnis hat, da einen kurzen Witz auf Deutsch, der situationsangemessen und lerngruppenangemessen ist, zu reißen, dann soll man es in Gottes Namen tun. Ist ja auch vielleicht für die Lehrer-Schüler-Beziehung hilfreich“* (Interview 1, pg. 8, ll. 245-247). Once again, the aspect of the student-teacher relationship and its perceived importance is mentioned by a participant. On the whole, due to the fact that establishing and fostering a student-teacher relationship is of great importance for learners, it seems unnecessary and counter-productive for teachers of English to be so hard on themselves and forbid themselves to make use of the L1 when they feel it is appropriate for a given situation with a learner.

7.8. Use of the L1 to save time

One point which was often mentioned in connection with using the L1 is the aspect of time. Question number 25 in the survey, *Ich verwende die L1, weil es Zeit spart*, was met with mild disagreement with arithmetic mean Likert scores of 2.7 and 2.8 for teacher trainees and trainers, respectively. This aspect was mentioned in the interviews in two ways. Firstly, it seems to be a widely believed fact by those interviewed that lesson content conveyed in the L1 saves more time. The first aspect is mentioned in connection with giving task instructions, that using the L1 reduces the amount of time that has to be spent on explaining the task, visualising it, getting someone else to repeat the task, checking for understanding and so on and so forth. Instead, you could just say, *“Hier. Ihr sollt das und das machen“* (Interview R11, pg. 4, l. 118). This however, as shown in the mild disagreement in the survey is not seen by teacher trainers and trainees as being a reason why they would often want to switch languages. The additional interview data pertaining to this aspect offers examples where the L1 could be used in instances as a last resort when they really felt like time needed to be saved.

Additionally touched upon concerning the aspect of time is that teachers, in general, suffer under constant time constraints and that more time would allow them to prepare their lessons in a way that enables the teachers themselves but also the learners to remain in the L2. Some interviewees see this lack of time to prepare as a reason why they are not able to remain in the L2 as much as they would otherwise wish. The concern was voiced that with more time to prepare, they would be able to provide more materials to help visualise task instructions and provide language scaffolding for the learners to ease their understanding and facilitate their own production of the language. It is unsurprising that the common problem of teachers' workload and stress is mentioned in extensive interviews with teachers. Teachers represent one of the professional groups that suffers from the highest levels of psychological stress concerning their work (cf. Schaarschmidt and Fischer, 2001). The teacher trainers and teacher trainees mentioning workload and stress here feel that these things impede their ability to teach their subject the way they deem it to be best taught. Indeed, with full-time teaching hours in addition to the numerous tasks outside of lesson time that a teacher has in their day-to-day jobs, it seems almost utopian to

imagine creating language support and coming up with extensive step-by-step visualisation techniques in support of task instructions for every lesson. Teachers, in order to help themselves and their learners remain in the L2, have to be extremely efficient with the materials and methods they develop. Perhaps, in the teacher training, unrealistic expectations are placed on prospective teachers as to what a lesson has to look like in order for it to be deemed a successful lesson. In this way, new teachers, faced with the realities of having a full-time position are shocked and disappointed that they are no longer able to think about their lessons in as much depth as they had done previously. It is important for teacher training programmes to provide prospective teachers with concrete tangible methods to efficiently and effectively prepare their lessons in a way that fulfils the principles of good language teaching but does not lead to new teachers constantly feeling like they are coming up short.

7.9. Use of the L1 due to lack of learner understanding

Survey question 27, *Ich verwende die L1, weil die Schülerinnen und Schüler mich sonst nicht verstehen*, was met with general but not strong disagreement with arithmetic mean Likert scores of 2.7 and 2.4 for teacher trainees and trainers, respectively. Nonetheless, the interviews showed many instances where lack of understanding was mentioned as a reason to switch to the L1. Both groups of interviewees talk about classes with weaker students and the need to switch more to the L1 in those classes. Others say that they can read the reactions of their learners and know when they really do not understand something in spite of extensive efforts to help them to understand. Here, making use of the L1 seems to be a type of last resort. Also talked about by both teacher trainers and teacher trainees is that sometimes pupils' understanding is underestimated, leading perhaps to an overuse of the L1 when it is not necessary. One interviewee sees the feeling that learners do not understand as something subjective, sometimes incorrectly assumed by teachers. "*Viele glauben, nicht verstanden zu werden [...]*" (Interview 3, pg. 4, ll. 112-113). This quotation gives the impression that the interviewee in question distances themselves from this and sees it as something that other teachers experience. It suggests that they see this as an incorrect assumption and one that leads to potentially unnecessary over-use of the L1. It is important for teachers to know and trust that learners do not need to understand every word and structure in a

given utterance to comprehend meaning. Although not without criticism, as outlined in section 3.4.6., Krashen, in his Input Hypothesis puts forth the idea of comprehensible input, namely the use of language just beyond that of the learners' capabilities which they will be able to decode by means of context and other linguistic cues (Krashen, 1985). In this vein, it is intended that learners do not understand all of the input in a given lesson, as this is how they improve and expand on their linguistic repertoire in the new language.

Lack of learner understanding is sometimes used as a reason to employ the L1 in teacher utterances with the aim of differentiated instruction to meet individual pupils' needs. Here, the idea is that an L1 impulse will be given to one or two learners by the teacher going directly to those pupils after a task has been explained without offering this use of the L1 to all learners. In this way, the teacher can uphold the exclusive use of the L2 for the majority of the learners while still meeting those few learners' needs who may require that extra bit of help in the L1. In teacher education, the focus on individuals' needs and differentiated instruction has increased considerably over the past years. Nowadays, this is a central part of the teacher training programme. Running as an underlying principle throughout the entire curriculum for the teacher training programme in NRW is the focal point "*Vielfalt als Herausforderung annehmen und als Chance nutzen*". Moreover, the first mentioned aspect of the curriculum for the teacher training programme in NRW is "*Unterricht für heterogene Lerngruppen gestalten und Lernprozesse nachhaltig anlegen*" (Ministerium für Schule und Bildung des Landes Nordrhein-Westfalen, 2016: 2). It is clear that considering all pupils and their individual needs is of utmost importance for the modern-day teacher. Hence, for English teachers, thinking about their use of the L1 and L2 on an individual basis is also of importance. Perhaps, as some of those interviewed recognised, with the use of the L1 and L2 within the English language classroom, it cannot be a one size fits all approach.

7.10. Use of the L1 to allow learners to function at a higher cognitive level

Survey question 29, *Ich verwende die L1, weil die Schülerinnen und Schüler damit die Aufgaben auf einem höheren Niveau bearbeiten können*, was met with disagreement from both teacher trainees (arithmetic mean Likert score 3.4) and teacher trainers (arithmetic mean Likert score 3.5). Nevertheless, a few

teacher trainers and trainees mentioned some things which fit into this category in their interviews. For primary teaching, one teacher uses the L1 for the children to be able to express themselves on a higher level concerning the reflection of a task. Moreover, another teacher mentioned an instance of going against the planned exclusive L2 use and allowing the use of the L1 in group work in year 10 because the learners were so engrossed in the task at hand and were expressing more advanced creative ideas. This ties in with what has been found by other scholars, as also outlined in section 3.4.1. Swain and Lapkin (2013:122), deriving their approach from Vygotskian theory (1986), advocate for the allowance of the L1 during phases of collaborative working. This is supported by numerous other scholars who have done studies on learners' natural switches to the L1 when tasks become more cognitively demanding (cf. Brooks and Donato, 1994; Swain and Lapkin, 2000; Centeno-Cortéz and Jiménez, 2004; Scott and De La Fuente, 2008). Although some teachers seemed to recognise this, although not explicitly, when expanding on their ideas in the interviews, it does not seem to be something which is actively in teachers' minds nor accepted as a potential approach in the EFL classroom.

7.11. Use of the L1 in collaborative work

Teachers seem to mention group work as one of the most common instances of learners switching languages during English lessons and something which seems to, for some, be a definite source of frustration. Moreover, in the survey, teachers vehemently disagreed with the statement 23, *Ich erlaube die Nutzung der L1 in Gruppenarbeit*, with arithmetic mean Likert scores of 3.7 and 3.3 for teacher trainees and trainers, respectively. Perhaps, with the knowledge of what the L1 can offer pupils here with regards being able to work at a higher cognitive level as discussed in the previous section, it could seem less frustrating for them. Moreover, it is important to note that the Core Curricula for Gymnasien and Gesamtschulen state that the exclusive use of English as the working language during collaborative work phases is only expected as of the end of year 10 (Ministerium für Schule und Bildung des Landes Nordrhein-Westfalen, 2004^b: 38). This acknowledges the notion that the L1 is needed, especially with younger learners, to be able to complete tasks that are more cognitively demanding to them.

Naturally, pupils also need to learn how to express themselves in the L2 and practice getting over the hurdle of speaking English even when it is more time consuming and challenging than just saying it in the L1, but at the same time, teachers could also accept the helpful tool that the L1 offers in these phases of collaborative working. Some teachers were indeed more open than others to pupils' use of the L1 in these phases. Some found it very understandable considering the fact that the pupils were in an L1 setting and used the L1 with all individuals within that room outside of the English lesson. Moreover, some saw it as a sign that the pupils find the lesson and the topics of the lesson interesting and motivating if they desperately wanted to add something so much that they just had to use the L1 to fully express what they want. Also, a select minority mention the knowledge, as mentioned above, that it is not specified in any Core Curricula for English that they have to speak English all the time.

For the teacher trainers and trainees involved in the study, however, the aim seems to be to get their learners to use as much English as possible during these phases of the lesson. The teachers were, to varying extents, equipped with the means to realise this goal. They mention numerous techniques such as an English Card, Grumpy Cat, the English Police, all of which had the aim of getting learners to remain in the L2. The majority of these techniques appear to be based on the behaviourist theory of operant conditioning and the principle of positive punishment, namely, the addition of something negative in order to encourage avoidance of a certain behaviour in the future (cf. Skinner, 1953). In the case of the approaches outlined by the interviewees, the negative addition was things like doing burpees or having to learn something off by heart and present it to the class. By introducing this "punishment", teachers hoped that learners would be discouraged from using the L1 in future. On the whole, the interviewees talked positively about this type of approach and seemed to believe it had the desired effect. One thing not mentioned by the teacher trainers or trainees was the use of positive reinforcement as a means of encouraging the use of English. Although the "punishments" were not very severe, some pupils may, indeed, see performing something in front of the class as very nerve-wracking. Perhaps looking into the effectiveness of positive reinforcement for those learners who do a great job of remaining in the L2 would also be of value.

A further significant finding was for survey question 31, *Ich finde es sinnvoll, die Schülerinnen und Schüler die Nutzung der L1 zu erlauben*. Once again, teacher trainees were significantly more likely ($p=0.096$) to agree with the given statements than the teacher trainers. They still showed mild disagreement towards the statement with an arithmetic mean Likert score of 2.5 but were certainly not as opposed to the statement as the teacher trainers who had an arithmetic mean Likert score of 3.2. This question, as is the case with the significant results found for questions 6, 7, 8, 9 and 13 discussed in sections 7.3. and 7.5., indicates a general tendency towards more acceptance of L1 use by teacher trainees. It remains, however, difficult to say what the exact cause of these significant differences in opinions is. One possibility remains that they are due to a principled difference in the way teacher trainees see the EFL classroom or are the differences due to a lack of experience in comparison to the teacher trainers? Perhaps, teacher trainees are still lacking the tricks and techniques to keep themselves and a class full of young people in the L2 and therefore have become slightly more accepting that the L1 seems to creep in every now and again. More experienced teachers have years of experience in knowing how to use the language and language support in order to keep to their goal of maximum L2 input and output. This result also contradicts the strong disagreement with the answer to allowing learners to use English during group work. Perhaps the teacher trainees are referring to different stages of the lesson when answering question 31. Both groups, on the whole, agree with statement 33, *Ich glaube, dass die Schülerinnen und Schüler es im Englischunterricht hilfreich finden, die L1 zu nutzen*, with average Likert scores of 1.9 and 2.2 for teacher trainees and trainers, respectively. This answer implies further conflicting thoughts concerning the use of language in the EFL classroom. On the one hand, the teacher trainers and teacher trainees are generally of the opinion that learners find it helpful to use the L1, but on the other hand, they on the whole want to reduce the amount of L1 they use.

7.12. EFL classroom as a multilingual space

The arithmetic mean Likert scores for survey question number 36, *Der Englischunterricht gilt für mich als multilingualer Raum*, was 2.5 and 2.6 for teacher trainees and teacher trainers, respectively, indicating that as a group, the interviewees are somewhat undecided concerning this aspect. Nonetheless,

when asked in the interviews about the presence and use of other languages in the English language classroom, the participants were able to give many instances where they play a role.

For the purpose of coding for the interviews these were split up into different language groups. Firstly, there was the group of typical school foreign languages such as French, Spanish and Latin. These were mentioned by many teachers as something that they draw on for comparison or support when teaching English. Here, one can see another instance of “transactional code-switching” (Holmes and Stubbe, 2004: 135), where teachers draw on other languages and linguistic knowledge that they share with the pupils to act as scaffolding when introducing learners to something new in English. What teachers are fostering here, without having explicitly said so themselves, is the idea of plurilingualism and multi-competence (Cook, 2016: 2), where all linguistic resources at the learners’ disposal can be employed to decipher meaning and learn a new language, as also discussed in section 3.4.3. It seems to be that some of the teachers asked are intuitively making use of this resource, attempting to create more of a multilingual space within their classrooms. It still, however, seems to be much more of an afterthought and something which spontaneously comes up in lessons rather than being systematically planned as part of the lesson.

Where teachers struggle to harness the potential is with the heritage languages of their pupils, such as Turkish, Arabic or Polish, among others. Here, the teacher trainers and trainees interviewed feel ill-equipped to make use of these languages to support the learning of English. This represents, for some, a source of frustration, where they feel the desire to support other students by making use of their other languages but due to lack of knowledge are not able to. One teacher notes importantly how the acknowledgement and inclusion of these languages also has the potential of empowering young learners when they see how they can connect what they already know to something new with the example of the learner with a Turkish background who could remember the word “cinema” in English because of its similarity to the Turkish word.

Nonetheless, the additional information gained in the interviews, certainly suggests that teachers of English do in fact recognise the English language

classroom as a multilingual space and, to some extent, make use of this multilingualism in their lessons. English language teachers are likely to be more open to the idea of making use of various languages in teaching because of their own interest in learning languages, but even there it seems to be a very small aspect in very few lessons. It would seem that although some teachers mention taking other languages into consideration that it is not something well established within the teaching of English. In this way, it does not seem that the principles of language learning, as set out by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001) are currently fully able to be applied in the EFL classroom in NRW. These findings reiterate conclusions drawn by Marx in her assessment of school books in Germany (2014), that true multilingual pedagogical approaches are still clearly lacking in the German school system, a point also discussed in section 2.4. This is something that would certainly require extensive further education for both current and future teachers of English.

7.13. Use of the L1 in teacher training

The final four questions of the survey were specific to the two groups of participants, teacher trainers and teacher trainees. The questions for the teacher trainers were more specifically to do with their responsibilities as teacher trainers and their views on L1 use by the teacher trainees they oversee. The questions for teacher trainees were more specifically about their experiences with their teacher trainers and with the teaching training programme in general.

Teacher trainers generally disagreed with question 38, *Die Referendare, die ich betreue, setzen die L1 im Unterricht häufig ein*, with an arithmetic mean Likert score of 2.8. Nonetheless, throughout the interviews, teacher trainers mention many instances where teacher trainees use the L1. However, their overall impression that their teacher trainees do not use the L1 much is not all that surprising because, when talking about their observed and examination lessons, teacher trainees mention making a concerted effort to not use the L1 at all in those special lessons. This effort is clearly warranted because question 39, *Ich würde es eher negativ bewerten, wenn eine Referendarin/ein Referendar die L1 verwendet*, was met by general agreement from teacher trainers, with an arithmetic mean Likert score of 1.9. This was also

substantiated in the interviews. Some teacher trainers say that although they may be more lenient in the first or second lesson observation, if the use of L1 continued into later observations they would certainly give a poorer evaluation of the teacher trainee. Moreover, several trainers say that they could only imagine not penalising a trainee for their use of the L1 if that use is extremely well justified in either the lesson plan handed in prior to the lesson or in the reflection which occurs following the lesson. Another teacher trainer connects the use of L1 in general with a poorer standard of lesson overall and says that they would not necessarily give a trainee a poorer evaluation for use of the L1 per se but that this is usually accompanied by a host of other problems in both the planning and execution of the lesson. Some teacher trainers talk of how the final examination should certainly be exclusively in the L2 and that the teacher trainee should conceive and design the lesson in such a way that this is possible.

A few teacher trainers seemed to be a bit more open to the eventuality of trainee L1 use in observed lessons. A lot, here, refer to Butzkamm's approach of enlightened monolingualism and say that if the teacher trainees could show that the L1 use was functional, then they would not necessarily give a poorer evaluation. The main tenet here remains, however, that the switch in languages has to be a conscious, well thought out decision and not just random usage of the L1. Language choice certainly seems to be a decisive criterion for teacher trainers when considering how they are going to evaluate the trainees they are overseeing.

Teacher trainers' strict stance on the use of the L1 during observed lessons has also been internalised by the teacher trainees in this study who answered their question 37, *Meine Fachleitung regt an, den Einsatz der L1 im Englischunterricht zu vermeiden*, with an arithmetic mean Likert score of 1.8, indicating agreement to strong agreement with the statement. Moreover, question 38, *Ich habe das Gefühl, die Nutzung der L1 würde in einer Bewertungssituation (UB oder UPP) negativ bewertet*, was met with overwhelming agreement from teacher trainees with an arithmetic mean Likert score of 1.5. These two questions are further corroborated by content from the interviews where teacher trainees talk of their trainers being very strict concerning the use of L1 in observed lessons. One also refers to receiving a

worse evaluation because learners in year 6 communicated with each other in the L1 during group work, although as previously mentioned, exclusive L2 communication among learners is not set out as a goal in the core curricula until after year 8 (Ministerium für Schule und Bildung des Landes Nordrhein-Westfalen, 2004^b: 48).

Although teacher trainers, on the whole, seem to be rather strict with their own use of the L1, there appears to be some degree of discrepancy between what they report about day-to-day teaching and what they expect from teacher trainees during their observed lessons. Teacher trainers, as mentioned previously in the discussion, refer to a whole host of instances where they themselves would also switch languages. However, it is more so expected of the teacher trainees to make a great effort to avoid all use of the L1 in their observed lessons. The teacher training phase of teacher education is known in Germany to be a very stressful period of time. The information from teacher trainers concerning their very high expectations and from teacher trainees themselves concerning the pressure they put themselves under to prepare and execute perfect, exclusively L2 lessons, is coherent with general information about the teacher training programme and it being a time also associated with extreme stress and potential burnout (Darius, Bunzel, Ehms-Ciechanowicz and Böckelmann, 2020: 6-7). This and other studies on the topic of mental health during the teacher training period in Germany also call for a reconsideration of the pressures put on the prospective teachers (cf. Drüge, Schleider and Rosati, 2014; Braun, 2017). It seems that some teacher trainers are very strict when it comes to their expectations concerning the observed lessons and examinations, exclusive L2 use being one of these expectations. It could be worthwhile considering the degree to which teacher trainees are expected to produce lessons which, on the whole, do not really reflect the reality of day-to-day teaching.

A further two questions showed significant differences between the teacher trainers and teacher trainees, albeit with this time the teacher trainers being significantly more likely to agree with the given statement than the teacher trainees. The questions being referred to are numbers 34 and 35, namely, *Ich kenne Methoden, wie man die L1 im Englischunterricht sinnvoll einsetzen kann* ($q=0.009$) and, *Ich verfüge über Fachwissen zum Thema L1 im*

Englischunterricht ($q=0.006$). These answers are not all that surprising considering the difference in experience levels between teacher trainers and teacher trainees. The majority of the teacher trainees involved in the study were still in their training and, hence, were possibly waiting to be instructed on more of these aspects over their remaining time during the teacher training. These are also areas of knowledge that may be developed over time once the teacher trainees are on the job as qualified teachers. Moreover, looking at the responses of the teacher trainees when it comes to their feelings concerning use of L1 during their observed and examined lessons, it is initially the case that many teacher trainers want their trainees to avoid the L1 wherever possible. In EFL classroom reality, however, there seems to be more acceptance for the benefits of L1 use. In this way, it is perhaps something which is expected to be learned on the job rather than instructed in teacher training.

Teacher trainers very strongly agreed with question 40, *Ich thematisiere den Einsatz der L1 in Seminarveranstaltungen*, with an arithmetic mean Likert score of 1.1. Interestingly, this is not corroborated by the trainees themselves who generally disagreed (mean Likert score of 2.8) with their question 39, *Der Einsatz der L1 im Englischunterricht wird ausreichend als Seminarinhalt thematisiert*, and generally agreed (average Likert score 1.6) with statement 40, *Ich wünsche mir/hätte mir mehr Input zum Thema Einsatz der L1 im Englischunterricht (gewünscht)*. Here there is a clear discrepancy between what the teacher trainers believe they are conveying and what the trainees think they have been taught. Granted, the teacher trainers and teacher trainees involved in the study do not match up one to one with each other. By chance, there are some teacher trainees whose trainers were also in the study, but that was not the aim of the sample. However, as a trend, one can certainly note that teacher trainees do not feel that the topic is covered adequately and the teacher trainers in the study believe that they do in fact deal with the topic extensively enough. It shows that language choice in the EFL classroom continues to be a source of uncertainty for teacher trainees who clearly feel that their choices in that regard are not based on much concrete knowledge. This lack of concrete knowledge certainly became apparent in the interview data. In the theoretical background section of this thesis, much time was spent assessing arguments for and against the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom in addition to an extensive literature overview of studies which try to show the effect of L1 or L2 use on

learning. Very few of the arguments for or against a monolingual classroom were known by the interviewees and very little to no knowledge was conveyed concerning the actual effect of L1 or L2 use, other than observational or anecdotal evidence gathered through teaching experience.

8. Conclusion

The conclusions of this thesis are far from black and white. Firstly, this thesis offered an in-depth look into the development of language choice in the foreign language classroom by looking at foreign language teaching methodology and how it has changed and adapted throughout history. Here, it was shown that although some periods of teaching leaned more to one side or the other concerning convictions about language choice, there has never been a clear and sweeping consensus on the matter. Following this, a detailed consideration of the theoretical arguments underpinning opinions and practise with regards to use of the L1 was presented. These were split up into two sections, theories mainly advocating for exclusively L2 classrooms on the one side and theories supporting L1 use on the other. It was acknowledged, however, that this division does not necessarily depict reality, where the theories and arguments should rather be placed somewhere along a spectrum than at two ends of a playing field. It was shown in these sections how well one could argue either of the viewpoints on L1 use in the foreign language classroom. There remains to be countless arguments for the extensive use of the L2 but also against the eradication of the L1 in the foreign language classroom.

Moving on from this, a comprehensive overview of classroom code-switching was given along with insights into both teacher and learner code-switching as well as a thorough presentation of research into the effects of classroom code-switching. Code-switching in the foreign language classroom was shown not only to be extremely common place but also to take on many forms and functions for both teachers and learners. Moreover, many potential benefits to L1 use were shown. What can certainly be said is that a blanket vilification of the L1 is not a productive way of addressing the issue of language choice in the EFL classroom and that the matter is much more complex.

The main part of this thesis was dedicated to the study of teacher trainees and teacher trainers in NRW, Germany and the attitudes and beliefs held concerning L1 use in the EFL classroom. This study offers the first ever look at teacher trainers as a group of English language teaching experts concerning this topic and also the first look at teacher trainees in combination and in comparison with teacher trainers. Although the two groups of participants held many similar attitudes and beliefs concerning L1 use, some significant and interesting differences were found. Following extensive analysis of both interview and survey data, teacher trainees showed themselves to be more open concerning the use of the L1 than their more experienced counterparts. It remains, however, unclear what exactly is at the root of these differences. To some extent, one could argue that the novice status of the teacher trainees leads to a lack of confidence and a reduced repertoire of techniques which allow their more experienced counterparts to remain more extensively in the L2. On the other hand, a clear development of ideologies concerning attitudes towards multilingualism and diversity of learners which has occurred in more recent years could also influence teacher trainees' opinions on the matter.

Furthermore, a clear discrepancy between what teacher trainers believe to convey to their trainees and what the trainees think they have been instructed on arose. Teacher trainees expressed the desire for more instruction concerning language choice and use in the EFL classroom. A further aspect which became apparent is how the pressures of language choice and of exclusive L2 instruction in the EFL classroom during observed and examination lessons is felt by teacher trainees. Their trainers, on the whole, have very high expectations concerning the exclusive use of the L2 and the execution of meticulously planned lessons, which do not always reflect everyday teaching. This is potentially adding to the overall burden of the teacher training period in NRW which has been shown to be a particularly demanding time, during which some teacher trainees find themselves afflicted with psychological problems. Perhaps the high expectations placed on teacher trainees and the discrepancy between these observed and examination lessons and day-to-day teaching reality need to be considered.

Attitudes and beliefs voiced by both teacher trainers and trainees mirror many of the tenets of the Communicative Approach to language teaching. Both

groups are keen on establishing a communicative environment in their classrooms, focussing on fluency above accuracy of language, preparing their learners for real-life situations in which they can make use of their linguistic skills. However, some stricter aspects of what teacher trainers and teacher trainees say and the apparent guilt and uncertainty some of them feel concerning their use of the L1 reminds one of the earlier methods of language teaching and a common demonisation of the L1 in the foreign language classroom.

On the whole, it has become increasingly apparent throughout work on this thesis that the opinions held by many teachers concerning L1 use in the classroom are based primarily on gut feeling, deriving from experience rather than evidence-based standards set in academia and teaching methodology. Of course, to some extent, teaching should remain the flexible and creative discipline that it is, allowing for teachers to become experts of their craft through the years of experience they accumulate. This knowledge gained through experience should certainly not be underestimated and is of significant value. Nevertheless, an increase in evidence-based teacher education, concerning not only the aspect of L1 use in the EFL classroom but also many other aspects of language teaching could be prudent in the continued development of well-informed best-practice approaches. It is, however, by no means that teachers should have a passive role in this. In an ideal situation, teachers continue their development of best-practice approaches by becoming researchers themselves, analysing and evaluating current practices in their classrooms and the wider educational context as a whole. This is in support of other scholars who advocate for the premise of teachers as researchers (cf. Griffe, 2012) and the importance of adopting the approach of a *Reflective Practitioner* (cf. Schön, 1983), constantly questioning one's own actions and methods and being prepared to adapt these in light of experience and knowledge gained. This notion advocates for a view of teachers as professionals not only able to teach and educate but also equipped and prepared to evaluate and innovate (KMK, 2004:7-13). These are approaches which lead to the successful professional development of teachers.

It seems to remain that there is a balancing act to be mastered by teachers with regards to language choice in the EFL classroom. Naturally, language can

only be learned through exposure. If too much L1 is used, the learners are deprived of the input necessary for the development of their linguistic skills in the new language. Nonetheless, this thesis deems the complete eradication of the L1 to be counterproductive to successful language learning. Judicious use of the L1 and the development of a more plurilingusitic attitude to language learning, enabling learners to make use of any available linguistic resources, can offer both learners and teachers helpful scaffolding which can facilitate the successful learning of further languages. There certainly, however, needs to be more education for both experienced and novice teachers in what this could look like in everyday practise.

9. References

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10. Appendix

Fragebogen: Fachleiterin / Fachleiter

Frage	Antwort
Geschlecht:	
Zentrum für schulpraktische Lehrerbildung:	
Lehramt:	
Schule:	
Lehrer / Lehrerin seit (Datum ca.):	
Aktuelle Anzahl von Englischstunden im Stundenplan und gesamtes Stundendeputat:	Englischstunden: Stundendeputat:
Fachleiter / Fachleiterin seit (Datum ca.):	
Haben Sie immer an der gleichen Schulform unterrichtet?	<input type="radio"/> Ja <input type="radio"/> Nein Wenn nein, bitte erläutern:
Haben Sie Zeit im englischsprachigen Ausland verbracht?	<input type="radio"/> Ja <input type="radio"/> Nein Wenn ja, bitte erläutern: (Dauer des Aufenthaltes, Land/Länder)
Haben Sie nicht-schulische Berufserfahrung:	<input type="radio"/> Ja <input type="radio"/> Nein Wenn ja, bitte erläutern:

Zum eigenen Englischunterricht

	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
	Bitte eine Antwortmöglichkeit ankreuzen.			
1. Ich fühle mich in der Lage, mich fließend und kompetent auf Englisch auszudrücken.				
2. Ich vermeide so weit wie möglich die L1 (Deutsch) im Englischunterricht.				
3. Ich bin von mir selbst enttäuscht, wenn ich viel L1 im Englischunterricht verwende.				
4. Ich glaube, dass sich die Nutzung der L1 im Englischunterricht nachteilig auf das Lernen der englischen Sprache auswirkt.				
5. Ich finde es sinnvoll, die L1 im Englischunterricht in meinen Aussagen einzusetzen.				
6. Ich finde es sinnvoll, für organisatorische Dinge (z.B. Klassenarbeit) die L1 zu verwenden.				
7. Ich nutze häufig die L1 für organisatorische Dinge (z.B. Klassenarbeit).				
8. Ich finde es sinnvoll, für Disziplinprobleme die L1 zu verwenden.				
9. Ich verwende häufig die L1 für Disziplinprobleme.				
10. Ich finde es sinnvoll, für Arbeitsanweisungen die L1 zu verwenden.				
11. Ich verwende häufig die L1 für Arbeitsanweisungen.				
12. Ich finde es sinnvoll, unbekannte Wörter in die L1 zu übersetzen.				
13. Ich übersetzte häufig unbekannte Wörter in die L1.				
14. Ich finde es sinnvoll, unbekannte Wörter in der L2 (Englisch) zu paraphrasieren.				
15. Ich paraphrasiere häufig unbekannte Wörter in der L2 (Englisch).				
16. Ich finde es sinnvoll, grammatikalische Phänomene in der L1 zu erklären.				

	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
	Bitte eine Antwortmöglichkeit ankreuzen.			
17. Ich erkläre häufig grammatikalische Phänomene in der L1.				
18. Ich finde es sinnvoll, die L1 für Witze oder Humor zu verwenden.				
19. Ich verwende häufig die L1 für Witze oder Humor.				
20. Ich finde es sinnvoll, für ein Vier-Augen-Gespräch im Englischunterricht (z.B. über ein Problem) die L1 zu verwenden.				
21. Ich verwende häufig die L1 für ein Vier-Augen-Gespräch im Englischunterricht (z.B. über ein Problem).				
22. Ich finde es sinnvoll, die Nutzung der L1 in Gruppenarbeit zu erlauben.				
23. Ich erlaube die Nutzung der L1 in Gruppenarbeit.				
24. Ich verwende die L1 in niedrigeren Klassenstufen eher als in höheren Klassenstufen.				
25. Ich verwende die L1, weil es Zeit spart.				
26. Ich verwende die L1, weil es mir schwer fällt immer Englisch zu sprechen.				
27. Ich verwende die L1, weil die Schülerinnen und Schüler mich sonst nicht verstehen.				
28. Ich verwende die L1, weil es besser für den Aufbau der Lehrer-Schüler-Beziehung ist.				
29. Ich verwende die L1, weil die Schülerinnen und Schüler damit die Aufgaben auf einem höheren Niveau bearbeiten können.				
30. Ich finde es sinnvoll, den Schülerinnen und Schülern die Nutzung der L1 zu verbieten.				
31. Ich finde es sinnvoll, den Schülerinnen und Schülern die Nutzung der L1 zu erlauben.				
32. Ich finde es sinnvoll, die Schülerinnen und Schüler dazu zu ermutigen die L1 zu nutzen.				

	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
Bitte eine Antwortmöglichkeit ankreuzen.				
33. Ich glaube, dass die Schülerinnen und Schüler es im Englischunterricht hilfreich finden, die L1 zu nutzen.				
34. Ich kenne Methoden, wie man die L1 im Englischunterricht sinnvoll einsetzen kann.				
35. Ich verfüge über Fachwissen zum Thema <i>Einsatz der L1 im Englischunterricht</i> .				
36. Der Englischunterricht gilt für mich als multilingualer Raum.				
Zur Tätigkeit als Fachleitung				
37. Die Referendare, die ich betreue, können fließend und kompetent die englische Sprache einsetzen.				
38. Die Referendare, die ich betreue, setzen die L1 im Unterricht häufig ein.				
39. Ich würde es eher negativ bewerten, wenn eine Referendarin / ein Referendar die L1 verwendet.				
40. Ich thematisiere den Einsatz der L1 in Seminarveranstaltungen.				

**Fragebogen: Referendarin/Referendar,
Lehramtsanwärterin/Lehramtsanwärter, neuqualifizierte Lehrperson**

Frage	Antwort
Geschlecht:	
Zentrum für schulpraktische Lehrerbildung:	
Lehramt:	
Schule:	
Vorbereitungsdienst angetreten:	
Vorbereitungsdienst abgeschlossen (voraussichtlich):	
Aktuelle Anzahl von Englischstunden im Stundenplan und gesamtes Stundendeputat:	Englischstunden: Stundendeputat:
Haben Sie Zeit im englischsprachigen Ausland verbracht?	<input type="radio"/> Ja <input type="radio"/> Nein Wenn ja, bitte erläutern: (Dauer des Aufenthaltes, Land/Länder)
Haben Sie nicht-schulische Berufserfahrung:	<input type="radio"/> Ja <input type="radio"/> Nein Wenn ja, bitte erläutern:

Zum eigenen Englischunterricht				
	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
	Bitte eine Antwortmöglichkeit ankreuzen.			
1. Ich fühle mich in der Lage, mich fließend und kompetent auf Englisch auszudrücken.				
2. Ich vermeide so weit wie möglich die L1 (Deutsch) im Englischunterricht.				
3. Ich bin von mir selbst enttäuscht, wenn ich viel L1 im Englischunterricht verwende.				
4. Ich glaube, dass sich die Nutzung der L1 im Englischunterricht nachteilig auf das Lernen der englischen Sprache auswirkt.				
5. Ich finde es sinnvoll, die L1 im Englischunterricht in meinen Aussagen einzusetzen.				
6. Ich finde es sinnvoll, für organisatorische Dinge (z.B. Organisation einer Klassenarbeit) die L1 zu verwenden.				
7. Ich nutze häufig die L1 für organisatorische Dinge (z.B. Organisation einer Klassenarbeit).				
8. Ich finde es sinnvoll, für Disziplinprobleme die L1 zu verwenden.				
9. Ich verwende häufig die L1 für Disziplinprobleme.				
10. Ich finde es sinnvoll, für Arbeitsanweisungen die L1 zu verwenden.				
11. Ich verwende häufig die L1 für Arbeitsanweisungen.				
12. Ich finde es sinnvoll, unbekannte Wörter in die L1 zu übersetzen.				
13. Ich übersetzte häufig unbekannte Wörter in die L1.				
14. Ich finde es sinnvoll, unbekannte Wörter in der L2 (Englisch) zu paraphrasieren.				
15. Ich paraphasiere häufig unbekannte Wörter in der L2 (Englisch).				
16. Ich finde es sinnvoll, grammatikalische Phänomene in der L1 zu erklären.				

	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
	Bitte eine Antwortmöglichkeit ankreuzen.			
17. Ich erkläre häufig grammatikalische Phänomene in der L1.				
18. Ich finde es sinnvoll, die L1 für Witze oder Humor zu verwenden.				
19. Ich verwende häufig die L1 für Witze oder Humor.				
20. Ich finde es sinnvoll, für ein Vier-Augen-Gespräch im Englischunterricht (z.B. über ein Problem) die L1 zu verwenden.				
21. Ich verwende häufig die L1 für ein Vier-Augen-Gespräch im Englischunterricht (z.B. über ein Problem).				
22. Ich finde es sinnvoll, die Nutzung der L1 in Gruppenarbeit zu erlauben.				
23. Ich erlaube die Nutzung der L1 in Gruppenarbeit.				
24. Ich verwende die L1 in niedrigeren Klassenstufen eher als in höheren Klassenstufen.				
25. Ich verwende die L1, weil es Zeit spart.				
26. Ich verwende die L1, weil es mir schwer fällt immer Englisch zu sprechen.				
27. Ich verwende die L1, weil die Schülerinnen und Schüler mich sonst nicht verstehen.				
28. Ich verwende die L1, weil es besser für den Aufbau der Lehrer-Schüler-Beziehung ist.				
29. Ich verwende die L1, weil die Schülerinnen und Schüler damit die Aufgaben auf einem höheren Niveau bearbeiten können.				
30. Ich finde es sinnvoll, den Schülerinnen und Schülern die Nutzung der L1 zu verbieten.				
31. Ich finde es sinnvoll, den Schülerinnen und Schülern die Nutzung der L1 zu erlauben.				
32. Ich finde es sinnvoll, die Schülerinnen und Schüler dazu zu ermutigen die L1 zu nutzen.				

	Trifft zu	Trifft eher zu	Trifft eher nicht zu	Trifft nicht zu
	Bitte eine Antwortmöglichkeit ankreuzen.			
33. Ich glaube, dass die Schülerinnen und Schüler es im Englischunterricht hilfreich finden, die L1 zu nutzen.				
34. Ich kenne Methoden, wie man die L1 im Englischunterricht sinnvoll einsetzen kann.				
35. Ich verfüge über Fachwissen zum Thema <i>Einsatz der L1 im Englischunterricht</i> .				
36. Der Englischunterricht gilt für mich als multilingualer Raum.				
Zum Englischunterricht als Bewertungssituation (z.B. Unterrichtsbesuch/ Unterrichtspraktische Prüfung)				
37. Meine Fachleitung regt an, den Einsatz der L1 im Englischunterricht zu vermeiden.				
38. Ich habe das Gefühl, die Nutzung der L1 würde in einer Bewertungssituation (UB oder UPP) negativ bewertet werden.				
Zu den Seminarveranstaltungen				
39. Der Einsatz der L1 im Englischunterricht wird ausreichend als Seminarinhalt thematisiert.				
40. Ich wünsche mir / hätte mir mehr Input zum Thema Einsatz im Englischunterricht (gewünscht).				

Interview questions: Lehramtsanwärterinnen/Lehramtsanwärter, Referendarinnen/Referendarinnen, neu qualifizierte Lehrpersonen

Eigenes Wissen

1. Was verstehen Sie unter dem Begriff „Code-Switching“?

Wenn die Interviewpartnerin / der Interviewpartner sich nichts darunter vorstellen kann, folgt eine kurze Erklärung von der Interviewerin.

Code-Switching ist das Wechseln der Sprache. Dies kann entweder für nur ein Wort, einen Satz oder zwischen Redeanteilen stattfinden. Es ist ein linguistisches Phänomen, das sehr häufig bei Gruppen von Menschen, die mehr als eine Sprache sprechen, beobachtet wird. Code-Switching hat viele unterschiedliche Gründe und es ist oft schwierig genau den Hintergrund eines Switches festzustellen. Dieses Phänomen kommt auch im Fremdsprachenunterricht vor, sowohl von den Lehrkräften als auch von den SuS.

2. Welche Theorien kennen Sie, die für oder gegen den Einsatz der L1 im Englischunterricht sprechen?

Eigene Praxis

3. Können Sie Situationen beschreiben, in denen Sie die L1 im Englischunterricht einsetzen?
4. Wie sehen Sie Ihre Nutzung der L1 im Englischunterricht?
5. Können Sie Situationen beschreiben, in denen die SuS die L1 im Englischunterricht einsetzen?
6. Wie sehen Sie die Nutzung der L1 im Englischunterricht seitens der Sus?

Einstellungen und Überzeugungen

7. Welche Rolle spielt Ihres Erachtens die L1 im Englischunterricht?
8. Welchen Effekt hat Ihres Erachtens die Nutzung der L1 auf das Lernen der englischen Sprache?
9. Wie haben Ihre Einstellungen bezüglich der Nutzung der L1 im Englischunterricht sich im Laufe Ihrer bisherigen Lehrerfahrung verändert?
10. Warum verwenden Ihres Erachtens Lehrerinnen/Lehrer die L1 im Englischunterricht?
11. Was ist Ihres Erachtens das vorwiegende Ziel des Englischunterrichts und wie hat sich dieses Ziel über die Jahre hinweg geändert?

12. Welche andere Sprachen (außer Deutsch) spielen in Ihrem Englischunterricht eine Rolle, und wie?

Erfahrungen aus dem Referendariat (Beobachtungen)

13. Wie ist die Sprachnutzung bezüglich der L1 und L2 von anderen Englischfachkräften, die Sie in Hospitationsstunden beobachtet haben?
14. Aus welchen Gründen haben diese die Sprache gewechselt?

Erfahrungen aus dem Referendariat (eigene Praxis)

15. Wie gehen bzw. gingen Sie mit der Nutzung der L1 in Unterrichtsbesuchen oder in der unterrichtspraktischen Prüfung um?
16. Wie steht bzw. stand Ihre Fachleitung zur Nutzung der L1 im Englischunterricht?

Erfahrungen aus dem Referendariat (Seminare)

17. Wie intensiv wird bzw. wurde in Ihrem Englischseminar am Zentrum für schulpraktische Lehrerbildung Sprachwechsel und der Einsatz der L1 im Englischunterricht thematisiert?
18. Welche Strategien werden bzw. wurden Ihnen bezüglich der Frage, wie man die L2 verständlicher macht, vermittelt?
19. Welche Strategien oder Methoden zum effizienten Einsatz der L1 im Englischunterricht wurden Ihnen beigebracht?