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DIPLOMARBEIT

Titel der Diplomarbeit

„'Say it in English, if possible!' The use of students' L1 in ELT. A view from the classroom"

verfasst von

Margot Katzenberger

angestrebter akademischer Grad

Magistra der Philosophie (Mag.phil.)

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Declaration of Authenticity

I confirm to have conceived and written this thesis in English all by myself. Quotations from other authors and any ideas borrowed and/or paraphrased from the work of other authors are all clearly marked within the text and acknowledged in the bibliographical references.

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Abstract (English)

The aim of the present paper is to shed some light on the perceptions and views of students of Viennese secondary schools on the matter of Target Language (TL) use opposed to First Language (L1) use in the English language classroom. The issue of Code Choice in Language Teaching has been intensively debated in previous research studies and thus a literature review on the most relevant works which focuses on various aspects provides the theoretical background for the empirical investigation conducted for the present thesis. A study using a 29 items questionnaire which contained 27 closed questions and 2 open questions was conducted in five secondary schools in Vienna to investigate experiences and preferences of 221 students. Special emphasis was put on the relationship between TL-exclusiveness and students' feelings of anxiety as well as the perceived and desired amounts of TL in relation to students proficiency level. The anticipated correlation between the required TL-exclusiveness and anxiety could not be confirmed. However, analysis showed that higher amounts of TL are used with more advanced students and vice versa. Likewise, students of lower proficiency levels were found to desire higher amounts of L1 use than their more advanced counterparts.

Zusammenfassung (Deutsch)

Die vorliegende Arbeit behandelt die Erfahrungen von SchülerInnen in Wiener AHSs zum Gebrauch der Erstsprache (='L1') im Englischunterricht im Gegensatz zur Zielsprache (='TL'), Englisch. Die Wahl der Unterrichtsprache im Fremdsprachenunterricht ist Gegenstand zahlreicher wissenschaftlicher Diskussion und wurde in der Forschungsliteratur der vergangen Jahre intensiv unter Berücksichtigung unterschiedlicher Aspekte behandelt, wie der Literaturüberblick im ersten Teil dieser Arbeit verdeutlicht. Im Rahmen dieser Diplomarbeit wurde eine Studie an fünf Wiener AHS Standorten durchgeführt, bei der mittels eines Fragenbogens, mit 27 geschlossenen und 2 offenen Fragen, die Erfahrungen und Ansichten von SchülerInnen erhoben wurden. Besonderes Augenmerk wurde auf den Zusammenhang zwischen einer vom Lehrer/von der Lehrerin verlangten ausschließlichen Verwendung der Zielsprache im Unterricht (='TL-exclusiveness') und der von SchülerInnen empfundenen Hemmnis bzw. Angst (='Anxiety') gelegt. Der erwartete positive Zusammenhang konnte auf Basis der Daten und der Analyse nicht bestätigt werden. Hingegen wurde gezeigt, dass, wie angenommen, ein Zusammenhang zwischen dem sprachlichen Level der SchülerInnen und der Häufigkeit der Verwendung der Erstsprache besteht. Die Analyse zeigt, dass nach Erfahrung der SchülerInnen in niedrigeren Schulstufen häufiger auf die Erstsprache zurückgegriffen wird, als in höheren Klassen. Ebenso wurde gezeigt, dass SchülerInnen in höheren Schulstufen ein geringeres Bedürfnis nach der Verwendung der Erstsprache haben als SchülerInnen in niedrigeren Klassen.

List of Abbreviations

AHS	Allgemein Bildende Höhere Schule (Austrian general secondary school, from age 10 to 18)
CLL	Community Language Learning
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CS	Code Switching
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
FL	Foreign Language
FLT	Foreign Language Teaching
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
MoI	Medium of Instruction
PPP	Presentation, Practise, Production
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TL	Target Language

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1 Introduction

1.1 Relevance and Interest

'Say it in English, if possible'. Probably anyone who has received some form of formal English language instruction has heard this sentence at one or another point. It is the sentence typically used by English language teachers, to encourage students to make use of the target language (TL), English. Likewise, the issue of using English in English Language Teaching (ELT) rather than a First Language (L1) is highly relevant to the field of language teaching and somewhat controversial. The last few decades have seen an almost infinite number of research papers and empirical studies on the matter. This demonstrates the considerable interest of researchers and teachers in the topic and even though much has been done, many questions remain open and no real consensus could be achieved yet. Scholars disagree on whether any L1 should be used in ELT, while those who acknowledge some use of the L1 as justified and useful argue about the appropriate amount. Furthermore, the situations and contextual features evoking recourse to the L1 remain as much a matter of debate, as does the question if the matter is contingent on students' proficiency level.

The centrality of the issue to language teaching is stressed by Macaro (2014: 10) when he says that

> the question of whether the first language (L1) should be used in the oral interaction or the written materials of second or foreign language (L2) classroom is probably the most fundamental question facing second language acquisition (SLA) researchers, language teachers and policymakers in this decade of the 21st century.

On the one end of the continuum, proponents of the 'English Only Approach' advocate the exclusive use of the TL in the classroom and wish to prohibit virtually any use of students' L1. Opponents of 'English Only', on the other end, promote a judicious use of some amount of students' L1 as useful and desirable, alongside the use of the TL. Littlewood and Yu (2011: 64) accurately capture this contention as follows:

> Positions range from insistence on total exclusion of the L1, towards varying degrees of recognition that it may provide valuable support for learning, either directly (e.g. as an element in a teaching technique or to explain a difficult point) or indirectly (e.g. to build positive relationships or help manage learning).

Between these two views, countless variations of these somewhat opposing approaches can be found, with every language teacher probably having his/her very individual belief about what is most beneficial. Indeed, research revealed considerable variation as regards the amount of TL use among different language teachers (see for instance Duff & Polio 1990).

However, there is much more to the matter than a mere discussion of quantity. It seems necessary and interesting to discuss specific reasons for L1 use, investigate situations in which switches from one language to the other occur, and explore students' as well as teachers perspectives and opinions about the issue. Some of these aspects have been addressed in previous research within different contexts as regards institutions, learner age and L1 and TL (see Chapter 4 for an overview of previous studies).

As a future English language teacher, I feel that the question of when and how much L1 should be used in teaching is both relevant and important, as appropriate answers are not self-evident. In fact, every language teacher decides which language he or she uses in every single lesson, whether he or she is aware of it or not. As Levine (2003: 343) astutely observed "[t]here are likely few foreign language (FL) instructors who have not developed an individualized approach to classroom target language (TL) and first language (L1) use". Undoubtedly it is essential for a language teacher to develop his/her own tenet on this matter. However, it is less clear what informs teachers' decisions about when and how much L1 use they apply. Thus, the paper seeks to investigate the matter and, more precisely, shed some light on the present situation in Vienna, Austria, as this is going to be the author's future teaching context. The empirical investigation that has been carried out and is reported in the second part of this thesis is meant to make a useful contribution to the discussion on L1 use in ELT.

1.2 Research Question and Aims

Even though much language choice in ELT undoubtedly happens subconsciously, teachers as well as student do not switch from one language to the other without reason. As a number of previous studies suggested, there are specific situations and parameters that clearly influence which language is used in a language classroom. As there are almost endless aspects that could be investigated with regard to L1 use in ELT, I decided to focus my investigation on aspects of quantity, students' language

level and situations and reasons that evoke L1 use. I will focus on the following research questions

- ➢ How do students feel about L1 use as opposed to English-Only in ELT?
- ➢ What do they (not) like about it?
- ➢ In which circumstances/for which reasons do they consider it helpful or useless?
- ➢ Which amount of L1 do they consider appropriate?

Apart from the above mentioned research questions, I decided to investigate the aspects of anxiety and students' language level and their relationship to L1 use applying a quantitative approach. Anyone who tried to study a language will know how challenging this can be and a language classroom can be an intimidating place. Indeed, a high level of students' anxiety, a concept that was found to constitute part of individual learner differences (see chapter 2.10 for details) can hamper language acquisition, as MacIntyre & Gardner (1991: 112) depicted: "[F]oreign language anxiety can be distinguished from other types of anxiety and […] it can have a negative effect on the language learning process".

Furthermore, Levine's suggestions for future research include:

> Focusing as well on the student as this study has done, a study also would be welcome that would probe more thoroughly students' attitudes, anxieties, and beliefs about TL and L1 use.
> (Levine 2003: 356)

Therefore, I decided to test the following hypothesis by means of the data collected from a questionnaire:

> H_1: There is a positive correlation between teachers requiring their students to use English-Only in classroom communication and students' self-perceived anxiety.

Among other aspects it was mentioned elsewhere that the students' language level has an impact on the amount of L1. It seems convincing to use more L1 if students are still mere beginners in the TL and hence have very limited language capacities, even though not all scholars would agree on this tenet. At the same time, the question arises if there is also a difference in the amount of L1 use students would appreciate which is caused by proficiency level. For the controversy on this aspect it seemed reasonable to me to put a focus on the amount of L1 use in reference to students' level in my

empirical investigation. Additionally to the first hypothesis mentioned above, the following two hypotheses will be tested:

> H_2: The mean of the 'lower proficiency group' for the variable 'reported amount of L1 use' is significantly higher than the mean of the 'more advanced proficiency group'.

> H_3: The mean of the 'lower proficiency group' for the variable 'desired amount of L1 use' is significantly higher than the mean of the 'more advanced proficiency group'.

To test these hypotheses a correlation analysis and an independent sample t-test will be conducted. The statistical procedures and the entire study are described in detail in section B of this thesis.

It has to be said from the beginning, that in my own view a complete ban of students' L1 from the FL classroom is neither realistic nor desirable. However, I do not aim to advocate a particular approach on the issue to be the only solution. Much I feel that teachers should be enabled to make conscious choices about when it is best for their particular situation and in their individual teaching context to decide for which language. Thus, I believe we cannot hope to find simple universal truths or some recipe that can be applied to any teaching situation. Instead, teachers should be encouraged to reflect on their own practise and develop their own theoretically informed preferences. Therefore, I conducted the present empirical investigation to broaden the picture and get some further insight into the matter. All the findings I will report are neither claimed to be universally true nor do I expect everybody to agree on the conclusions I will draw. The idea is much more to provide some thought-provoking insights and to enlighten the discussion and encourage teachers to question and reflect on their own tenets and according practises.

As the questionnaire study I conducted among secondary school students was realized in several Viennese AHSs (i.e. Allgemein Bildende Höhere Schule = general secondary school) and the TL of these classes was English, the entire argumentation of this paper will focus on this particular context. Nevertheless, plenty of what will be argued may as well be valid for different L1 and TL contexts. In that sense, my focus is on the use of L1 in a foreign language teaching context, which of course differs in some respect from situations where a language is taught as a second language (see chapters 2.2 and 2.3 for definitions). As has been pointed out elsewhere (see Polio 1994) one also needs to distinguish between second language and foreign

language context, if it comes to the appropriate use of L1 in language teaching. However, there might be some overlap and some principles will be applicable for both contexts. Being aware of what has just been said, I emphasize that the present paper focuses on a foreign language context and arguments and conclusions are therefore not argued to be necessarily valid for second language contexts.

1.3 Structure

In the chapter that follows this introduction, key concepts which are fundamental to the present argumentation will be discussed and defined to avoid any ambiguities or misconceptions. Chapter 3 briefly sketches developments and approaches in ELT and their influence on the use of L1 in language teaching. It is obviously impossible to give a complete history of ELT within the scope of a diploma thesis and this is not my aim here. Still, it seems relevant to briefly address major trends and developments in ELT throughout roughly the last 150 years and more specifically to identify in which ways they treat the use of L1 and hence influenced practise and tenets of teachers as well as researchers.

A review of previous research on L1 use in ELT is provided in chapter 4. It has to be noted again that it would go beyond the limitations of this paper to review all the studies and research papers available on the matter. Therefore, only the most prominent and those which appear particularly relevant for the present paper will be reviewed and grouped according to various content aspects.

In the second part of the paper (Part B), chapter 5 is meant to report the questionnaire study which was conducted among students of Viennese secondary schools. As part of this, all procedural and methodological details will be described. In chapter 6 the results of the study will be given and the data will be analysed in depth. In chapter 7 a word about the limitations of the present study will be said and possible aspects for future research will be identified. Finally, in the conclusion in chapter 8 I will try to pull the results together.

PART A: THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2 Discussion of Key Concepts

This chapter briefly discusses the terms and concepts most relevant for the argumentation of this thesis. It seems useful and necessary to do so, even though many of the terms are commonly used in second language acquisition research, because as Stern (1984: 9) precisely identifies: "The ironic fact is that the terminology we need in language pedagogy is often ambiguous and sometimes downright confusing". Indeed, any investigation can become fuzzy and difficult to follow, if one fails to use precise and clear terminology. In order to avoid such misconceptions and confusion, this chapter addresses key terms of this paper in their order of relevance.

2.1 First Language (L1)/Mother Tongue

As the title of this thesis already suggests, L1 or first language is a primary concept for this thesis and for the word 'first' being a component of the term, it lends itself as a suitable starting point. The terms mother tongue and first language are frequently used with reference to identical ideas, as if they were almost interchangeable. Stern (1948: 9) adds the terms 'native language', 'primary language' and 'stronger language' as being applied to refer to similar or even identical concepts. Closely related as all the above terms indeed are, there can be some minor but decisive differences, which are discussed below. Generally, it can be said that a mother tongue is the language a person acquires in early childhood usually in the family (Stern 1984: 10). Therefore, the term home language is sometimes used in this sense too.

The matter becomes less clear cut, if the term first language is to be defined, which is apparent in the somewhat misleading definition for mother tongue by Richards, Platt and Weber (1985: 184 [original emphasis]): "(usually) a FIRST LANGUAGE which is acquired at home". The use of the term 'usually' suggests that there is some degree of uncertainty at hand. A similar picture arises from first language being defined as "(generally) a person's mother tongue or the language acquired first" (Richards, Platt and Weber 1985: 106). Indeed, in many cases the terms first language and mother tongue are used to refer to the very same idea. However, the matter becomes problematic if it comes to bilingual or multilingual people, who acquire more than one language in infancy and use more than one in their home.

Stern proposes a useful distinction to be made to avoid this confusion. He pointedly observes that the term first language can be used to refer to the point of acquisition on the one hand and on the other hand to the level of proficiency. Thus, Stern (1984: 11) wants "to reserve the term 'native language' for the language of early childhood acquisition and 'primary language' for the language of dominant or preferred use". Furthermore, if one uses the term native language, one can talk about a person having two (or even more) native languages, which indeed bilingual speakers do. Conversely, it would seem odd to talk about a person having two 'mother tongues'. Additionally, it has to be pointed out, that especially in multilingual societies and for immigrants, a person's primary language does not necessarily have to be his or her native language. A person who for example acquired Turkish in early childhood but lives in Austria might have Turkish as his or her native language but may use German as the primary language of interaction in the school context. However, he or she might use Turkish to converse with family members. Thus bilingual speakers can have two or more 'primary languages', in the sense of the term above, for various social contexts.

The more commonly used term 'first language', as Stern (1984: 11) acknowledges, can refer to both, a language acquired in early childhood and a language of preferred use and it is the context that mostly dissolves this ambiguity. For this paper, I will use the term first language (L1) to refer to the language which is of dominant use in the educational context of my empirical investigation, which for most participants, though definitely not for all of them, is also their native language. For the second part of the paper, which discusses the empirical investigation, the term 'German' will be used interchangeably with L1, as the study was conducted in the Austrian school context, where German is the primary language used in school. At the same time, it has to be kept in mind that some students participating in the study will have German as native language while others will have different native language backgrounds. This reality of multilingual classrooms certainly has an impact on language teaching and will be briefly discussed in chapter B 4.7, as it is not the main point of this paper but still closely related to it.

2.2 English as a Second Language (ESL)

Even though the term Second Language is not of primary relevance to the present investigation, it seems useful to address the term here, as it is sometimes used in the literature to refer to what others, including the author of this thesis, label 'foreign

language'. Furthermore, a number of studies on L1 use in language teaching have been conducted in contexts where English was a Second Language, i.e. in a community where English has official status. Some of the findings of these studies may equally apply to foreign language teaching contexts.

As the term itself already suggests, a second language is "*any* language that has been acquired subsequent to the [first language]" (Thornbury 2010: 202, original emphasis). Given the fact that nowadays many people speak more than one language, the term 'additional language' is used in the same sense as well. Again Stern (1984: 12-13) points out that the term second language implies two sets of information: First, the term refers to the point of acquisition, that is any second language is acquired later in time than a first language. Secondly, the term may also say something about the proficiency level. In that sense 'second' can also indicate a lower proficiency level compared to a speaker's L1. Stern (1987: 13) agreeably finds that frequently "the two uses coincide", which means that the command of a language acquired later is usually weaker. However, it is useful to be aware of the two distinct but related meanings implied in the term.

As has already been mentioned, this thesis focuses on contexts in which English is taught as a foreign language. Therefore, the term foreign language, which is closely related to the concept of a second language, is considered in the following section.

2.3 English as a Foreign Language (EFL)

A 'foreign language' is a language which is not used as the usual medium of interaction within a speech community nor has it got official status within a country, but is learned for other purposes or with other aims in mind. In other words a foreign language is a "non-native language learnt and used with reference to a speech community *outside* national or territorial boundaries" (Stern 1984: 16 [original emphasis]). The reasons for learning a foreign language can be multiple and may be to travel abroad, communicate with native speakers or in the case of English, use the language as a way of communicating with other non-native speakers, with whom one does not share a native language. This nowadays increasing use of English is also referred to as 'English as a Lingua Franca' (Thornbury 2010: 74).

Coming back to the specific context of the present study, English is a Foreign Language for all the participants of the present study, as this language has no official

status in Austria[1]. However, it is a compulsory school subject in Austria and taught at all levels.

Another decisive observation about the distinction between ESL and EFL comes from Stern (1984: 16) and shall briefly be discussed:

> A second language, because it is used within the country, is usually learnt with much more environmental support than a foreign language whose speech community may be thousands of miles away. A foreign language usually requires more formal instruction and other measures compensating for the lack of environmental support.

Stern pointedly described the different ways in which second and foreign languages tend to be learned. I want to stress here that the focus of my entire paper is on the use of the L1 (in the case of this study 'German') in a **foreign** language teaching context. At the same time I am aware that some of the points and issues that will be raised, can be applied and are similarly relevant to contexts in which English is a second language, as Auerbach (1993) observed and described. However, as Stern pointed out, in second language context, learners are much more surrounded by the target language and acquire the language with fewer or no formal instruction at all.

2.4 Target Language (TL)

The target language is "the language that a learner is trying to learn" (Ellis 1998: 144). That is, the 'target language', as the term already suggests, is the language which is the aim of the learning or acquisition process. Lightbown and Spada's (2006: 205) definition of the term points to an important aspect of it: "The language being learned, whether it is the first language or a second (or third or fourth) language." Indeed, if a child learns a first language, this particular language is the target language of the acquisition process. For the present context, however, the term target language is used to refer to the object of studying, in contexts where students are learning a foreign language. As the target language of the participants in my study is English, I will use these two terms interchangeably in the discussion of the results. However, it should be kept in mind, that for different learning contexts, other first and target languages might be involved, and present findings might also apply to these situations.

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[1] An exception are students whose native language is English (who acquired English as a child as their parents were Native Speakers of English)

2.5 Medium of Instruction (MoI)

As the present thesis is concerned with language choice in language teaching, another concept which is of central relevance is 'Medium of Instruction'. In very basic terms, it can be said that the Medium of Instruction is "the language used in education" (Richards, Platt & Platt 1995: 1995: 225) or "the main language of instruction at school or college" (Davies 2005: 93). Mostly, the language selected in education is the language which has official status in a given country, for instance Italian in Italy or German in Austria. However, the choice of the MoI is less clear cut in multilingual societies or countries with more than one prominent official language like Belgium or Canada. In such contexts, different languages may be used for different subjects or the MoI may depend on the policy of the specific institution or school (Davies 2005: 93).

Similarly, different from other subjects the MoI in foreign language teaching tends to be the target language (see chapter 2.4.) rather than the official language of the country. However, the latter, which is likely to be the First Language of the majority of students, if a homogenous speech community is assumed, may also be used to some degree in FLT. What constitutes an appropriate balance of the L1 and the TL as the Medium of Instruction in ELT is the interest of the present thesis.

For this thesis, the term Medium of Instruction will be used scarcely, and the terms First Language and Target Language will be preferred. However, the brief discussion of the term seems relevant, as it is likely to appear in references to previous studies. Within the context of the present empirical investigation the Medium of Instruction for subjects other than foreign languages is German, given the fact that the survey was conducted in Vienna. In the questionnaire study, the amount and relevance of German as MoI in English lessons was investigated, as will be discussed in further detail in the second part of this thesis.

2.6 English Language Teaching (ELT)

The term English Language Teaching refers to the "provision [that] must be made by society to help individuals to learn the second [and/or foreign] languages needed" (Stern 1984: 18). In other words, language teaching means any institutionalized instruction with the ultimate goal of enabling participants to speak and write a language. Thus, learning a language as the result of being taught has to be distinguished from the kind of language learning that takes place without any form of

formal instruction, which may even happen unconsciously. This type of language acquisition takes place when people acquire their first language. Furthermore, people frequently acquire second languages by simply being surrounded by the language in their immediate community and using it as the medium of interaction (Stern 1984: 19).

For the present paper the focus is clearly on those contexts were a formal instruction in the English language is intended to induce acquisition, thus learning as the result of teaching. More specifically, the empirical investigation is set in different Viennese secondary schools, in all of which English is a compulsory subject. Hence, the argumentation will focus on this particular context. However, the majority of the issues raised and the points of view taken can be applied to other situations in which English and probably also other languages are taught in an institutionalized way at different age levels.

2.7 English-Only

The concept 'English-Only instruction' or as it is also labelled the 'Monolingual Principle' refers to "exclusion of the native language (or other, previously acquired languages) from the classroom, the target language being both the object and the sole medium of teaching" (Butzkamm 2004b: 415). That is to say that any use or reference to students' native language in the teaching situation is strictly prohibited, if one applies the principle in its most orthodox form.

The idea originates from the Direct Method, a language teaching approach which emerged at the beginning of the 20th century (Butzkamm 2004b: 416, for a more detailed discussion of the Direct Method see chapter 3.2). The two core principles that support the exclusive use of the target language in a classroom are the necessity of as much target language input as possible and the belief that the first language might be a hindrance in acquiring the second language properly (Butzkamm 2004b: 416). Duff and Polio (1990: 154) argue that "the quantity of L2 input is especially important". Similarly, Littlewood and Yu (2010: 65) report that "the main rationale for advocating maximal use of the TL [...] is that for most students, the classroom is the only opportunity they have for exposure to the language."

Even though language teaching approaches that emerged throughout the 20th century did not necessarily prohibit the use of the L1 explicitly, the Monolingual Principles left its traces in the practise of ELT to the present day and "the dominant approach in

second language (L2) teaching has advocated no use of L1 in L2 classroom" (de la Campa & Nassaji 2009: 742). As Littlewood and Yu (2010: 66) nicely worded: "the monolingual principle has permeated every language teaching method that has found widespread official support."

2.8   Bilingual Teaching Strategies

As the term itself already suggests, what is meant with 'bilingual teaching strategies' is the use of more than one language within an educational setting, usually students' L1 and the target language of the programme.

The term 'bilingual method' was originally coined by Charles Joseph Dodson (1974), who in the 1960/70s developed a teaching method which used translations of meaningful utterances as the core unit of his approach. It is important to stress that the emphasis within this approach is on meaning and the communicative value of an utterance rather than on providing one to one equivalents between the two languages (Butzkamm 2004a: 84-85).

Even though the focus of the present paper is not on Dodson's bilingual method, it cannot be ignored that his work was of fundamental relevance to views on the role of the L1 in language teaching and paved the way to a much more open discussion about the matter and the issues and implications that arise from the idea. To use Butzkamm's (2004a: 86) slightly pathetic but pointed word choice: "Dodson's seminal work dealt the death blow to the short-sighted notion of the mother tongue as nothing but a source of interference". Indeed, the bilingual method opened the discussion on the use of students' L1 and inspired opponents as well as proponents of the monolingual principle to voice their arguments more in-depth.

As the present thesis addresses the use of L1, it is obviously more indebted to any type of bilingual methodological frame than the monolingual principle. However, I do not intend to focus on Dodson's bilingual method or the issue of Code-Switching (see 2.9) in particular, but rather put emphasis on the views, attitudes and experiences of students regarding L1 use and seek to investigate the contexts and reasons that influence the recourse to the L1 in an ELT setting.

2.9 Code-Switching

Code-Switching is a concept closely related to Bilingual teaching strategies, however, it does not originate from the field of language teaching but is a concept of general linguistics. A useful and concise definition of the term reads "the alternate use of two languages in the same discourse" (Cook 1998: 49). Thus, code-switching means to change the language within a single utterance or conversation, which can fulfil various purposes. It has to be noted that speakers also switch between two variants of one and the same language. These switches may include alternation between a regional dialect and standard language or between different levels of formality.

Code-switching regularly occurs in language teaching and learning (unless a strict monolingual approach is adopted) and can thus be regarded an integral part of bilingual teaching strategies. Within the context of a language classroom, a code-switch can go in two opposed directions: Either from the target language to students' L1, or the other way round. Different from switches occurring in other contexts, code-switching in language teaching contexts fulfils an additional distinctive function, which naturalistic code-switching usually does not involve. As Macaro (2014: 11) observed, the aim of switches in language teaching is to facilitate and scaffold the language acquisition process, a feature not normally found in ordinary conversation which involves code-switching.

For reasons of clarity and as the emphasis in this paper is not on the phenomenon of code-switching, I will mainly use the term 'L1-use' throughout the argumentation. Doing so, I am conscious that any L1-use in a language classroom implies code-switches. Therefore, I decided to mention the concept of CS in this section and to provide a brief definition of the term.

2.10 Anxiety

The concept of anxiety is one aspect of what is referred to as individual learner differences in language teaching and it was found to have an impact on language learning in SLA research (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 61): "foreign language anxiety can be distinguished from other types of anxiety and […] it can have a negative effect on the language learning process" (MacIntyre & Gardner 1991: 112).

Learner anxiety can be defined as "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness and worry associated with an arousal of the automatic nervous system" (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope 1986: 125) or "feelings of worry, nervousness, and stress that many students experience when learning a second language" (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 61). Thus, it is closely related to forms of inhibition which may prevent students from taking part in speaking activities or producing some form of oral participation. Hedge (2000: 21) is in line with this argument when concluding that "[t]he greatest anxiety seems to relate to negative experience in speaking activities". Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986: 127) equally acknowledge the relationship between anxiety and inhibition of speaking in a foreign language:

> People who typically have trouble speaking in groups are likely to experience even greater difficulty speaking in a foreign language class where they have little control of the communicative situation and their performance is constantly monitored.

As the above quote already indicates, one can basically distinguish between two forms of anxiety: trait anxiety and situational anxiety. The former "is a more permanent predisposition to be anxious" (Brown 2001: 151) and as the name already suggests is similar to a character trait an individual person holds rather permanently. Situational anxiety however, "is experienced in relation to some particular event or act" (Brown 2001: 151). For the argumentation in this paper, it is essential to understand anxiety in the latter sense, as it will be argued that there might be a correlation between forcing students to exclusively use the TL and their feelings of anxiety. In other words, it cannot be ruled out that a very orthodox English-Only policy can constitute such a situation or circumstance that might raise levels of students' anxiety. This thought assents to Macaro (2014: 22) who hypothesized that "learners might be more willing to communicate and take risks if they are not forbidden to use brief bursts of their L1." However, that is not to say that I will argue that students should never be encouraged or are even required to use the TL. On the contrary, it was also found in previous works that a certain level of tension and force can in fact have a positive influence on acquisition (Brown 2001: 152). Rather one should be careful to distinguish between "debilitative and facilitative anxiety" (Brown 2001: 151) and the relationship to the MoI.

When the terms anxiety or inhibition are used here, they will be used interchangeably for stylistic variation, but are basically used to refer to any negative feelings or

uneasiness which are caused by some situational circumstance or outside force that might have a negative impact on language learning (debilitative anxiety).

3 Historical Perspectives on Developments Affecting Language Choice in ELT

This chapter is not meant to be a comprehensive history of the development of English language teaching, which would go far beyond the scope of this thesis. My intention in this section is rather to give a brief overview of those language teaching approaches and methods that have particularly influenced the choice of the MoI in the language classroom. In that sense, I consciously selected some approaches and methods that seemed particularly pertinent, while I had to neglect others. For each approach a condensed summary of the main principles and ideas will be given which will be followed by a discussion of how this method treats L1 use. Furthermore, I do not intend to provide any value judgment, even though some approaches have received heavy criticism and some are regarded to be outdated. I put a clear emphasis on the way the approaches deal with and influenced the choice of the MoI in language teaching.

3.1 Grammar Translation and Early Developments

The somewhat first language teaching method that developed, when foreign languages other than Latin and Greek entered school curricula in the 18th century, is known as the Grammar Translation method (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 4). This method is based on the way the classical languages Latin and Greek were taught. When it started to get used for teaching other languages, the aim was to enable students to read literary texts, while communication was not an issue (Larsen-Freeman 2000: 11). The basic teaching principle of the Grammar Translation method is a "detailed analysis of […] [the] grammar rules [of a language], followed by application of this knowledge to the task of translating sentences and texts into and out of the target language" (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 5). Hence, great emphasis was put on the skills of reading and writing while listening, speaking and pronunciation were not considered.

As translation is the core principle of teaching in the Grammar translation method, the L1 obviously has a quite dominant role to play. "The meaning of the target language is made clear by translating it into the students' native language. The language that is used in class [(as the MoI)] is mostly the students' native language" (Larsen-Freeman 2001: 18).

The Grammar Translation method was especially popular in the 19th century. Even though some of its techniques continued to be used partly to the present day, "opposition to the Grammar-Translation Method gradually developed in several European countries" in the course of the 19th century. "This Reform Movement, as it was referred to, laid the foundations for the development of new ways of teaching languages" (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 7), which will be discussed in the following section.

3.2 The Reform Movement and the Direct Method

With a new desire to teach spoken skills, a number of teaching experts simultaneously developed new teaching principles that were largely influenced by the emergence of phonetics as an academic discipline and an increased interest in linguistics towards the end of the 19th century. There were a number of people who developed similar and slightly differing principles all over Europe. In essence, they all put special emphasis on spoken language, stressed the importance of phonetic training to achieve accurate pronunciation, presented language in sentences or larger meaningful stretches, taught grammar inductively and avoided translation. However, "the native language could be used to explain a new word or to check comprehension" (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 10). In that sense, the reformers wanted a shift away from the focus on translation but did not completely disregard any use of students first language.

Even though, all ideas of the Reform Movement did not manage to establish an accepted method they clearly paved the way for the emergence of the first proper language teaching method after Grammar Translation, which became known as the Direct Method. This method is especially known for one of his most prominent supporters Maximilian Berlitz, who successfully used this method in his private language schools. "Direct meant direct association between concepts and the new language, without imposition of the mother tongue" (Butzkamm 2004b: 416). The basic techniques and principles of the Direct Method include the exclusive use of the TL as the MoI, a strong emphasis on everyday words which are taught by means of demonstration and objects, teaching grammar inductively and aiming for correct pronunciation. Furthermore, students especially in the private language institutes, were taught in small groups (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 11-12).

Even though the Direct Method somewhat emerged as a result of the Reform Movement, it differs distinctively from it especially as regards the role of the L1. While the Reformers accepted some judicious use of the L1 as MoI, "[t]he students' Native Language should not be used in the classroom" (Larsen-Freeman 2000: 30) according to the Direct Method.

3.3 Audiolingualism and the Oral-Situational Approach

Audiolingualism is "a language teaching method that became widespread in the 1950s and 1960s, especially in the United States, and whose most distinctive feature was the drilling of sentence patterns. The Audiolingual method claimed to have transformed language teaching from an art into a science" (Thornbury 2010: 20). With the emphasis on drills and memorization of pre-fabricated structures, the method is theoretically based on structural linguistics and behaviourism (Larsen-Freeman 2001: 35). There is a clear emphasis on the acquisition of spoken language and the usual order of instruction is that of "hearing-speaking-reading-writing" (Byram 2004: 58). The audiolingual method is strongly associated with the language laboratory, where patterns are practised.

"The habits of students' native language are thought to interfere with students' attempts to master the target language" (Larsen-Freeman 2001: 47). Therefore, the L1 must not be used in the classroom to avoid undesired interference.

A method that evolved roughly at the same time (between the 1930s and the 1960s) in Britain and that shares many characteristics with the Audiolingual method, became known as the Oral Approach or Situational Language Teaching, which is an extension of the former that follows similar ideas and patterns. Like the Audiolingual method, Situational Language Teaching puts great emphasis on oral skills. Therefore, the starting point is always spoken language and new structures or grammar are introduced orally in the target language. Moreover, Harold Palmer, A.S. Hornby and other British linguists, who developed the theoretical foundations of the Oral Approach in the 1920s, stressed the centrality of vocabulary and grammar as important components of language acquisition. They developed

> an approach to methodology that involved systematic principles of *selection* (the procedures by which the lexical and grammatical content was chosen, *gradation* (principles by which the organization and sequencing of content were determined) and

presentation (techniques used for presentation and practise of items in a course)
(Richards & Rodgers 2001: 38 [original emphasis]).

Typically procedures in the Oral Approach "move from controlled to freer practise of structures and from oral use of sentence patterns to their automatic use in speech, reading and writing" (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 44). In that sense, Situational Language Teaching is largely committed to the PPP model, which suggests that a lesson should have three phases: Presentation, Practise and Production (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 47).

Regarding the use of students' L1, the Oral Approach or Situational Language Teaching hold similar views as the Direct Method or the Audiolingual Method. "Only the target language should be used in the classroom" (Celce-Murcia 2001: 7).

3.4 The Audio-Visual Method

The Audio-Visual Method was developed in the 1950 in Croatia and France simultaneously and it exists in different versions. As the name suggests it puts great emphasis on oral skills and uses visual aids to help students understand the meaning of utterances which are usually presented in the form of tape-recordings, while reading and writing are of inferior relevance. In its most orthodox form the Audio-Visual Method involves the following five phases: a presentation phase, an explanatory phase, an imitation phase, an exploitation phase and a transposition phase (Reinfried 2004: 61). First, students are confronted with recorded dialogues accompanied with pictures which are meant to clarify and stress the meaning. Next, "the pupils' general and incomplete understanding is deepened and improved by the teacher using monolingual semanticisation techniques" (Reinfried 2004: 61). In the imitation phase students listen to the recording again and repeat the utterances individually or as a group. Then, the pictures are used as a stimulus for role-play in which students should try to present the newly acquired dialogue. Finally, in the transposition phase students are meant to transfer the language structures to different contexts.

As regards the role of the L1, the "classical form of the audio-visual method is strictly [monolingual]" (Reinfried 2004: 61), hence, any use of students' first language is clearly prohibited. In that sense, in the use of the visual media, the Audio-Visual method shares some characteristics with the Direct Method. On the other hand, it is "often linked to the audiolingual method because both methods use tape-recorders,

work mainly with dialogues and were presented as scientifically-based methods during the 1960s" (Reinfried 2004: 61).

3.5 The Bilingual Method

The Bilingual Method was coined by Carl Dodson in the 1960s as a reaction to the Audio-Visual Method and can be regarded as a modification or extension of it. In essence, the two Methods adhere to similar principles, however, they decisively differ regarding the role of students' L1. The Bilingual Method follows the three phase model of presentation, practise and production and stresses the importance of oral skills and the acquisition of language patterns. However, differently from the Audio-Visual Method, Dodson encouraged presentation of written language and spoken utterances simultaneously from the beginning (Butzkamm 2004a: 84). Apart from visual aids that are used to accompany the written or spoken text, "Dodson […] used oral mother-tongue equivalents at sentence level to convey the meaning of unknown words or structures. Interference from the mother tongue is avoided because the teacher says each dialogue sentence twice, with the mother tongue version sandwiched between" (Butzkamm 2004a: 85). It is important to stress that "[n]ot word, but utterance, equivalents are given – either whole utterances or meaningful parts of an utterance" (Butzkamm 2004a: 85). In that sense, the Bilingual Method differs from traditional bilingual word-lists and focuses on meaning.

With regard to the role of the L1, the Bilingual Method was the first method that not only tolerated L1 use but that consciously encouraged it and exploited it as a technique and used it as a scaffolding tool for acquisition. "The mother tongue thus proves to be the ideal (and most direct) means of getting the meaning across as completely and as quickly as possible. Bringing the differences to light, contrasting and comparing, seems to be the most effective antidote to interference errors" (Butzkamm 2004a: 85).

3.6 The Natural Approach

The Natural Approach was developed by Tracy Terrell and Stephen Krashen in the 1970s and is based on the view that "communication is the primary function of language" (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 179). Therefore, emphasis is put on meaning and the ultimate aim to be able to communicate in the target language. "The Natural Approach belongs to a tradition of language teaching methods based on observation and interpretation of how learners acquire both first and second languages in

nonformal setting" (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 190). Hence, what was termed 'comprehensible input' is believed to be the key to successful language acquisition, modelled on principles that children naturally acquire their native language without formal instruction. Apart from the emphasis on meaning and lexical forms, the Natural Approach is based on five principles that constitute Krashen's view of language acquisition: The Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis, The Monitor Hypothesis, The Natural Order Hypothesis, The Input Hypothesis, The Affective Filter Hypothesis (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 181-183). It exceeds the scope of this short overview to discuss all the principles in detail. I will, therefore, rather comment on two principles which seem especially relevant to the present thesis. First, the Input Hypothesis stresses the necessity to expose learners to as much comprehensible input as possible. It is important that input is slightly above the current proficiency level of the learner but that he or she is at the same time able to decode the meaning. Secondly, the Affective Filter Hypothesis regards "the learner's emotional state or attitude as an adjustable filter that freely passes, impedes, or blocks input necessary to acquisition" (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 183). Therefore, students with low affective filters are more likely to take up input and hence are more successful in acquisition. In consequence, a positive classroom atmosphere is considered conducive for acquisition.

Concerning the role of the L1 in The Natural Approach, there is virtually no room for it. For the centrality of comprehensible input in the TL, any recourse to students' L1 is regarded to deprive students' of this valuable input and therefore has to be avoided at any cost.

3.7 Community Language Learning

"Community Language Learning takes its principles from the more general Counselling-Learning Approach developed by Charles A. Curran, […] [who] was also influenced by Carl Roger's humanistic psychology" (Larsen Freeman 2000: 89). This teaching approach belongs to what is known as 'humanistic techniques' that "engage the whole person, including the emotions and feelings (the affective realm) as well as linguistic knowledge and behavioural skills" (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 90). "In CLL, a learner presents a message in L1 to the knower. The message is translated into L2 by the knower. The learner then repeats the message in L2, addressing it to another learner with whom he or she wishes to communicate" (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 91).

The social dimension of learning is taken into consideration and teachers take effort to respect students' feelings and fears and create a positive classroom atmosphere. The relationship between the teacher and the learner is of vital importance and develops as the learner becomes more proficient and hence independent of the teacher. This development is "divided into five stages and compared to the ontogenetic development of the child [from birth to adulthood]" (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 92).

The L1 is not only allowed in CLL but necessary as it is the usual starting point and as "[s]tudents' security is initially enhanced by using their native language. […] Directions in class and sessions during which students express their feelings and are understood are conducted in the native language. In later stages, of course, more and more of the target language can be used" (Larsen-Freeman 2000: 101-102). In that sense, CLL pays attention to students' language level concerning use of the L1/TL, a principle I regard as useful within any teaching approach.

3.8 Communicative Language Teaching

Communicative Language Teaching "is an umbrella term used to describe a major shift in emphasis in language teaching in Europe in the 1970s. Essentially, the shift was away from teaching language systems (such as vocabulary and grammar) in isolation to teaching people how these system are used in real communication" (Thornbury 2010: 36). In essence, the ultimate goal of CLT is to acquire communicative competence besides linguistic competence. The shift was brought about by educators who questioned the usefulness of previous methods as it was observed that students were unable to successfully use the acquired language structures outside the classroom for communicative needs (Larsen-Freeman 2000: 121).

CLT is not a method but an approach and hence there is no fixed routine or script that is to be followed. Likewise there is "no single text or authority on it, nor any single model that is universally accepted as authoritative" (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 155). The basic aims of CLT are to "make communicative competence the goal of language teaching" and to "develop procedures for the teaching of skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication" (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 155).

The use of students' L1 is not per se prohibited by CLT, however, a strong reliance on the TL is encouraged.

Judicious use of the students' native language is permitted in CLT. However, whenever possible, the target language should be used not only during communicative activities but also for explaining the activities to the students or in assigning homework. The students learn from these classroom management exchanges, too, and realize that the target language is a vehicle for communication, not just an object of study. (Larsen-Freeman 2000: 132)

4   The Use of the L1 in ELT

As has already been indicated in the introduction of this thesis, the issue of L1 use in ELT is not only a major theme for practising language teachers and learners, it has also induced a considerable number of studies on the matter throughout the last years:

> In recent decades, the debate over target language and first language use in teaching and learning second and foreign languages has resulted in an extensive body of literature. […] a majority of studies and articles relating to this topic have examined the issues from either a pedagogical perspective or from a sociolinguistic one. (Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain 2009: 1)

Indeed, the topic has been tackled from many different perspectives and emphasis was put on various aspects. Advocates of an TL-exclusiveness approach as well as those who favour judicious use of students' L1 have conducted a considerable number of studies focusing on different details and arguing their specific point. Hence, this chapter reviews and comments on the most relevant previous studies and provides an overview of the dimensions that have been investigated. The aim of this review is to place the present empirical investigation in the existing body of literature. Therefore, those aspects of language choice in ELT that are particularly relevant to the present empirical study will be addressed.

First, what can be regarded an appropriate quantity of L1, a question which is frequently raised in connection with discussion about L1 use in LT, is discussed. In the next sub-chapter, the most important situations that have been found to evoke L1 use will be addressed. Section 4.3. deals with the relevance of students age as well as TL proficiency level for language choice in LT. The affective component, more specifically anxiety or inhibition and its relation to medium of instruction will be discussed in section 4.5. The perspectives and opinions of the teachers and the students respectively are examined in 4.6.. Even though it is not the main focus of the present thesis, the issue of students' native language background has a major influence on the appropriate language choice in language education and is thus closely related to the present discussion. Therefore, the issue of multilingualism among students will briefly be discussed in chapter 4.7. to round off the picture. Finally, chapter 4.8. sheds some light on the present situation in Austria and studies that have been conducted on the matter under investigation.

4.1 In Search of the Appropriate Quantity

One aspect of L1 use in language teaching which has been widely addressed is the question of the appropriate amount of L1 (if any) to be used. Probably any teacher or researcher who has worked on the issue has at one or another point asked the question 'How much L1 should be used by language teachers? In how far should students be allowed to use their L1?'. I take the position that these questions are almost impossible to answer in general terms and that appropriate amounts of L1 depend on various contextual components as learner level or topic and situational context. Still, it seems useful to review findings of previews studies on teachers' actual practise and examine suggested amounts that have been proposed by some scholars.

A number of studies have investigated the proportions of L1 and TL use for both teachers and students. In their frequently cited study, Duff and Polio (1990) investigated the TL amounts of teachers of various TLs in a university context on the basis of tape-recording and observation. The amount of TL use was found to vary considerably among the teachers in this survey, ranging from 100% to 10% of their entire speaking time. Additionally, questionnaires were administered to investigate students' perceptions and beliefs about their teachers' TL use. It is interesting to point out that "[i]n only two of the thirteen language classes did any students note that the teacher 'never' used English[2]" (Duff & Polio 1990: 157). That is to say, even though departmental policies for most teachers required a TL-Only approach and most teachers believed in it, only one of the teachers in the reported study was found to use the TL exclusively.

Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) conducted a field study among secondary students and teachers in a context where Arabic was the L1 and English was the TL. Among other methods, extensive classroom observation by the researchers was used to identify patterns in teachers' and students' use of L1 and to measure quantities. It was found that "the vast majority of teachers (93%) and students (95%) actually use MT[3] in the English classroom for various purposes" (Kharma & Hajjaj 1989: 228). Furthermore, Kharma and Hajjaj reported that around 30% of the teachers used the L1 roughly 20%

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[2] In the context of this study, English was the students' L1

[3] MT = mother tongue (authors' term); In the present thesis the term 'native language' is used, see chapter 2.1 for details

of the entire class time. Similar to Duff and Polio, Kharma and Hajjaj's findings suggest that a 100% reliance on the TL is very rare.

In their study at a private language institute in Cypros, Copland and Neokleous (2011: 271) investigated the amount and patterns of L1 use of four different teachers by means of observation, tape-recording and interviews. Similar to Duff and Polio, a considerable variation in terms of the amount of L1 use across the four teachers was found, with one teacher using only one instance of L1 use throughout the entire lesson, opposed to 634 L1 utterances by another teacher. Additionally, it seems worth noting that Copland and Neokleous (2011: 278) found that "teachers' professed desires about L1 use are clearly in conflict with their classroom realities". That is to say teachers in the reported study regarded L1 exclusiveness as desirable but did not adhere to this principle in reality. Furthermore, the actual amount teachers used L1 according to the recorded data was considerably higher than what teachers reported in the interviews.

Liu et al. (2004) conducted a survey among thirteen university high school teachers of English in Korea. The teachers were asked to record one 50 minutes lesson each and recordings were analysed using word counts to calculate amounts of TL use. Similar to the studies reported above, a wide variation of amounts of TL and hence L1 respectively across individual teachers was found, ranging from 10% to 90%. Again, the total exclusion of students' L1 was not identified. In line and disagreeing with previous findings at the same time was the relationship between teachers' and students' reported amounts of L1 use compared to actual amounts calculated from the recordings. As in other studies, a wide discrepancy between reported and actual amounts was determined, however, actual amounts of L1 use were lower than those reported by both students and teachers. This is unusual and surprising against the tendency that in most other studies teachers tend to report lower amounts of L1 than they actually apply (see for example Duff and Polio 1990).

A similar discrepancy as regards amount of L1 use between teachers was found in a study by Kim and Elder (2005). Seven teachers of four different target languages in New Zealand secondary schools were recorded and observed for three lessons each. One lesson for each teacher was selected and transcribed and amounts of L1 use were calculated by means of an analysis of speech units (see Kim & Elder 2005: 362-363 for details). Akin to other studies, "all the participating teachers were found to use English as a medium of instruction to some extent, [and] their use of the TL and

English[4] varied to a great extent in terms of the amount and the way they were used" (Kim & Elder 2005: 368). Thoughtfully and convincingly Kim and Elder acknowledge that this variation "may have been constrained by the particular context of each classroom" (ibid.). Thus, Kim and Elder seem to take the same point that will be argued here, that the appropriate and actual balance of L1 and TL use is determined by a number of contextual factors as students proficiency level or task type.

The L1 use of two instructors of German at a Canadian university were explored by de la Campa and Nassaji (2009). Based on video as well as audio recordings, instructor interviews and simulated recall sessions, the amount and purposes of L1 were investigated. The two teachers were found to use very similar amounts of L1 in their lesson (around 10%). However, individual class sessions showed a considerable variation of L1 use, ranging from 4,6% in one session to 25,1% in another. "This suggests that comparing averages may provide a distorted representation of the L1 amount when in fact L1 use seems highly variable depending on individual classes" (de la Campa & Nassaji 2009: 749). Moreover this might suggest that the amount and the practise of L1 use is largely contingent on parameters of context and individual situation, which will be addressed in the next sub-chapter.

In sum, it can be said that all previous studies found a substantial variation of L1 amount across different teachers and individual lessons:

> There is […] variation in teachers' actual practice. For example, studies have regularly found a range from total exclusion (which is rare) to as much as 90% use of the L1, even amongst teachers in apparently similar teaching situations and even when the teachers are native speakers of the TL. (Littlewood & Yu 2011: 64)

It is suggested that this variation depends on context and is informed by pedagogical decisions of teachers. However, we should not miss, that much L1 use of teachers happens unconsciously, given the abovementioned finding that teachers tend to underestimate their actual amount of L1 use.

The author of this thesis takes the stance that the amount of L1 use can only be a starting point of the entire discussion and appropriate L1 use is almost impossible to define in quantitative terms. Even though Macaro's (2006: 82) suggestion of limiting L1 use to 10 to 15 % might serve as a useful rule of thumb, it appears that the

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[4] In this study English was the L1 and different languages were the TL.

appropriate amount can only be established in a given context. Thus, it seems more relevant to investigate under which circumstances and for which reasons L1 use actually happens and to try to identify patterns. That way, the aim should indeed be to find out "in what ways […] the first language [might] be used in order to enhance learning" Macaro 2009: 48). Therefore, the following sub-chapter will address situations and parameters affecting students' and teachers' language choice in the classroom.

4.2 The Affective Component and Anxiety

> Apart from retarding the FL-learning process, dogmatic exclusion of L1 can lead to resentment, frustration and the build-up of affective factors which are well known to be the enemy of effective FL learning. (Klapper 1998: 24)

> On the one hand, using the L1 deprives learners of the opportunity to experience communicating in the L2 but, on the other hand, it helps to alleviate the anxiety that arises when communicating with limited linguistic resources. (Ellis & Shintani 2014: 225)

As has been outlined in chapter 2.10. anxiety was found to be an important and determining factor for language learning. As the two above quotes indicate, some scholars believe that there is also a connection between rigid insistence on TL-exclusiveness and students' feelings of anxiety. The positive effect of judicious use of students' L1 on general classroom atmosphere and students' affective state is expressed by Auerbach (1993: 19) who contested that "[a] second benefit of using the L1 is that it reduces affective barriers to English acquisition and allows for more rapid progress to or in ESL". Ellis and Shintani (2014: 244) agree with Auerbach, when they say: "[…] the use of the L1 in the classroom can serve as a means of reducing anxiety and creating rapport".

The dimension of negative affective feelings caused by TL-exclusiveness was reported to be related to students' proficiency levels by some scholars. The two quotes below exemplify the tenet that low-level students might be more affected by anxiety caused by denial to recourse to their L1:

> Depriving students completely of this support by immersing them in a strange environment, where they feel disoriented and powerless, has been identified as one possible source of demotivation, especially for students with more limited proficiency. (Littlewood & Yu 2011: 70)

> […] using the L2 can be a source of embarrassment particularly for shy learners and those who feel they are not very proficient in the L2. (Nation 2003: 2)

It could be added that a similar relationship might hold true for age. That is to say, that younger learners might be more likely to be affected by anxiety resulting from TL-exclusiveness than older learners. Indeed, age and foreign language level frequently coincide.

Another reason why TL-exclusiveness might enhance students' anxiety is the students' desire for comprehension in order to feel at ease. Meyer (2008: 147) pointedly describes the negative effects which lack of comprehension and resulting anxiety can have on the language learning process:

> The primary role of the students' L1 in the language classroom is lowering affective filters. This is done through comprehension. Comprehension not only of the L2, but of the procedures that take place in the classroom. Regardless of the subject being studied, the classroom can be an intimidating place, even for adults. It can take some time to become accustomed to new surroundings, faces, classroom procedures, and educational approaches. Add to this the exclusive use of an L2 in the class, and confusion and anxiety may soon follow. Should this anxiety increase to too great a level, facilitative anxiety may turn into debilitative anxiety as affective filters are raised.

Additionally, students being allowed to ask questions in the L1 may indeed foster comprehension and hence the acquisition process:

> […] learners may be more prepared to negotiate for meaning by requesting for clarification if allowed to do so in the L1. Meyer cites Shimizu (2006: 77), who found that Japanese students rarely asked clarification questions when required to do so in English (the L2) and thus failed to address misunderstandings and consequently progressed more slowly in English.
> (Ellis & Shintani 2014: 244, quoting Meyer 2008 & Shimizu 2006)

However, not all researchers share the view outlined above. Polio and Duff (1994: 322), for example clearly oppose the idea to use the L1 to reduce affective barriers:

> While this [i.e.:L1 use] may have positive affective consequences, it nonetheless prevents students from receiving input they might be exposed to in 'real life' social situations outside the classroom and

reinforces the notion that *English,* not the FL[5], is the language for genuine communication in the classroom.

It has to be made clear that the point of the author here is not to advocate the use of students' L1 on principle and excessively. Equally I can see Polio and Duff's point and I feel intermediate and more advanced students will be capable of asking questions in the TL and a huge amount of TL use will not necessarily raise their debilitative anxiety. However, if I have the choice between a student asking a clarification question in the L1 or in some mix of L1 and TL against not asking the question at all, I definitely prefer an L1 question. Finally, I whole-heartedly agree with Hall & Cook and Edstrom who said

> that teachers have a 'moral obligation' to recognise learners as individuals, to communicate respect and concern and to create a positive affective environment (which, in turn, benefits learning). (Hall & Cook 2012: 287)

> However, in some learning situations, namely when students study an L2 simply to fulfil an academic requirement, positive affective consequences are not peripheral; in fact, I would argue that some students who enter the classroom fearful, or even resentful, do not learn well without them. Thus, there are moments when my sense of moral obligation to a student, in this case concern about communicating respect and creating a positive environment, overrides my belief in maximizing L2 use. (Edstrom 2006: 287)

Levine (2003) conducted a large-scale empirical study that investigated the relationship between TL-use and level of students' anxiety. About 600 first and second year university students and around 163 instructors participated in the questionnaire study. The aim of the study was to investigate students' and instructors' levels of TL use in different contexts and their perceptions about the relationship of TL use and anxiety. As Levine sought to investigate the relationship between amounts of TL-use and level of anxiety he formulated the following hypothesis:

> Reported amounts of TL use by instructor and students correlate positively with students' sense of anxiety about TL use. (Levine 2003: 347)

Interestingly, even though "a sizeable minority of the students (around 40% overall) agreed with the statement that using the TL made them feel anxious" (Levine

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[5] In the context of this research English was what is labelled L1 here, and various other languages were the target language, labelled as FL in this study.

2003: 351), the above hypothesis could not be supported by a factor analysis. Rather on the contrary:

> This finding indicates that students who reported higher TL use in their FL classes tended to report lower levels of anxiety about TL use. Correspondingly, instructors who reported higher levels of TL use in their classes tended to perceive lower levels of TL-use anxiety in their students. (Levine 2003: 355)

Levine (2003: 355) concludes that "greater TL use may not translate into greater anxiety for many learners and that many students feel comfortable with more TL use when that is what they are used to" and suggests a tenet he terms 'marked L1 tenet':

> Using the L1 simply for the sake of reducing anxiety or increasing efficiency, as Cook suggested, is likely untenable, according to this study's findings. Rather, with regard to current practice in many FL classes, the avid use of the L1 as the unmarked code is what may engender TL-use anxiety among many students. Instructors might rather strive to create situations in the classroom in which the L1 could serve meaningful pedagogical functions (Macaro, 2001) yet remain, relative to the TL, a marked code. This sort of approach would obviate the outright stigmatization of L1 use, which may be a source of TL-use anxiety. (Levine 2003: 355)

Finally, Levine perspicaciously acknowledges a limitation of his sample due to the fact that participants were self-selected volunteers who were "obviously […] more highly-motivated, higher performing students than a random sample would have involved" (Levine 2003: 355). It can be added that the sample consisted entirely of university students. An investigation among secondary school students who are less mature and whose language level is likely to be lower might reveal different findings.

As the author of this thesis generally believes in the usefulness of a positive class atmosphere and the relative importance of a judicious L1 use for this, this chapter ends with a quote by Shimizu (2006: 81):

> L1 use is justifiable when both teachers and students regard it as necessary for aiding students' learning and alleviating students' anxiety or tension so as to enrich the learning environment under a good affective state.

4.3   The Issue of the Level

> Many individual contextual factors are mentioned in the literature, e.g. pressure of exams and class size, but the factor that is mentioned most frequently is the students' language proficiency. For some teachers interviewed by Mitchell (1988), for example,

'the norm of FL use was too much for lower sets on "ability" grounds' (p. 28), and similar views were expressed by teachers in Macaro's (1997) study. (Littlewood & Yu 2011: 69)

Level is definitely a factor in determining how much L1 you use. (de la Campa & Nassaji 2009: 754)

As the above quotes suggest and as has been mentioned at various points of this thesis so far, teachers' as well as students' use of the L1 seems to vary according to students' language proficiency in the TL. Hence, "[i]t seems logical for the teachers to reduce the use of the mother tongue in proportion to learners' increased competence in the second language" (Kharma & Hajjaj 1989: 228). Convincingly, students will be more capable to decode a TL utterance or produce TL output themselves, if they have a more advanced set of vocabulary and language structures at their disposal. Accordingly, a TL exclusiveness approach is highly challenging or even inappropriate for mere beginners.

A number of studies investigated the relationship between the choice of MoI and students' level. In a study focusing on vocabulary acquisition, Tian and Macaro (2012) allocated first year university students from one university to four proficiency groups and randomly put half of each group under conditions of vocabulary acquisition with TL exclusiveness and code-switching respectively (see section 4.4.1 for details about this study). Apart from the effect of these two conditions on the success of vocabulary acquisition, the researchers wanted to find out if "lower proficiency students benefit more than higher proficiency students from teacher codeswitching" (Tian & Macaro 2012: 373). From the statistical analysis that was conducted, "an influence of general proficiency on vocabulary learning via one instructional treatment was not confirmed" (Tian & Macaro 2012: 380). However, in their discussion, the researchers meticulously observe that the difference between those four proficiency groups was in fact quite small, which seems convincing in the light of all the participants being first-year students:

> According to vocabulary acquisition theory cited earlier, the students in our sample with the lowest proficiency should, hypothetically, have benefited the most from lexical information in L1. Our results do not show this. In order for this finding not to undermine the theoretical model, we could speculate that differences in proficiency levels were not large enough to speak to the theory and that the codeswitching treatment effect might only manifest itself in near-beginner learners. (Tian & Macaro 2012: 382)

In a similar study by Lee and Macaro (2013) low-level elementary school students were compared to more proficient adult university students as regards the benefits of TL-exclusiveness versus code-switching for vocabulary acquisition. Apart from code-switching to be generally more beneficial in terms of vocabulary retention (see section 4.4.1. for details), it was found that low-level learners benefited more strongly from codeswitching than did the adults:

> Overall, then, the effect sizes of the instructional type were much larger for the young participants than for the adult participants, implying that the young learners benefited more from teacher CS in terms of vocabulary learning than their adult counterparts, regardless of the type of vocabulary knowledge and time of assessment. (Lee & Macaro 2013: 895)

Norman (2008) investigated the views and preferences of university students in Japan with regard to some aspects of language teaching, including their preferred MoI. He compared results of students from different levels and concluded:

> The results of this study clearly support my first hypothesis that students with a remarkably higher level of English ability (e.g. those who have studied abroad) prefer the NEST[6] to use less Japanese. (Norman 2008: 697)

Mora Pablo et al. (2011) conducted a qualitative research project in Central Mexico to investigate teachers' and students' reasons to use the L1 in the classroom. From the questionnaires that were administered it was found:

> While providing reasons as to why teachers used L1, an aspect that came up repeatedly was the level of L2. The students' language level seems to be important in order to determine the amount of L1 in class. Teachers agreed that the frequency of L1 use varied from one level to another, indicating that at lower (beginning) levels there was more acceptance of L1 in the classroom, while at higher levels they tended to prefer less use of L1. (Mora Pablo et al. 2011: 120)

Again it seems that the students' proficiency level is a decisive factor in the appropriate use of students' L1. One might add here, an astute observation by Inbar-Lourie (2010: 354), who said that the appropriate language choice depends on both "the level of instruction and level of students' proficiency". That is to say, a very simple task or easy instruction might require fewer recourse to the L1 even at lower levels, than a new or complicated issue.

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[6] NEST = Native English-speaking Teacher

Norman (2008: 697) agrees with this idea, when he usefully contests:

> From the perspective of the students, it is obvious that teachers need to look more carefully at the EFL level of the students in their classes when contemplating what amount of […] L1 (if any) to use. Higher level students […] can be expected to handle more difficult explanations in English.

The connection between the appropriate amount of L1 use and students' proficiency level has been investigated and discussed by a number of researchers before. As I feel the issue of the level is especially relevant for the choice of the right MoI, I will address this issue when testing and discussing hypotheses 2 and 3 in my empirical investigation (see section 7.1.2 & 7.1.3). In that sense, I address a suggestion which has been made by Mora Pablo et al. (2011: 125):

> Another option for further research could deal with the quantity of the use of L1 in regard to students' level of language proficiency, for example. Do teachers use more L1 in beginning levels compared to intermediate or advanced levels?

4.4   Situations and Reasons for L1 Use

As has been mentioned above, the use of L1 in the classroom was found to show certain patterns and even though it might happen unconsciously in many situations, both teachers and students seem to apply it in principled ways. That is to say, the use of L1 is used as a resource with an increased frequency in some situations more than in others. Auerbach (1993: 21), drawing on Piasecka 1988 and Collingham 1988) provides a quite comprehensive list of these possible situations:

> Piasecka (1988), for example includes the following in her list of 'possible occasions for using mother tongue' (pp. 98-99): negotiation of the syllabus and the lesson; record- keeping; classroom management; scene setting; language analysis; **presentation of rules governing grammar**, phonology, morphology, and spelling; discussion of cross-cultural issues; instructions or prompts; explanations of errors; and assessment of comprehension. Collingham (1988) concurs with many of these uses, adding the following: to develop ideas as a precursor to expressing them in the L2; to reduce inhibitions or affective blocks to L2 production; to elicit language and discourse strategies for particular situations; to provide **explanations of grammar and language functions**; and to **teach vocabulary**. [emphasis added]

Auerbach was criticized for her stance about the possible situations of L1 use by Polio (1994: 154), who argued that "there is little left to do in the L2, if all of the above may

be done in the L1". As Auerbach (1994) explained in her reaction to Polio's criticism, the idea is not to do all these things listed above in the L1 but rather to analyse the patterns of L1 use and exploit the potential of L1 with regard to the specific given context. It can be assumed that Auerbach agreeably meant the list to be something that teachers can choose from and wants teachers to decide for which of the situations L1 use is appropriate in their concrete teaching situation when she convincingly observes: "teachers need to be liberated from prescriptions and treated as the experts of their own contexts. […] Rather than fearing teachers' abuse of L1 use, we should treat their capacity to integrate it selectively, based on critical analysis of their own contexts." (Auerbach 1994: 158).

The principled nature of L1 use was also observed by Timor (2012: 10) who provides some concrete examples for situations that tend to induce L1 use:

> The language areas for which teachers would prefer to use the MT should also be considered. Previous studies indicate that teachers use the MT in EFL classrooms to explain new vocabulary and grammatical structures (Cook, 1997), organize tasks and give instructions (Cook, 2001), and maintain discipline in class and create rapport with individual students (Macaro, 1997).

For the above mentioned reason, the most common of these situations will be summarized in the following sub-chapter and examples from previous research findings will be provided.

4.4.1 Vocabulary

One content element which was frequently found to evoke L1 use by both teachers and students is the understanding and acquisition of unfamiliar lexical items. Probably any teacher has already heard a student ask the question 'What does X mean in English?' when looking for a specific term in the TL. Similarly, teachers have to decide if they want to give an L1 equivalent when coming across a term unfamiliar to students or if they rely on a TL paraphrase and contextual clues. This matter is strongly related to the age-old discussion if students succeed better in vocabulary acquisition using TL/L1 equivalents lists or when learning from TL definitions. Liu (2008: 65) nicely captures the dominance of TL definitions throughout the last years, when he says:

> During the L2 vocabulary teaching and learning process, there seems to be a preference, explicitly stated or not, for intralingual

strategies, which involve the use of linguistic means of the target language such as synonyms, definitions, or linguistic contexts, over interlingual strategies, which utilize the L1 in the form of a bilingual dictionary, cognates, or L1 translation equivalents, often associated with word lists, among many teachers and researchers.

However, Prince (1996), who makes similar observations as Liu, also acknowledges that the preference of TL definitions for being more effective for vocabulary acquisition could not yet be supported empirically and is frequently not applied by language learners either.

As could be seen from the above introduction, language choice for vocabulary teaching and learning is a contentious issue and raises some questions about the appropriate use of the L1. Thus, the matter is also closely related to the question of how the mental lexicon is organised, i.e. how words are stored in our mind (see for example Zareva 2007 for details). In essence, the discussion about the mental lexicon seeks to investigate if and how strongly L1 and L2 lexical items are connected in our mind and thus, how much we should rely on L1/L2 translations in teaching. There have been a number of studies that focused on L1 use in teaching that found some L1 application in connection with lexical items. The findings of these studies will be reviewed below.

Prince (1996) conducted a study among 48 university students in France who studied English besides their major subjects. The aim of this study was to investigate which learning condition (L1 translation or learning from context) resulted in more effective vocabulary learning. Additionally, participants were divided into two groups according to a proficiency test to see if proficiency level correlated with a preference for one of the learning conditions. Finally, two different recall conditions (L1/L2 translation opposed to context) were used to test the success of vocabulary recall.

Overall it was found that "[b]oth groups [i.e. with different proficiency levels] performed better in the TL [=translation learning] than in the CL [=context learning] condition, and this factor was also significant" (Prince 1996: 485). That is to say, learning from translation resulted in better recall irrespective of learner proficiency. Furthermore, the more advanced students performed better when they had to recall a word in context, than when asked for a translation. Interestingly, it was the opposite for the weaker group. Thus Prince (1996: 486) concludes that the weaker students might well be "overdependent upon translation links and so have failed to develop

certain processing strategies crucial to the effective use of context". While he generally recognizes the use of translation as fruitful especially but not exclusively for beginners, Prince equally stresses the necessity "to foster the pleasure of exploring L2 lexical relationship at the earliest possible stage" (1996: 487). In sum, Prince calls for a sensitive combination of both translation and circumlocution to learn vocabulary and suggests to pay attention to learner proficiency level.

A similar study though in different context was conducted by Tian and Macaro (2012). Eighty first year English-language majors from a Chinese university took part in the study which wanted to investigate if "students' receptive vocabulary learning [was] better facilitated by a teacher's use of codeswitching or by providing L2-only information" (Tian & Macaro 2012: 373). Participants were allocated to four different groups according to their proficiency level and 37 students participated in a control group that did not receive any instruction on the vocabulary tested. All groups except the control took part in a pre-test, an instruction and presentation phase of the targeted vocabulary, an immediate post-test and a delayed post-test. For the instruction phase, students were put to three different conditions: One group received vocabulary instruction in the form of explanations in the TL. For the other group, attention to lexical items was drawn by means of using an L1 translation and the control group did not receive any specific vocabulary training at all.

Results showed that the group that had received L1 translations performed significantly better than students in the L2 exclusive condition in the immediate post-test, even though the effect size was only small. "However, there was no significant difference between NCS [= No codeswitching, i.e. L2 exclusiveness] and CS [=codeswitching, i.e. using translation] at delayed test" (Tian & Macaro 2012: 378). Thus, Tian and Macaro (2012: 381) concluded that "results also show some limited advantage for codeswitching as opposed to exclusive use of the L2". Furthermore, they accurately observe "[t]hat codeswitching has some benefits for vocabulary learning [if one considers it] […] in relation to time taken up" (Tian & Macaro 382).

Liu used a sample of about 100 non-English majors at a Chinese university to determine if "L1 [is] a facilitator or barrier" (2008: 65) in vocabulary teaching and learning. Different from Tian and Macaro, Liu divided his participants only into two groups: After having read a text one group received TL explanations of targeted words combined with L1 equivalents, while the other, the control group, only received TL

explanations. In a delayed post-test, participants of both groups were asked to translate English sentences into their L1 to determine, how many words they could still remember and to be able to compare the results of the two groups.

It was found that the group that had received the bilingual instruction (L1 equivalents and circumlocution) significantly outperformed the control group. Therefore, Liu concludes, that the bilingual method is more likely to provide better conditions for vocabulary acquisition (2008: 67).

From the studies that have been reported above one might conclude that providing translation tends to be more effective than L2 definitions for vocabulary learning. However, the reported studies did not measure students' ability to actively use the targeted items in context but only tested the recall rate. In other words, there are different levels of 'knowing a word'. It might be further argued that being able to remember the meaning of a word can be more effectively achieved using L1 equivalents, while the effect on active use is still to be investigated by future research.

As regards the use of L1 by teachers when unfamiliar words appear in the lesson, I suggest to consider the aim of discussing this lexical item. There is a difference between discussing a word to make students understand it in a given context or to deal with it to enable students to remember the word for active use. For the first condition, I can see nothing wrong about using a quick translation to enable students to understand the meaning of the word. At the same time, students should be taught strategies to predict meaning of unfamiliar words from context and they should definitely practise paraphrasing words in the TL. Similarly, it seems vital to make students aware of the fact that adequate translations do not exist for every term and that words can have more than one meaning and thus multiple translations. In sum, I consider it ideal to combine both strategies, providing translations and using circumlocution or contextual clues, and to regularly alternate them. Which of them is more appropriate, can probably only be determined by the teacher in the concrete situation who has to consider all relevant contextual features, as the specific lexical item, the aim of discussing it and the level of the learners.

If it comes to the aim of learning a word for long-term memory, providing a context and using L2 features is likely to be more relevant to enable students to understand a term more fully and to enable them to actively apply the term appropriately. However,

this does not mean that L1 translations should be completely neglected for vocabulary acquisition. As with the discussion of unfamiliar words for understanding, a sensitive combination of both strategies is likely to lead to the best conditions of acquisition.

Finally, research found that in general the appropriate use of students L1 is contingent on students' proficiency level and age (for example: de la Campa & Nassaji 2009). This issue is further discussed in section B 4.3. However, the language level of students seems especially relevant to the teaching of vocabulary, as it was suggested that "as L2 proficiency increases, the conceptual links between the L2 and its associated concepts are strengthened, leading to less reliance on L1 equivalents" (Lee & Macaro 2013: 889). In other words, it is assumed that beginners are more dependent on L1 translations than more advanced students. The idea of increasing the reliance on contextual features in teaching as the level of students advances is further supported by the fact that paraphrases are difficult or close to impossible with mere beginners given their extremely limited repertoire of L2 words. However, this is neither to say that students should not be taught circumlocution early on nor that translation of single lexical items has no place in advanced language classes.

4.4.2 Teaching Grammar

Another language aspect which is frequently associated with the use of students' first language is the explicit attention to and discussion of grammatical patterns. As Levine (2014: 337) observes

> [o]ne of the arguably central functions of communication in the L2 classroom is explicit communication about language forms. All of the studies that have examined functions of the L1 in the classroom found communication about grammar to be a common, unmarked context for L1 use.

If one talks about teaching grammar, it has to be mentioned that explicit attention to grammatical features has been the issue of considerable debate in ELT and has in theory received heavy criticism due to developments in language teaching approaches throughout the last century. Nevertheless, practise has never completely discarded grammar teaching altogether and some form of grammatical instruction has always remained present in the ELT classroom. More recently, however, "explicit grammar teaching […] has had some life breathed into it […] through the advocates of language awareness and Focus on Form" (Levine 2014: 337). Whether it has been for theoretical principles or to resist them, grammar teaching has to different degrees always been

present in language teaching. As teaching grammar is a challenging issue "[i]t is hardly surprising that teachers are not enthusiastic about explaining grammar in the L2" (Cook 2001: 414-415, quoting Macaro 1997).

In a study with six university teachers of various TL where English was the L1, Polio and Duff (1993: 317) observed that "[a]ll of the teachers used English to some degree in their grammatical explanations". Furthermore, four of these teachers, stated in interviews to use some amount of L1 when dealing with grammatical terms and constructs. One of these teachers held very explicit tenets about the question and showed a sensitivity to students' level which has been mentioned above as an important factor regarding L1 use. The teacher stated:

> I always- when we are talking about grammar that is always in English because they are not able to understand [Slavic] on this level. They just started to learn [Slavic] so there is no purpose to learn- to teach them- to teach them grammar using [Slavic]. They will not understand any word.
> (Polio & Duff 1993: 317, [original additions])

This teacher seems to acknowledge the relevance of students' language level to determine how much grammar should be dealt with in the TL, which seems convincing if one considers it is likely to be useful or even necessary to have a certain command of a language to be able to understand grammatical explanations in the TL.

Similarly, in the study by Liu et al. (2004: 620) a majority of 8 out of 13 teachers state to teach grammar in students' L1. Equally, recordings of lessons, revealed teachers used high proportions of L1 when addressing information about grammar. Additionally their "data add evidence that the teachers' using L1 for explaining vocabulary and grammar […] seemed to have helped students to better understand the points in question and the lesson as a whole". It might thus be concluded that using the L1 for grammar instruction helps students' understanding and might be likely to foster learning, even though the latter needs further empirical investigation, as Liu et al. point out (2004: 620-621).

Copland and Neokleous (2011: 276) reported that three of the four teachers in their study stated to use students' L1 if dealing with grammatical points. This is confirmed by the recorded classroom data which "provide[s] numerous examples of teachers using Greek [=L1] to work with skills in the classroom". However, the teacher that did not use the L1 for this matter, was convinced about relying exclusively on the TL.

Finally, Copland and Neokleous (2011: 276) make a noteworthy observation: "In many cases, the level of complexity in the explanation is high, suggesting a similar explanation in L2 might have been too difficult for intermediate learners […]". There are two important parameters in this view: First, attention is paid to the importance of students' level which has been stressed throughout this thesis. Secondly, Copland and Neokleous acknowledge the issue of complexity, which is indeed an issue for many grammatical points. From this, one could further argue that the complexity of the grammatical point in question is a decisive parameter to determine the appropriate language use. In other words, I can see nothing wrong about discussing a very simple grammatical point, which seems straightforward and easy to grasp, in the TL also at lower levels. At the same time, an extremely complicated grammatical issue might require a recourse to students' L1 also at more advanced levels.

Dickson (1996: 16) also highlights the notion of complexity in relation to students' TL level when reporting on his study: "[…] [The L1] was generally seen as the better medium whenever the content of teaching was at a conceptual level not equalled by the pupils' proficiency in the TL". In that sense, it becomes obvious that the decision about the appropriate language use in the classroom can never be decided according to a single variable but is dependent on multiple parameters and hence requires informed and conscious decisions of the teacher.

4.4.3 Contrastive Analysis

Another aspect related to L1 use in language teaching, which is closely linked to the teaching of grammar, is the idea of contrastive analysis. Contrastive analysis is "[a] procedure for comparing two languages in order to analyse similarities and differences" (Hedge 2000: 408). If this principle is applied to a language teaching context and used inside a language classroom, it by definition includes some use of the L1.

Contrastive analysis originates from the 1960s and 1970s a time when learners' errors were supposed to be "the result of transfer from learners' first language" (Lightbown & Spada 2006: 79). However, it was later found that the majority of incorrect forms produced by learners cannot be explained from transfer but follow the same patterns for all learners, no matter what their L1 is. Thus, the idea of contrastive analysis to explain learner errors was largely dismissed (Hedge 2000: 170).

However, research indicates that contrastive analysis still happens to some degree in actual classroom practise. Mora Pablo et al. (2011) , who conducted a study on L1 use in language teaching in Central Mexico report that

> some teachers incorporate L1 in their classes in order to provide a comparative analysis of the languages, as the following excerpt shows: '…comparisons between French[7] and Spanish are quite close. I have them reflect, and if I use Spanish, I tell them to look at the phrase and think about how it would be said in Spanish. And from there we proceed and they notice how to say it in French. What matters is that they perceive the similarities between the two languages.' (119).

The above quote of a teacher in a study (by Mora Pablo et al.) highlights an essential detail: It is the similarities between the L1 and the TL that the quoted teachers believes to facilitate easier acquisition. My point here is not to advocate a recourse to contrastive analysis altogether. The purpose of this section is rather to stress the fact that contrastive analysis is likely to still occur in present day classroom practise and does not necessarily impede acquisition but might even enhance it. If a teacher, who is proficient in students' L1, realizes a learner error might be due to negative transfer, he or she might usefully apply a short contrastive analysis to resolve the students' misconception. Equally, some exploitation of positive transfer, i.e. consciously stressing similarities between two languages, might well boost acquisition. The somewhat changing position about contrastive analysis and the changing views towards positive as well as negative transfer were also depicted by Ellis and Shintani (2014: 235).

> [...] shift that has taken place from an early theoretical position where the L1 was seen as a source of 'interference', to more recent theories where it is seen as a 'resource' that learners can draw on.

It will be interesting to see if and to which degree students in the present study report on their experience about contrastive analysis and what their views on the matter are.

4.4.4 Classroom Management

Another aspect which frequently evokes L1 use in ELT is everything that can be subsumed under the term 'classroom management'. Using the L1 for those purposes is highly controversial and received especially much criticism. Here, three sub-

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[7] In this particular study French was the TL while Spanish was the L1

categories of classroom management will be discussed in turn: maintaining students' discipline, giving instructions for tasks, other organisational issues.

Dealing with disciplinary issues and maintaining control of the students is a central issue and prerequisite for language learning to be possible in the classroom and hence frequently leads to L1 use. Liu et al. (2004: 622) "found that some teachers used [...] [students' L1] to reprimand students or to manage students' behaviour, especially when using L2 appeared to have failed these functions". Furthermore they mention the controversy of this type of L1 use: "Previous studies have also found that teachers frequently use this L1 strategy, although researchers disagree about its appropriateness and effectiveness" (Liu et al. 2004: 622).

Chambers, generally not greatly favouring L1 use in language teaching (1991: 29, quoting Mitchell 1988) makes an interesting and convincing comment on discipline related L1 use:

> For mild disciplinary intervention most teachers observed used FL[8] but whenever real disruption threatened then teachers resorted to English[9]. The problem here is not so much linguistic (the language used for classroom control is predictable and fairly repetitive) as psychological. The fear of loss of control can be a strong incentive to the use of English, known to be understood instantly by the pupils.

The above-quote contains two noteworthy details: First, it assumes that teachers are afraid of losing control of a group of students and hence prefer to use L1 to ensure understanding and consequently discipline. Even though this assumption can be questioned, it highlights an important aspect: The use of the L1 to signal important information. It can be argued that a brief switch to the L1 attracts students' attention (especially if the general language of communication is the TL) and is therefore more powerful to result in students following the directions of the teacher. Secondly, Chambers mentions the issue of complexity, which has been discussed here before. Indeed, language for maintaining discipline is quite repetitive and straightforward and is therefore not very likely to be linguistically demanding even for lower level students, if those structures have been sufficiently introduced. However, it might still be more efficient to use the L1 in some cases for the benefit of getting students'

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[8] FL is used in the original version for foreign language corresponding to what I call TL (=target language)

[9] English was the L1 in the context of the study cited

attention more immediately. In sum, those two parameters have to be considered together and against each-other and the appropriate language choice can again only be made for a concrete and given situation.

Secondly, several studies found teachers using the L1 when giving instructions, especially for complex and unfamiliar tasks (Kharma & Hajjaj 1989, Critchley 1999 and Copland & Neokleous 2011). Macaro (2006: 69) also reports that "[t]he L1 was particularly noted when the teacher was giving complex procedural instructions". However, the use of students' L1 for this purpose has not only received support but has rather been heavily criticized for depriving students' of valuable and necessary opportunities for authentic interaction in the TL. Holthouse (2006: 34), while himself clearly taking a stance for judicious L1 use, astutely depicts arguments of both opponents and supporters of L1 use for instructions:

> The usual 'English only' argument is that we need to give students every possible opportunity to hear English used for real communication. […] It is true that listening to a teacher explain how to perform a particular classroom activity amounts to 'genuine communication', but when more complex explanations prove difficult for students to understand, surely one needs to weigh up the potential benefits of persisting with labored repetitions of the explanation (when at least half the class has already understood) against the obvious downside (the loss of already scarce class time).

Arguably, a teacher has to decide whether sticking to the TL is worth a complex and long stretch of circumlocution and input-modification or not. Clearly the decoding of some TL input which may also be slightly above one's actual level is an important skill learners need to develop. On the other hand research also showed that active communication and producing output, which is obviously the case when performing a task, is central to language acquisition. Hence, both should not be neglected and again I would argue for a teacher's responsibility to balance the two necessities and make informed decisions with reference to the individual situation.

Chambers (1991: 28-29 [original emphasis]), who generally favours TL exclusiveness, connects the issue of L1 use for instructions with the complexity of the task and suggests a number of other techniques to make the TL instruction comprehensible:

> Some activities require more complex or less frequently used directives. In such cases, *demonstration* involving the teacher and

> a pupil and some visual cues on the board or the overhead projector is a powerful tool, more effective than the language which may accompany the demonstration. The support of *written instructions* is essential too. Pupils will have more time to work what is to be done, they can help each other or even use a dictionary.

Even though the use of demonstration or mime to support understanding of a language utterance might be very useful in some cases, caution has to be taken as the aim of language learning is to acquire a language and not how to decipher gestures. A caveat against the use of written instruction, which might indeed develop reading skills simultaneously, is the fact that students might easily ignore a longer stretch of TL text which might seem daunting and hence rather do what they think should be done.

4.4.5 Clarification

In a study by Critchley (1999: 12), which investigated students' views and preferences about L1 use in the classroom, some students stated to prefer the L1 to be used "when we just can't understand'. Similarly, Ford (2009: 71-72) found teachers to use the L1 "as a convenient and simple way of clarifying any confusion regarding instructions or tasks". Indeed, the L1 can be a very powerful tool for clarification and hence foster understanding. It seems ever so natural for speakers who share an L1 to switch to this language, if a communication problem occurs, as bilingual speakers outside a classroom setting constantly do.

The existence of L1 use for clarification issues is also reflected in data reported by Kharma and Hajjaj (1989: 228). They report that 40% percent of the teachers in their survey said they allowed their students to use their L1 for "expressing lack of comprehension" and that a clear majority of students (67%) declared to use their L1 for "asking for explanation".

However, there is clearly a risk of relying too heavily on the L1 for this purpose, as communication difficulties are likely to frequently arise and may not seem easy to be resolved in the TL. Thus, one might suggest for a teacher to use the L1 for clarification where it seems appropriate while at the same time trying to use other strategies as well. One of those alternative ways regularly applied is the possibility to give an explanation in the TL and repeat the same utterance in the L1. Though probably not everybody would acknowledge this as a desirable strategy, I feel it might be one of many possibilities to use and maintain variation.

4.4.6 Time Saver

As in so many situations of life, time is always valuable and short in the classroom as well. Hence, it is not very surprising that teachers in general think about how they can use limited class time most effectively and also apply switches to the students' L1 as a "time-saving device" (Ford 2009: 72). Holthouse (2006: 34) pointedly expresses the benefits of L1 use in terms of time:

> Doing so [using the L1] can be quicker and more efficient than giving explanations, gesturing or the like. When students only have about 40 hours with the native speaking teacher all year, it can be wasteful to spend time with elaborate mimes or descriptions of a word when a simple translation would do.

In this quote the limited amount of classroom time is stressed which requires great efficiency on the part of the teacher to use the little classroom time in the best interest of the students' language development. Therefore, L1 is frequently used to save time, as is also observed by Atkinson (1987: 242): "techniques involving use of the mother tongue can be very efficient as regards the amount of time needed to achieve a specific aim".

However, using L1 to save time, is not only appreciated by scholars, but rather strongly opposed by English-Only proponents. Harbord (1992: 352) for example said:

> [I]f a mother tongue strategy achieves gains in areas such as time-saving or improving teacher-student rapport at the expense of causing the above problem [reducing the amount of authentic interaction in the TL], it must be regarded as suspect and replaced wherever possible by a corresponding L2 strategy.

Harbord's criticism is reported by Liu et al. and convincingly counter argued by findings in their study, based on students' and teachers' self-reported data:

> For him (Harbord), L1 should be used for the sole purpose of enhancing learning, not for any other purposes, such as saving time. (Liu et al. 2004: 609)

> [I]t appears that if the students' L2 proficiency is low, as was the case in our study, L1 may be more effective than perhaps any of the modified L2 strategies, especially from the cognitive learning perspective and in terms of time-cost effectiveness.
> (Liu et al 2004: 621)

> The teacher's switching to Korean[10] apparently helped the students understand the question and enhanced the students' comprehension in a time-cost effective way. (Liu et al. 2004: 622)

As regards the issue of time, the author of the present thesis argues that it is essential to distinguish between institutionalized language learning and incidental language acquisition or L1 acquisition. Hence, I agree with Holthouse, who states:

> It seems to me that the gravest mistake proponents of strictly 'English only' classes make is in overlooking the huge contrast between EFL and ESL settings. […] However, when dealing with monolingual groups of students it seems futile to pretend that the MT does not exist. (Holthouse 2006: 28)

Arguably, children learning their L1 or people acquiring a second language from living in this language community, spend an extensive amount of time being surrounded by the TL. Contrary, in institutionalized language learning, students only spend – if I talk about Austrian secondary school now – as little as four or even only three lessons per week being confronted with the TL. Even if one exclusively uses the TL in classroom communication, this would still result in a very limited amount of TL input. Therefore, I would rather argue for encouraging students to gain TL input beyond the classroom, which can easily be accessed in those days. I will further give some suggestions on this idea in the conclusion of this paper.

The necessity to distinguish between different conditions and contexts of language learning to determine the appropriate use of the L1 is furthermore expressed by Klapper (1998: 24):

> Although rightly discredited in recent years, this approach still influences the work of a large number of teachers, and yet at the heart of it lies the deeply mistaken identification of FL learning with monolingual L1 acquisition: in the former it is not only not helpful to deny learners access to their mother tongue when learning a FL, it is actually harmful, and for a teacher to ignore the obvious classroom resource of a common L1 is positively negligent.

Thinking of the limited time students are confronted with the TL in the classroom, it is hard to deny that students should be exposed to TL in this limited time to a great extent. However, it can be questioned, if this justifies an exclusive use of the TL. One rather has to consider the benefits of judicious switches to the L1 also as regards

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[10] Korean was the L1 in the context of this study.

increasing time in the TL. Macaro's (2006: 59) comment astutely analyses and combines the matter of task instruction and time effectiveness with reference to L1 use:

> If the point of a teaching activity is the task itself, not the way of getting people to do the task, then the teacher has to find the quickest and most effective way of getting the task underway, which may well be to use the first language of the students. Rather one minute of instruction in the L1 and 9 minutes in the L2 doing the task than 9 minutes of instruction in the L2 and 1 minute doing the L2 doing the task.

This is not to say that there is no value in providing instructions in the L2 especially if students are at more advanced levels and are capable to understand more complex instructions. However, the above quote stresses the necessity to not only consider quantities but also quality of TL use.

4.5 Teachers' and Students' Beliefs

4.5.1 Teachers

One of the largest studies that investigated teachers' views and beliefs on the role of students' L1 in language teaching was the TARCLINDY project carried out by Macaro (1997 & 2009). Based on interviews and surveys teachers' experiences and tenets were explored. From the analysis of the data Macaro concluded that teachers' views can be divided into three broad categories:

- **The Virtual Position**
  These teachers believe any second or foreign language can only be acquired through that language. Thus, there is no place for the L1 in the classroom and by the exclusive use of the TL a 'virtual reality' is created "which mirrored the environment of both the first language learner and the newly arrived migrant to the target language country".

- **The Maximal Position**
  Like with the virtual position, people holding the maximal position view TL-exclusiveness as the best learning condition. However, this condition is regarded as an 'unattainable ideal', which cannot be created in the imperfect situation of the classroom. Therefore, one needs to use the TL as much as possible with as few switches to the L1 as possible, which are seen as a lapse.

- **The Optimal Position**

  Followers of the optimal position regard the judicious use of the L1 as beneficial and believe it can actually aid the learning process. However, this does not mean that the L1 should be over-used and proponents of this position still view the TL as the general language of instruction and communication in the classroom.

  (Macaro 2009: 36)

Macaro further explains that the Virtual Position is theoretically based on and influenced by Chomsky's concept of an innate language learning device and Krashen's theory of comprehensible input (see chapter 3.6). Indeed, the virtual position assumes that FL and Second Language Learning follows the same rules as L1 acquisition, a position which has more recently been rejected by many researchers. The Optimal Position, however, finds support in cognitive processing theory (Ellis 2005) and sociocultural theory (see for example Anton und DiCamilla 1998). Finally Macaro adds "I can find no theoretical underpinnings for the maximal position" (Macaro 2009: 38). Macaro himself appears to clearly favour the optimal position and defines optimal use as "where codeswitching in broadly communicative classrooms can enhance second language acquisition and/or proficiency better than second language exclusivity" (Macaro 2009: 38). The categorization developed by Macaro received wide acceptance, was referred to by a number of researchers and was highly influential on research in the field, as the following quote, which is clearly an expression of a maximal position, exemplifies:

> Teachers […] seem to share this ideal [of teaching the L2 through the medium of the L2] to some extent but also recognize the inevitability of using the L1 on occasions. […] Thus, when teachers do express a preference for using the L1, they do so generally not because they see it as a cognitive benefit but as a response to the exigencies of the classroom. (Ellis & Shintani 2014: 229)

Another study on teachers' views on L1 use was undertaken by Timor (2012), who conducted a study among 112 elementary and secondary school language teachers in a Hebrew speaking context. Data was collected by means of a questionnaire (multiple choice, Likert scale and open-ended questions), which investigated attitudes, practises and circumstances of L1. Analysis found that the majority of the teachers generally favoured a judicious use of L1 use, but however some expressed feelings of guilt for

doing so. This tendency was equally observed and discredited by Macaro (2009). On the basis of his study Timor (2012: 13-14) astutely concludes:

> Whereas in earlier times, professionals strongly discouraged the use of the MT in class altogether (Option 1), minimized it (Option 2), and advocated a maximum use of the FL, the present study advocates enabling the use of the MT at different degrees depending on circumstances (Option 3), but at the same time maximizing the use of the FL. Circumstances include the level of class, the goals of teaching, learners' age and motivation. Of course, unlimited use of the MT by the teacher should not be considered a feasible option because it clearly contradicts the objectives of teaching FL.

A study by McMillan, Rivers and Cripps (2009) explored the views of 29 university level teachers' in Japan on the use of TL versus L1 use by both teachers and students and the relation to Communicative Language Teaching. The research tool was a 6 item open-ended questionnaire. For both teachers' and students' use of L1, responses were attributed to L1 positive, L1 negative or mixed views. Analysis showed that an equal amount of 42% of teachers held positive and negative views on teachers' L1 use, whereas the remaining part had mixed views. A very similar distribution was found for students' L1 use. Generally it can be concluded that the views of teachers in the study varied quite widely.

Similarly, teachers' views on the necessity of an English-Only policy in order to teach with a Communicative Approach, varied. It has to be noted that departmental policies at the university under examination officially required an English-Only approach. Accordingly, some teachers regarded L1 use as inappropriate for a CLT approach:

> With regard to teacher perceptions of CLT, several of the teachers who agreed that the L1 should have no role to play expressed the belief that remaining in the TL would promote negotiation of meaning and the use of strategies such as circumlocution and asking for clarification: *I generally agree– using the TL encourages use of communication strategies. Use of L1 is often the thin edge of the wedge.* (McMillan, Rivers & Cripps 2009: 773)

However, others were more positive towards L1 use in a Communicative Classroom:

> The teacher-participants who disagreed with the idea that using English only was a requirement of CLT made comments such as: *It depends on the situation. With advanced learners, the use of the L1 may not be necessary. With lower-level learners, some L1 communication may facilitate L2 learning*; and; *I think it's more a continuum than a zero sum game. If I understand a student who is*

communicating in Japanese who otherwise couldn't express himself in English, I respond in English normally without telling the student to only speak English. I think it's a bit harsh and counterproductive to ignore a student's utterances in the L1 if he/she is unable to produce them in the TL. It can become an offhand needs assessment to see what they need to work on. (McMillan, Rivers & Cripps 2009: 774, [original emphasis])

Finally, an especially interesting comment with regard to achieving communication in a CLT classroom, was made by one teacher:

> I do think the idea should be English only – the problem arises when students are not able to express what they're trying to express in English. Then communication breaks down. I think the odd L1 word is OK in this situation.
> (McMillan, Rivers & Cripps 2009: 774)

This teacher raises the idea that occasionally short switches to students' L1 may in fact ensure that the classroom remains a place of meaningful communication and interaction. Clearly, the aim of CLT is to enable students to communicate in the TL and hence the TL should be the medium of communication in the classroom. However, brief switches to the L1 may in fact make communication in the TL more successful and fruitful.

To complete this section it has to be mentioned that even though teachers' views and tenets are not the aspect addressed in the empirical investigation of the present thesis, I regarded it appropriate to provide this short excurse to the perspective of the teacher for the centrality of teachers' views on the matter. I deem the informed decisions and reflection of practising language teachers as crucial to achieve what Macaro called the optimal use of students L1 and hence fully go along with Ellis and Shintani (2014: 247) who point out:

> Perhaps the way forward for now is to encourage teachers to reflect on their own practise […] and develop a critical perspective on their own use of the L1. (Ellis & Shintani 2014: 247)

4.5.2 Students

> It does not make sense to try and prevent students from using learning strategies that they believe are effective for them. It is only logical to point out that the more students believe in the learning method they are using, the greater their chances of getting some positive results for their efforts. (Holthouse 2006: 32)

> [I]t should be recognized that different learners have different learning styles and different preferences regarding TL and L1 use (Macaro, 2005). (McMillan, Rivers & Cripps 2009: 773)

As the above quote indicates students' views and preferences about learning and studying are believed to have a considerable impact on the overall success of the learning process. Arguably. it make sense to thus investigate students' view on certain aspects of teaching to make learning more efficient. Holthouse (2006: 31) agreeably points out: "perhaps we would be well advised to take the preferences of our students into consideration a little more often". In accordance with McMillan, Rivers & Cripps (2009), the author of this thesis argues that language choice in the classroom (L1 vs. TL use by both teachers and students) is one such aspect which would clearly benefit from more investigation from the students' perspective.

Even though, further studies on students' MoI preferences in different cultural, territorial and institutional context would be beneficial, a number of studies on the matter have been conducted throughout the last decade, especially in the university context. These are briefly reviewed below.

Chavez (2003) conducted a questionnaire study with 333 participants from three different levels at one US university to investigate students' and instructors' attitudes toward L1 use and according reasons. Additionally, she conducted observations and compared desired, reported and observed amounts and function of L1 use.

Some studies have been conducted at universities in Japan. Burden (2000) conducted a questionnaire study with yes/no questions at four Japanese universities including 290 participants from different levels, years of studying and major subjects. The questionnaire elicited information about if and in which situations students perceived L1 use by both teachers and students as beneficial. Overall, 73 % of all the participants felt that teachers as well as students should use the L1 in class sometimes (never being the second option). However, Burden observed a noteworthy difference between the answers of students from various levels:

> The responses to the second question[11] indicate that the ability level differences create marked changes of opinion and seem to support the truism that the better the student, the less support is needed from the mother tongue. (Burden 2000: 6)

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[11] "Should the teacher use the students MT in class?"

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It has to be noted that for the "Pre-Intermediate" students, 83% chose 'sometimes' for the second question, opposed to 41% for the Advanced students (Burden 2000: 7). However, care needs to be taken as the group size of the two levels was considerably different, so the statistical relevance of the perceived difference has to be questioned. Still, the difference points to the age and proficiency factor to be a decisive force for the appropriate L1 use, as was argued in chapter A 4.3.

A similar study was conducted by Stephens (2006) who administered a questionnaire study with open-ended questions to investigate the views on L1 use of 167 students at one university in Japan, of which 10% were English majors. Overall, the results revealed students widely desired their teachers to use the L1 to quite large extents and for different purposes. Those figures differed for Japanese native teachers and English Native teachers, for the students expected the former to use more L1 than the latter.

Carson & Kashihara (2012) conducted an investigation among 305 first and second year non-English majors at a Japanese university. To determine "whether opinions differ with L2 proficiency", students were allocated to five-proficiency levels according to a proficiency test. "[A] questionnaire [was used] to assess participants' view on whether they desire the L1's use during instruction" (Carson & Kashihara 2012: 41). While students preferred the L1 in various situations and for different reasons, the results furthermore support the findings of Burden (2000), as regards the relevance of the language level to be a determining factor:

> While most students believed that instructors should know the L1, their desire for teachers to use the L1 in class was lower and declined with increasing L2 ability. (Carson & Kashihara 2012: 46)

From their investigation Carson and Kashihara (2012: 47) pointedly suggest: "The use of L1 should not be punished, and the use of L2 encouraged".

A study with 52 beginners of French at an Australian university was conducted by Rolin-Ianziti and Varshney (2008). This investigation is of special interest, as the design of the research instrument is very similar to the one in the present empirical investigation. Participants were given a questionnaire with 21 Likert scale items and two open questions to investigate students' views on L1 use and their possible reasons as well as the relationship between L1 use and anxiety. Broadly speaking, it was found that students preferred the L1 to be used when dealing with grammar and vocabulary or explicit structural knowledge in general:

> In our context, the students attribute a role to the L1 to perform medium-oriented interactions, with responses indicating that the L1 allows access to vocabulary meaning and helps to explain the grammatical system of the TL.
> (Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney 2008: 267)

> For most students studying in different contexts, the L1 appears to play an important function in gaining explicit knowledge of linguistic features of the TL. (Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney 2008: 269)

Furthermore, "responses to the open questions show that the L1 plays a role in reducing classroom anxiety" (Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney 2008: 265). Students seem to value a certain motivational effect of judicious L1 as it fosters comprehension, while at the same time acknowledging a danger of overuse, which might be demotivating as well:

> While teacher use of the L1 may alleviate classroom anxiety related to TL exclusivity and help to establish positive relationships between students and teacher, the same use may also have a demotivating effect and impede TL learning.
> (Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney 2008: 269)

Overuse of L1 is viewed as demotivating, as it deprives students of the motivation to communicate successfully in the TL:

> The lack of effort or challenge produces a loss of confidence in using the TL. Such a loss demotivates students, who lose interest or get discouraged from trying to understand in the TL or to learn the TL. (Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney 2008: 265)

Brooks-Lewis (2009) got interested in the issue of students' perception of her language choice after her own negative experiences as a language learner in a course with a strict TL-exclusiveness policy:

> I had enrolled in a beginning class because I wanted to learn the language, so of course I could not understand anything the teacher was saying, and wondering why she acted as if I should was worrisome, making an already stressful situation even more so. (Brooks-Lewis 2009: 217)

> On a more practical note, I also became more adept at noticing body language, tone of voice, and other non-language communicative acts. (Brooks-Lewis 2009: 217)

Therefore, Brooks-Lewis started reflecting on her own practise and ran a qualitative research project parallel to an English class she taught at a Mexican university consciously using the L1 in this class at times. Students were asked to report their feelings about the experience in class regarding L1 use in form of a learning diary in

their L1 along the course, a reflective essay at the end of the course as a target language exercise and by means of a questionnaire. From the results, Brooks-Lewis (2009: 2016) concluded:

> [L]earner-participants' perceptions of their experience with the incorporation of their L1 in learning a foreign language [..] are remarkably positive, with a variety of reasons given as to why adult learners felt that the inclusion of their L1 in the classroom and its incorporation in the teaching and learning experience had been beneficial and how it had made the learning process not only meaningful but pleasurable.

Booth, Azman & Ismail (2014) conducted a study to "examine […] the use of L1 in the EFL reading classroom in a University in Yemen" (Booth, Azman & Ismail 2014: 76). The participants were 45 second year English majors from a single class who studied to become teachers. A questionnaire with 14 items rated on a 4 point Likert scale was administered and 10 students took part in a semi-structured interview. In brief, "[s]tudents were in favour of limited and purposeful use of L1" (Booth, Azman & Ismail 2014: 82):

> The findings reveal that the students perceive the use of Arabic (L1) as functional strategy in their EFL (L2) classrooms and that it is used to serve a number of purposes.
> (Booth, Azman & Ismail 2014: 76)

> Interestingly, it was noted that all the participants of the study agreed that the Arabic should only be used, especially by the teacher, when they have difficulties to understand in English. Participants reported that teacher should only use Arabic to help them learn English when they cannot understand in English. This declaration indicates the level of consciousness that the students have in terms of the role of L1 in their own learning of the target language. (Booth, Azman & Ismail 2014: 80)

Astutely, Booth, Azman and Ismail describe the necessity to take aspects of context and level into consideration to find the appropriate amount of L1 use:

> […] findings showed that students prefer to use Arabic for a number of functions. However, it is not easy to decide when and how appropriately in the EFL classroom, because it depends on the classroom situation. (Booth, Azman & Ismail 2014: 82-83)

> This balance should be exponential in that as the student's proficiency in the target language increases, the dependence of L1 decreases. (Booth, Azman & Ismail 2014: 83)

After the studies that have been conducted at various universities across the globe, it has to be stressed that few studies can be found that investigated students' perceptions of language choice at secondary level. One big study on teachers as well as students perceptions at various Italian secondary schools, is the TRACLINDY project, which was conducted by Macaro (1997). Apart from this, there are no further studies that the author of this thesis would know of, that specifically addressed students' perceptions of L1 use in secondary school context. For the relative absence of such investigation and my personal interest in this context, which is going to be my own future teaching context, I felt the need to conduct a study on the matter in several Viennese secondary schools.

4.6   A Word about Multilingual Classrooms

As was stated in the introduction, this thesis focuses on a research context in which teachers and students share a common L1. Therefore the focus is on homogenous L1 groups, in which code-switching is clearly most easily possible. However, if one thinks of the Viennese schools where the investigation was carried out, even though students can be expected to have a high command of German (the language of education = the L1 for the language classroom), it is likely that many students have various other native languages or additional languages for having been raised bilingually or coming from immigrant backgrounds. In that sense, the learner groups of the empirical investigation might be more multilingual than one would expect first. For that reason and the fact that students' language backgrounds clearly influence L1 use in classrooms, the issue of multilingualism in the language classroom will be briefly addressed here.

Some scholars have argued to rely exclusively on the TL to not put students of other native languages at a disadvantage. Indeed, multilingualism makes language choice in FL teaching more challenging and complex. However, that is not to say that students' L1(s) should be banished from the classroom altogether, as Ellis and Shintani (2014: 226) agreeably observe:

> Clearly, if teachers lack knowledge of the students' own language, codeswitching is not possible. However, as we will see, such a situation does not preclude the students themselves making use of their L1.

Rather than ignoring students' already existing language resources, some have thoughtfully suggested to exploit these in the language learning process and found this practise to be a useful and powerful strategy (see for examples Lucas & Katz 1994). Cummins (2005, 2007 & 2009), who strongly challenges monolingual instructional strategies, makes a number of useful suggestions for meaningfully integrating students various L1s into language teaching. Those include ideas like allowing students using bilingual dictionaries, short translation exercises, allowing students with the same L1 to briefly switch to that language, if misunderstanding occurs (see Cummins 2009 for details). Neither space nor focus of this paper allows for a more in-depth investigation of the matter of multilingualism with regard to L1 use in FLT. Rather, the author wants to stress that she is aware of the fact that multilingualism influences L1 use, even though this aspect is consciously not given prominence in the present investigation. Furthermore, the author agrees with Cummins who encourages teachers to make use of students L1 resources. If teachers take the matter of L1 use as a scaffolding tool for learning seriously, which I would consider highly relevant and useful, they should keep students' various L1 backgrounds in mind. Indeed:

> [S]tudents' L1 is not the enemy in promoting high levels of L2 proficiency; rather, when 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)

4.7   The Situation in Austria

As was already mentioned in section 4.5.2 relatively few studies so far have focused on the students' perspective in secondary school contexts. Equally, the situation in Austria, more specifically in Vienna is relatively unexplored. However, there are three studies that focused on some aspects of code-switching or L1-use in ELT which were conducted in Austria. Those are briefly mentioned below.

Claucig (2005) conducted a questionnaire study among 111 English teachers in Austria using a four item-questionnaire to elicit teachers' beliefs and practises. Hence her focus was rather on the teachers' perspective. From the data analysis she concluded that teachers hold quite different views on the appropriateness of L1-use and a considerable number of them adheres to an English-Only approach and sees no place for the L1 in teaching.

In 2006 Dörfler observed 10 English secondary school lessons of English which were video-taped. Additionally, Dörfler conducted interviews with the two teachers, whose lessons were observed. In that sense the focus of this study was also more on the teacher's perspective and on patterns of code-switching that could be observed. It was found that L1-use occurs following certain patterns and teachers in this investigation switched more frequently than students.

Finally, an interesting and somewhat different study was carried out by Kornfeld in 2012. This investigation compared the functions of code-switches to the L1 in CLIL[12] and ELT classes. Data was collected in a lower secondary school in Burgenland, Austria, by means of observation. Three CLIL lessons and three English lessons were recorded and transcribed. In essence it was found that switches served a number of functions in both contexts and those functions were largely similar for CLIL and English classes.

In sum, I noticed a relative absence of studies focusing on students' perceptions in the context of secondary schools and the field of language choice in ELT in Austria seemed rather unexplored. Therefore, I decided to conduct the present empirical study, which will be described in Part B.

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[12] CLIL = Content and Language Integrated Learning

PART B: EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

5 Empirical Investigation

The aim of the present empirical investigation is to shed some light on the L1 use practises as well as on the according views and preferences of students in Austria, more specifically in the context of secondary schools in Vienna. As was indicated in section A 4.5.1 and A 4.5.2, a number of previous studies and surveys have already investigated students' and teachers' experiences and perceptions on the issue within different situations. However, almost all of them, especially those that explored the students' perspective, were conducted in a university context. Unfortunately, however, as Turnbull and Arnett observe, "[f]ew studies have focused on what learners feel about their teachers' TL and L1 use". For this relative absence of a study focusing on secondary school students' attitudes and views on language choice in ELT, I decided to investigate the matter within this specific context. The decision for this population was additionally enhanced by my own special interest in this age and educational group which is likely to be my future teaching context.

As the literature review in the first part of this paper emphasised, the choice of the MoI depends on a number of factors and there are many aspects to be explored. After an intensive review of the existing literature on L1 use in language education, I decided on a focus for the present survey. In qualitative terms, the present investigation seeks to answer the following research questions:

➢ How do students feel about L1 use as opposed to English-Only in ELT? What do they (not) like about it?

➢ For which reasons do they consider it helpful or useless?

➢ In which circumstances do students appreciate (or not appreciate) L1 use?

➢ Which amount do they consider appropriate?

Additionally to the research questions, I put special emphasis on the relationship between teachers requiring their students to exclusively use the TL and the students' feelings of anxiety. This decision was brought about by my personal feeling that a language classroom can be an intimidating place and having to speak in a language one has only limited command of in front of others can be a face-threatening experience. Hence, I feel that denying students any recourse to the L1, if they require

it, can raise levels of anxiety. This view is among others shared by Levine (2003: 346) who astutely observed:

> [A] classroom dynamic in which "resorting" to L1 use is considered a shortcoming or lapse of appropriate behavior—arguably the prevalent dynamic in many university FL classes—could likely lead to anxiety about TL use for a considerable number of learners.

Similarly, Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope (1986) propose a relationship between students' feelings of anxiety, which can be brought about by being forced to talk in the TL, and a reluctance to verbally participate in the language classroom.

Therefore I decided to test the following hypothesis within my research context:

H_1: There is a positive correlation between teachers requiring their students to use English-Only in classroom communication and students' self-perceived anxiety.

Moreover, I decided to investigate the reported amount of TL use of students themselves, fellow-students and teachers. It seems logical that the amount of L1 use decreases as students' proficiency increases, since they will become more able to decode and produce TL utterances as their language skills improve. Littlewood & Yu (2011: 72) similarly suggest:

> The choice of L1 or TL must depend on the nature of the specific situation, topic and (most important) student(s) involved, including their proficiency and the extent to which they feel 'at home' with the language. As with the compensatory use of the L1 discussed above, growing confidence and experience are likely to lead teachers to expand the scope of the TL as a natural medium for communication in this domain, while recognizing the importance of the L1 as a source of security and support.

Furthermore, I wanted to investigate students' views and opinions on what constitutes an appropriate amount of L1 use and compare results across two different proficiency levels. Therefore, the following two other hypotheses were tested:

H_2: The mean of the 'lower proficiency group' for the variable 'reported amount of L1 use' is significantly higher than the mean of the 'more advanced proficiency group'.

H_3: The mean of the 'lower proficiency group' for the variable 'desired amount of L1 use' is significantly higher than the mean of the 'more advanced proficiency group'.

6 Methodology

6.1 Research Instrument

To test the above-mentioned hypotheses and answer the research questions a questionnaire was developed, which is considered to be "the main data collection method in surveys" (Dörnyei 2007: 101). Indeed, "the popularity of questionnaires is due to the fact that they are relatively easy to construct, extremely versatile and uniquely capable of gathering a large amount of information quickly in a form that is readily processible" (Dörnyei 2007: 101-102). I reviewed several previous studies that investigated similar aspects by using questionnaires (Burden 2000, Levine 2003, Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney 2008, Bhooth, Azman & Ismail 2014) and selected items from these and developed an item pool. After several phases of reiteration and selection I produced a draft version and asked several colleagues to give their feedback on this initial version. Incorporating this input and the suggestions for revision, I developed a second version and the questionnaire went into pilot.

The pilot was meant to rule out any ambiguities and to ensure the wording was comprehensible especially for younger participants. Around ten secondary school students who constituted a group very similar to the real participants and who were at the researcher's disposal were given the questionnaire and asked to fill it out and note anything that was unclear or ambivalent.

After the pilot had been completed, minor changes and improvements were made and occasionally the wording was slightly adapted to make it more straight-forward. Additionally, I checked the completed pilot questionnaires for their conclusiveness to see if there were any contradictions in participants' answers to avoid any misunderstandings due to unclear item wording. As there could be no major contradictions found, I developed a final version.

Additionally, the pilot was meant to get a rough idea of the time required to complete the questionnaire, which was difficult to predict for different age levels and the relatively young age of some participants (13/14 years). Participants in the pilot needed between 7 and 13 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Hence it was estimated that between 15 and 20 minutes would be required for data elicitation in class.

For restrictions of time and the limitations of this small project, it was not possible to include statistical analyses in the piloting-phase or to test the quantitative validity and reliability of the questionnaire, even though this would have undoubtedly been interesting and useful. The questionnaire which was used in the actual study can be found in Appendix 7.1. The questionnaire was written in German since this is the shared L1 of both the researcher and at least the majority of the participants (for an in-depth discussion of the term L1 and its ambiguities see section 2.1). An English translation of the questionnaire which was also developed can be found in Appendix 7.2.

The questionnaire consists of two major parts: The first one dealt with students' experiences in their English lessons, while the second part focused on their attitudes and beliefs. For the majority of the questions, the format of a Likert scale item was chosen as this method is not only very popular especially in second language research but also "simple, versatile and reliable" (Dörnyei & Taguchi 2010: 27). Each section contained ten Likert scale items. A Likert Scale item "consists of a characteristic statement and respondents are asked to indicate the extent to which they 'agree' or 'disagree' with it by marking […] one of the responses ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'" (Dörnyei 2007: 105). For both sections, questions were rated on a six-point Likert scale to prevent a tendency of participants choosing the middle option too often.

Additionally, section one contained four and section two contained three multiple choice questions, which elicited experienced respectively desired situations and amounts of L1 use. Two open questions at the end of the questionnaire were added as "open-format items can provide a far greater richness than fully quantitative data […] [and] the open responses can offer graphic examples, illustrative quotes, and can also lead us to identify issues not previously anticipated" (Dörnyei 2007: 107). For the open questions a format was chosen which Dörnyei labelled 'sentence completion', as those are easier to handle for participants and more likely to enhance useful answers than ordinary questions. In total the questionnaire consisted of 29 items and some final questions to gather basic statistical information as age, gender or class level.

It is generally accepted that "when it comes to assessing non-factual matters such as the respondents' attitudes, beliefs and other personal or mental variables, the actual wording of an item can assume an unexpected importance" (Dörnyei 2007: 103).

Therefore it is considered unadvisable to use a single item to measure one parameter. Hence, I decided to use multi-item scales, meaning that "these scales refer to a cluster of several differently worded items that focus on the same target. The item scores for the similar questions are summed, resulting in a total scale score" (Dörnyei 2007: 103-104). It is assumed that Likert scale items that measure the same attitude can simply be summed up as they refer to the same target. By using multi-item scales, one avoids a single item getting to much prominence and resulting in incorrect results.

6.2   Sampling and Participants

As was indicated at the beginning of this chapter, the population of this survey was defined as 'students of general secondary schools (AHS) in Vienna'. The entire sample finally consisted of 221 participants, whose questionnaires were used for analysis, after I had discarded some questionnaires for reasons that will be described in section 6.4. Of those participants whose questionnaires went into analysis 136 were female and 85 male; 115 belonged to the 'lower proficiency group' and 106 to the 'more advanced proficiency group'.
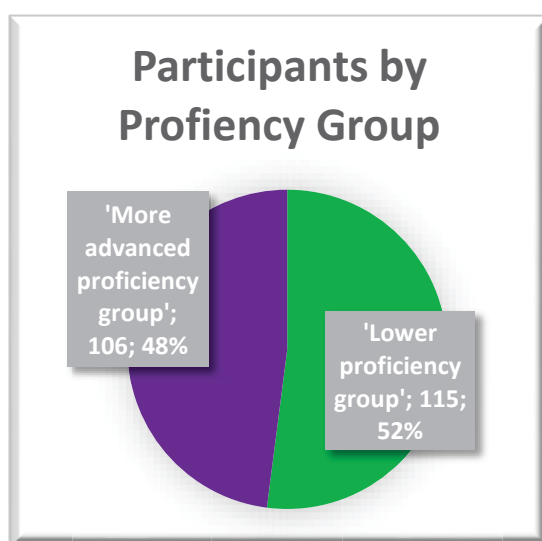
Figure 1: Participants by Proficiency Group
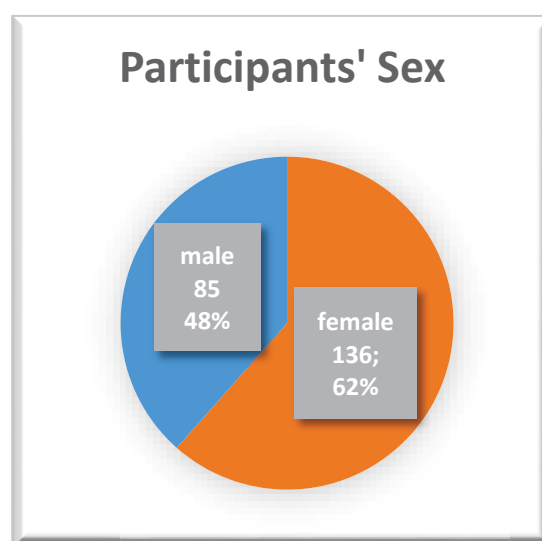
Figure 2: Participants' Sex

The sampling method that was used was 'convenience sampling' or 'opportunity sampling', which is probably the most widely used sampling method especially in L2 research (see Dörnyei 2007: 98-99). That is to say that participants were selected for their availability and accessibility. However, it has to be mentioned that "convenience samples are rarely completely convenience-based but are usually partially purposeful, which means that besides the relative ease of accessibility, participants also have to

possess certain key characteristics that are related to the purpose of the investigation" (Dörnyei 2007: 99). For the present study students obviously had to be from general secondary schools (AHS). Furthermore, participants from specific age groups and proficiency levels were required. As for hypotheses 2 and 3, two groups, namely rather beginners and more advanced students were compared, an approximately equal number of participants for both groups was necessary, requiring a minimum of 30 participants for each group. It was furthermore decided to exclude participants form 1st and 2nd form of secondary school as for their relatively young age (10-12 years) they might cognitively and mentally not be ready to answer abstract questionnaire items in a way that one gets reliable and true results. Therefore, I decided to use participants from 3rd and 4th grade for the 'lower proficiency group' and participants from 6th, 7th and 8th grade for the 'more advanced proficiency group'.

As regards the overall proficiency level of the participants, it is difficult to make judgements, as no proficiency test was administered as part of the investigation. However, to give a rough idea, it can be said that students in Austria have to reach B2 level in English to pass their Matura[13] which they do after the 8th form. Hence, it can be assumed that students from the 6th, 7th and 8th form were somewhere between B1 and B2. The students from the 3rd and 4th form were not mere beginners but somewhat lower intermediate, probably around A2 level, of course always depending on the different schools, classes and the individual student. Finally, it should be mentioned that students in Austria usually start studying English in first form of secondary school. Therefore participants had at least been studying English between 3 and 8 years. Even though it is compulsory to receive some form of basic English instruction already in primary school, the quality and the level tends to vary considerably.

I collected data at five different Viennese schools, in 17 different classes, which were taught by 12 different teachers. The number of participants for each of the form levels can be seen in figure 3, while figure 4 illustrates the number of participants grouped by the five different schools.

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[13] Matura = school leaving examination to finish high school
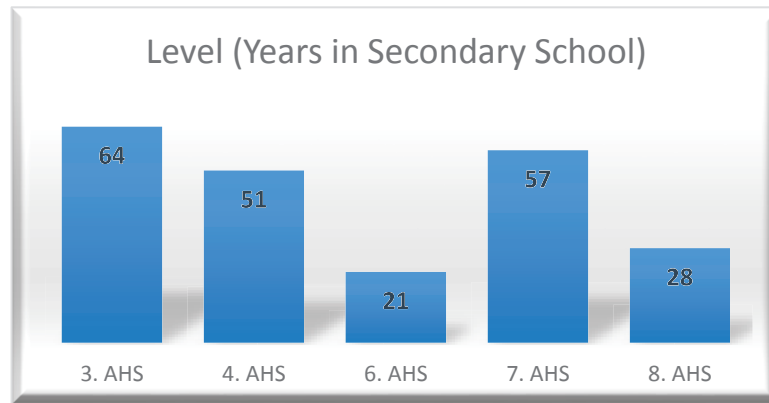
Figure 3: Level (Years in Secondary School)
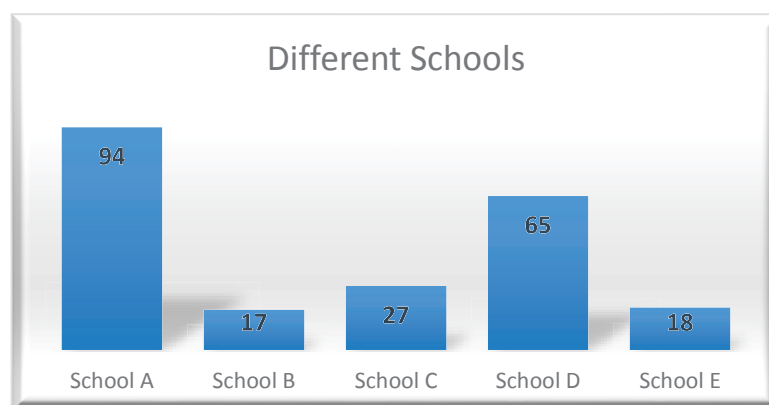
Figure 4: Different Schools

Participants were between 12 and 20 years old with a mean age of 14,9. The participants' age distribution is shown in figure 5.
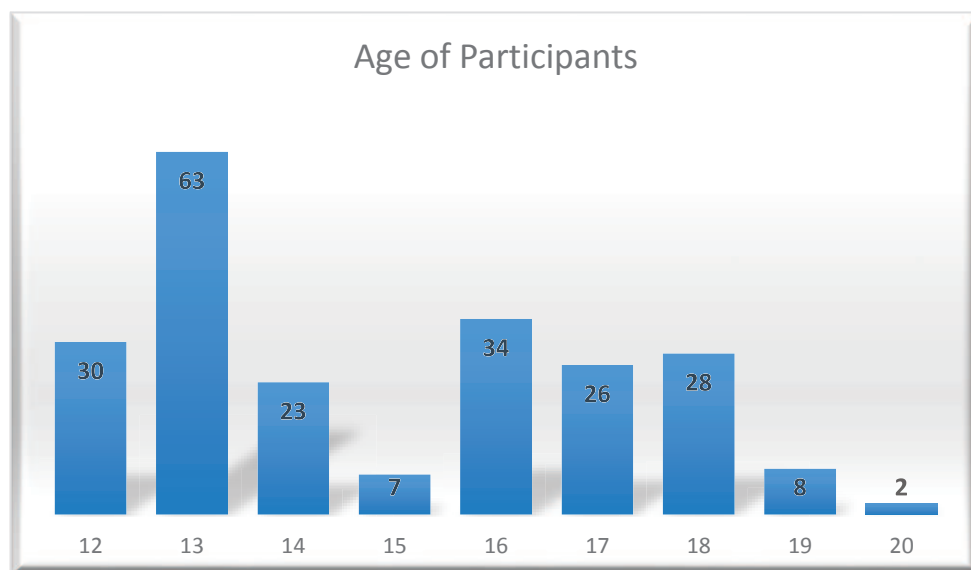
Figure 5: Age of Participants

6.3 Procedure and Administration

At the very beginning of the present investigation, I contacted several teachers via e-mail and asked, if they were able and ready to have me distribute my questionnaire to their students in their English lessons. Teachers from five different schools were found who agreed to support the research project and as the next step, I asked the respective headmasters for permission. After that I sent a formal letter (see Appendix 11.4) with a description of the project and the research instrument to the Vienna Board of Education to get official consent for the project.

After the official approval was granted, I contacted the teachers again and they kindly agreed to distribute and recollect information letters for the participants' parents in paper. As the majority of the participants were underage, their parents' consent was asked as part of the letter (see Appendix 11.3).

Finally, I scheduled dates for the actual data collection and went to English lessons in different schools over a four-week period. In each individual class, I informed students about the purpose of the research, about the anonymous and voluntary nature of their participation and some important details about how to fill out the questionnaire. Furthermore, I told the students that the results were only used for my diploma thesis and that their teachers would not be given any data.

As the completion took place in class, it seemed most convenient to administer the questionnaire in paper and pencil and I later manually typed the results into an Excel sheet. Even though participants were informed that their participation was voluntary, the return rate was an impressive 100% which was probably due to the fact that the filling out happened during lessons rather than in participants' free time which is usually the case with online questionnaires.

Therefore not only the willing and more motivated students took part but the entire class. This fact also prevented an undesirable bias which might happen, if one sends out questionnaires for participants in their free time, as one might get an overrepresentation of more willing, motivated and in the case of L2 research also the more proficient students, which is likely to influence the results. In other words "volunteers may be different from non-volunteers in their aptitude, motivation or some other basic characteristics […] and [c]onsequently, the sample may lose its representative character, which of course would prevent any meaningful

generalizability" (Dörnyei 2007: 101). Apart from the fact that in-class administration seemed the most convenient and sensible way here, it resulted in a high-return rate and could rule out the danger of the above-mentioned bias.

6.4 Coding and Data Clearing

Before the data went into analysis, the individual questionnaires were checked for any inconsistencies and questionnaires with unclear or contradictory answers were excluded. Furthermore, questionnaires with more than 3 missing answers (i.e.= missing answers for more than 3 items) were excluded. For those questionnaires where fewer answers were missing, means of all the other participants' answers on the specific item were calculated and inserted for the missing answers.

6.4.1 Coding of Closed Questions and Data Clearing

After the data collection was completed, the items were coded and the results transferred into an Excel Data sheet. The Likert scale items were coded from 1 to 6, where 6 referred to 'strongly agree' and 1 to 'strongly disagree'. For items IA3, IA6, IA7, IA8, IIA2, IIA4, IIA5, IIA6 and IIA8 coding was reversed for their different wording and hence opposite meanings. Consequently 6 signified high positive agreement with the targeted variable and 1 very low.

For items IB and IIB, which investigated different situations of L1 use, as students experienced respectively desired them, multiple answers were possible. Therefore, each answer option was coded 1, if it had been selected, and 0, if it had not been ticked.

Items IC & IIC dealt with estimated and desired amounts of L1 use and the six answer options ranged from 'always' to 'never'. For items IC1, IC2 and IC3, 'always' was coded as 6 and 'never' as 1. The same coding was reversed for items IIC1 and IIC2, so that 6 stands for a high frequency of TL use and 1 for a very low one.

6.4.2 Coding of Open-Ended Questions

As was mentioned above, the questionnaire that was used in the present study contained two open ended questions to get some qualitative data and more in-depth and rich answers from the participants. These two questions are given below:

Pros and Cons of using German in English lessons
What do you think? Complete the sentences!
1. What I like about also using some German in English lessons is that …   2. What I like about using mainly English in English lessons is that …

Table 1: Open ended questions (Items D1 & D2)

I coded participants' answers to these two sentence completion items and developed a coding scheme that was derived from the data. After a six week period the coding was repeated and some adaptations and changes were made. Regarding the analysis of the data, a mixed approach was applied. After the coding was completed, I counted occurrences of each category for each of the two questions split by proficiency group. Next, I selected a number of answers that seemed specifically interesting or revealing which will be reported for demonstration and illustration where they seem to fit content and argumentation. The quantitative aspect will be discussed in section 3.2.1, accompanied by some quotes for illustration. Additionally, quotes from answers to the open-ended questions will be mentioned in other sections where they seem appropriate for illustration or argumentation.

The coding scheme used and the respective categories are given in table 2:

Code	Category
PR	Pronunciation
UP	Understanding problem
EP	Expression problem
VP	Vocabulary problem
BU	Better understanding
BL	Better learning
BS	Better speaking skills
V	Vocabulary gets enriched
F	Fluency, feeling for the language
S	Feeling of safety
L	Questions of level
T	Time safer

Table 2: Coding Scheme for Open-Ended Questions

7 Analysis and Discussion of Results

In this section the statistical analysis and the interpretation of the results for each of the three hypotheses will be discussed in turn. Then the research questions will be discussed drawing on various closed questions and the open-ended questions from the questionnaire. Finally, some further observations and comments will round off the discussion.

7.1 Hypotheses

7.1.1 Hypothesis 1

From the first hypothesis the following null-hypothesis derives:

H_{01}: There is no correlation between teachers requiring their students to use English-Only in classroom communication and students' self-perceived anxiety.

The two variables of this hypothesis are students' perception of anxiety (henceforward 'Anxiety') and teachers requiring their students to only use the TL in classroom communication at any time (henceforward: 'TL-exclusiveness'). As was already mentioned in section 2.1., multi-item scales were used for each parameter. The variable anxiety was measured by items IA4, IA6 and IA8. Coding scores of those items were summed for each individual participants resulting in the value for 'Anxiety'. Similarly, results for items IA5, IA7 and IA9 were summed to measure 'TL-exclusiveness'. Table 3 shows the English translation of the relevant items:

Variable 'Anxiety'
IA4: I rarely speak in our lessons, as I am afraid of speaking English.
IA6: I am not afraid of speaking English in our lessons. *(reversed coding)*
IA8: I frequently participate in interactions and discussions in our English lessons. *(reversed coding)*
Variable 'TL-exclusiveness'
IA5: Our English teacher requires us to speak only English in our lessons.
IA7: If we are not able to express something in English, we are allowed to say it in German in our lessons. *(reversed coding)*
IA9: We are not allowed to speak German in English lessons.

Table 3: Items measuring 'Anxiety' and 'TL-exclusiveness'

7.1.1.1 Analysis

The descriptive statistics for the variables 'Anxiety' and 'TL-exclusiveness' are given below. It should be noted that scores for both variables resulted from three items that were added. As each item has six answer options, the total score could range from 3 to 18.

		Anxiety	TL_required
N	Valid	221	221
	Missing	0	0
Mean		7,9842	11,161
Standard Error of the Mean		,23121	,1936
Median		8,0000	11,000
Mode		5,00	13,0
Standard deviation		3,43723	2,8782
Variance		11,815	8,284
Range		14,00	15,0
Minimum		3,00	3,0
Maximum		17,00	18,0

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics for Variables 'Anxiety' and 'TL-exclusiveness'

The data was used to run a Pearson product-moment correlation using SPSS. The results could not show a statistically significant correlation between the two variables 'Anxiety' and 'TL-exclusiveness' (p-value=0,110, r=-0,108, n=221).

		TL_required	Anxiety
TL_required	Pearson-Correlation	1	-,108
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,110
	N	221	221
Anxiety	Pearson-Correlation	-,108	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,110	
	N	221	221

Table 5: Correlation of 'Anxiety' and 'TL-Exclusiveness'

Hence, the H_{01} cannot be rejected on the basis of the present investigation. It has to be mentioned that even though the analysis did not show any significant results, the two parameters show a negative correlation, which is in fact the opposite direction than was hypothesized. However, no generalizations can be made from the existing data on H_1.

Additionally, the data set was split into two groups according to the two proficiency and a correlation analysis for the two variables 'Anxiety' and 'TL-exclusiveness' was run for each of the two proficiency groups in turn to see if the two variables correlate within one of the two sub-groups. However, analysis did not show any significant correlation for either sub-groups, as table 6 and 7 illustrate. In accordance with the results for the entire data set, analysis for the sub-groups in fact revealed a negative correlation, even though it was not significant and does therefore not allow any generalizations. Hence, H_{01} cannot be rejected for any of the two proficiency groups on the basis of the present data.

		TL_required	Anxiety
TL_required	Pearson-Correlation	1	-,099
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,294
	N	115	115
Anxiety	Pearson-Correlation	-,099	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,294	
	N	115	115

Table 6: Correlation of 'Anxiety' and 'TL-Exclusiveness'
for 'Lower Proficiency Group'

		TL_required	Anxiety
TL_required	Pearson-Correlation	1	-,096
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,330
	N	106	106
Anxiety	Pearson-Correlation	-,096	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,330	
	N	106	106

Table 7: Correlation of 'Anxiety' and 'TL-Exclusiveness'
for 'More Advanced Proficiency Group'

7.1.1.2 Discussion of Results

Different from anticipated, there was no positive correlation found between the variables 'Anxiety' and 'TL-exclusiveness' which might result from various reasons which are discussed below. First of all, the research instrument might not have been precise enough and the three items measuring 'Anxiety' were not sufficient or effective. In a similar sense, the parameter of 'Anxiety' might have been defined as

too narrow in the sense of 'anxiety to participate orally in classroom interaction'. Furthermore, as was discussed in section A 2.10., the concept of anxiety is multi-layered and rather complex. For the present investigation, a focus was put on state anxiety, which is a momentary feeling which results from some outer stimulus (the teachers requiring their students to exclusively use the target language). However, it is not clear, if the items clearly measured this particular aspect of anxiety or different aspects. The other dimension of anxiety, trait anxiety, which is a more permanent character trait, is likely to have an impact on students' readiness to participate orally. If the items rather measured this aspect it is not surprising that the analysis did not find a correlation. In other words it might be that the items rather measured participants general disposition to feel anxious than anxiety caused by TL-exclusiveness. Quite logically a correlation between students' general disposition to be anxious and their teacher requiring them to exclusively use the TL is quite unlikely. In short: The items measuring 'Anxiety' might need revision and more in-depth statistical analysis to ensure that they really measure what they are intended to measure.

Even though results from the correlation analysis were not significant and hence do not allow any generalizable claims, it is surprising and worth discussing that for the present sample a negative correlation was found. That is to say that for the participants of this study, those students whose teachers required them to use the TL exclusively, showed lower levels of anxiety and vice versa. In fact, these results coincide with findings from a study by Levine (2003) who found a significantly negative correlation between 'TL-exclusiveness' and 'Anxiety' (for a discussion of this study see section 4.2). Students who are used to speaking in the TL frequently, might in consequence be less afraid to do so. Proponents of the 'English-Only' approach have in fact raised precisely this argument: It is necessary to force students to use the TL exclusively so that they get used to it and lose the inhibition to do so. Furthermore, it has to be assumed that in the present study a number of other parameters, which the questionnaire did not measure, influenced the results. In any case, the results have to be treated with care, as the precision of the items measuring 'Anxiety' is not clear.

7.1.2 Hypothesis 2

As the second hypothesis is a so-called directive hypothesis (Diamantopoulos & Schlegelmilch 2000: 184) the following null-hypothesis derives:

H_{02}: The mean of the 'lower proficiency group' for the variable 'reported amount of L1 use' is equal or significantly lower than the mean of the 'more advanced proficiency group'.

To test this hypothesis an independent sample t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the two proficiency groups. Hence, the grouping variable was students' proficiency level. Participants from the lower secondary, namely 3rd and 4th form, were grouped as the 'lower proficiency group' and coded as 0 in the analysis (n=115). The 'more advanced proficiency group' consisted of students from upper secondary, 6th, 7th and 8th form and was coded as 1 (n=106). The distribution of the number of participants from the different levels to the two test groups is illustrated in figure 6.
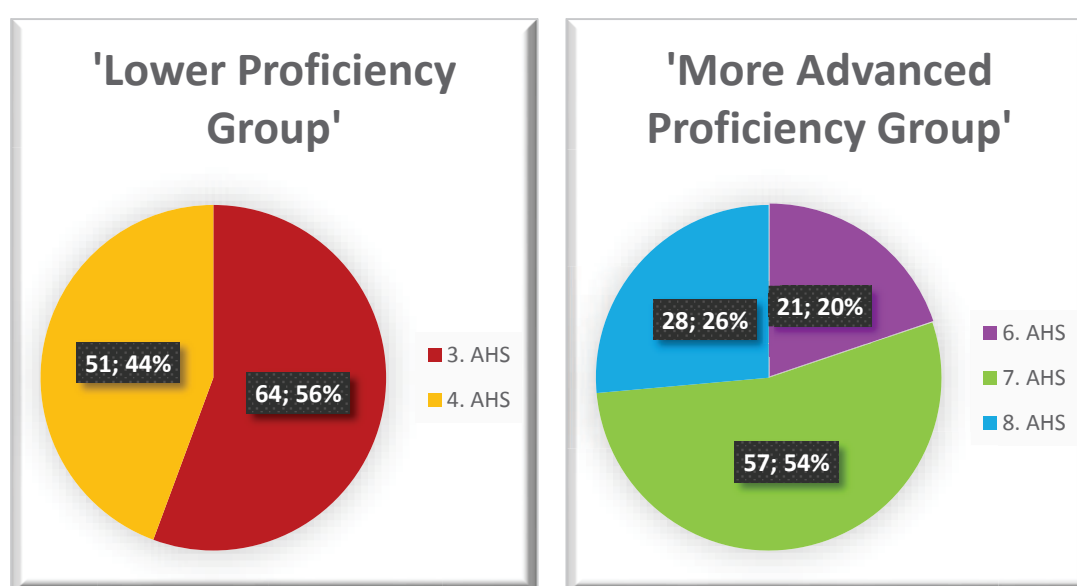
Figure 6: Distribution of Participants by Proficiency Group

The test variable was the reported amount of L1 use of both teachers and students during English lessons (henceforward 'Amount of L1 use') and was measured by a multi-item scale. Scores for items IA1, IA3, IA10, IC1, IC2 and IC3 were summed and provided the value for 'Amount of L1 use'. For items IC1, IC2 and IC3 answer options ranged from 'never' to 'always' on a six point scale. In table 8 the English translation of the relevant items are displayed:

Test-variable 'Amount of L1 use'
IA1: My English Teacher speaks only English in our lessons.
IA3: My English teacher speaks frequently German in our lessons. *(reversed coding)*
IA10: My English teacher never speaks in German to us in English lessons.
Amount of English used in English lessons: What is your assessment?
For each question, tick the appropriate answer according to your assessment!
IC1: In English lessons, my English teacher speaks ____ in <u>English.</u>
IC2: Other students in my class speak ____ in <u>English</u> in English lessons.
IC3: 3. My oral contributions to English lessons are____ in <u>English.</u>

Table 8: Items constituting the Test-variable 'Amount of L1 use'

7.1.2.1 Analysis

An independent sample t-test was run using SPSS to compare the mean scores of the two groups for the test-variable 'Amount of L1 use'. The results of the analysis are shown in table 9.

	LowerMoreAdvanced Proficiency Group	H	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error Mean
Amount_L1_use	0	115	23,878	3,1896	,2974
	1	106	27,179	4,4095	,4283

		Levenes Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference		Lower	Upper
Amount_L1_use	Equal variances assumed	18,015	,000	-6,412	219	,000	-3,3010	,5148		-4,3156	-2,2864
	Equal variances not assumed			-6,331	189,998	,000	-3,3010	,5214		-4,3295	-2,2724

Table 9: Group Statistics and Independent Samples t-test for Test Variable 'Amount of L1 use'

As table 9 shows, the 'more advanced proficiency group' showed a higher mean score of 27,179 for the variable 'Amount of L1 use' as opposed to 23,878 for the 'lower proficiency group'. As according to the coding 6 signified a high amount of TL use,

whereas 1 stood for a very low use of TL use for the individual items, it can be concluded that on average more TL is used within the 'more advanced ability group' in this particular sample. To see if this difference is significant, and hence allows for any generalizations above the present sample, the t-test was conducted. As Levene's Test for Equality was significant, equal variance in the two groups cannot be assumed and therefore the degree of freedom has to be adapted accordingly. Hence, the results from the second line in the above table are relevant. Here one can see that the difference between the two groups is clearly significant (p-value < 0,000).

In order to determine the effect size of the difference between the two groups, eta-squared was calculated using the following formula (Dörnyei 2007: 217):

$$\eta^2 = \frac{t^2}{t^2 + (N1 + N2 - 2)}$$

For the present analysis, eta-squared was 0,155. As "the usual interpretation of eta squared is that .01 = small effect, .06 = moderate effect, and .14 = large effect" (Dörnyei 2007: 217) the effect size of the present analysis is quite high. On the basis of this data H_{02} has to be rejected and hence H_2 can be confirmed .

7.1.2.2 Discussion of Results

As the null hypothesis in the previous section was rejected due to the analysis, there is evidence that the second hypothesis is true. In other words, it can be said that there is a statistically significant difference in the reported amount of L1 use by both teachers and students between the 'lower proficiency group' and the 'more advanced proficiency group'. As was assumed in the hypothesis, the amount of L1 use is lower if students' proficiency level is higher. This finding is in line with results of a number of previous studies who confirmed that the amount of L1 use is contingent on students' proficiency level (see section 4.3. for details of previous studies).

This finding seem reasonable as students at a more advanced proficiency level have automatically more TL at their disposal to express what they want to say. Furthermore, they may feel more comfortable or are likely to be more used to conversing in the TL. Likewise, teachers will tend to rely less on the L1 if they have the impression that students can understand them well, if they are speaking in the TL.

However, that is not to say that there will be no L1 used at all in more advanced proficiency groups. At times it might seem useful or even necessary to use a short recursion to the L1 even in highly advanced learner groups. From the analysis regarding the second hypothesis, it can be concluded that within a more advanced group of language learners, the amount of TL use, tends to be higher than in a lower proficiency group.

Notwithstanding of the results reported above, it has to be kept in mind that the present analysis is based on self-reported data which always needs to be treated with care. Hence, the amounts of L1 use that were the basis for analysis were not the actual amounts used in class but those that students estimated and reported. This does not mean that the self-reported data is per se unreliable or that it is unjustified to draw conclusions on the basis of this type of data, but rather the nature of the data should be taken into account.

Moreover, it needs to be considered, that for the present analysis, two distinct groups with different in-group proficiency levels were compared. Even though it is tempting to conclude that the amount of L1 steadily decreases as students' proficiency level increases, the analysis does not precisely show that.

Finally, an undoubtedly interesting question would be how the reported amounts of L1 use relate to students' desires and preferences about L1 use. The latter is subject of the third hypothesis which will be discussed in the next section.

7.1.3 Hypothesis 3

Like H_2, the third hypothesis is a directive hypothesis (Diamantopoulos & Schlegelmilch 2000: 184) and hence the following H_{03} derives from it:

> H_{03}: The mean of the 'lower proficiency group' for the variable 'desired amount of L1 use' is significantly lower than or the same as the mean of the 'more advanced proficiency group'.

Again a t-test was run to compare the mean of the two groups. The grouping variable was the same as with hypothesis two ('lower ability group', code=0, n=115) 'more advanced ability group', code=1, n=106). The test variable was the amount of L1 use that students considered appropriate according to their answers (henceforward 'desired amount of L1 use'). This variable was measured by a multi-item scale. For the value of 'desired amount of L1 use', items IIA1, IIA2, IIA3, IIA4, IIA5, IIA6,

IIA7, IIA8, IIA9, IIA10, IIC1 & IIC2 were summed. The coding was the same as for H_2. The relevant items are illustrated in table 10.

Test-variable 'Desired Amount of L1 use'
IIA1: I consider it best, if teachers only speak English in English lessons.
IIA2: I understand grammar better, if it is explained in German. *(reversed coding)*
IIA3: English teachers should never use German in lessons.
IIA4: It is better for an English teacher to give instructions for a task in German. *(reversed coding)*
IIA5: The best way to acquire a new word is from a German translation. *(reversed coding)*
IIA6: Students should be allowed to use German in English lessons, if they cannot express their point in English. *(reversed coding)*
IIA7: It is better and results in faster learning, if grammar is explained in English.
IIA8: It can be beneficial, if English teachers use a certain amount of German in English lessons. *(reversed coding)*
IIA9: The best way to acquire a new word is from an English definition.
IIA10: Students should never use German in English lessons.
Amount of English used in English lessons: What would you find most appropriate?
For each question, tick the answer according to your own opinion!
IIC1: How often should English teachers use <u>German</u> in English lessons, according to your opinion? *(reversed coding)*
IIC2: How often should students use <u>German</u> in English lessons, according to your opinion? *(reversed coding)*

Table 10: Items measuring the variable 'Desired amount of L1 use'

7.1.3.1 Analysis

An independent sample t-test was run using SPSS to determine if the means of the test-variable of the two groups were different. The results of the analysis can be found in table 11 below.

	LowerMoreAdvanced Proficiency Group	H	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error Mean
Desire_L1_use	0	115	38,617	7,5954	,7083
	1	106	45,731	9,1280	,8866

		Levenes Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Desire_L1_use	Equal variances assumed	5,267	,023	-6,316	219	,000	-7,1137	1,1264	-9,3336	-4,8939
	Equal variances not assumed			-6,269	204,916	,000	-7,1137	1,1348	-9,3511	-4,8764

Table 11: Group Statistics and Independent Samples t-test for Test Variable 'Desire of L1 use'

The mean score of the 'more advanced proficiency group' was higher than the one of the 'lower proficiency group'. Higher coding stands for a desire for a high amount of TL use. Hence, the comparison of the mean scores suggests that the 'more advanced proficiency group' opts for a higher amount of TL use. To determine if this difference is statistically significant and therefore allows for generalization above the present data sample, the t-test was run. The Levene's Test for equality was significant and therefore equal variance in the two groups cannot be assumed. In consequence, the degree of freedom needs to be adapted accordingly to get accurate results, which means that the second line in the above table has to be considered. According to the t-test, the difference in the mean scores between the two groups is statistically significant, as the p-value is below 0,000.

To determine the effect size of this difference eta-squared was calculated (for the calculation and interpretation of eta-squared see section 7.1.2.1). For the present analysis eta squared was 0,1521 which can be considered a very high effect size. Consequently, the null-hypothesis has to be rejected and one can conclude that H_3 is true, suggesting that the mean of the 'lower proficiency group' for the variable 'desired

amount of L1 use' is significantly higher' than the mean of the 'more advanced proficiency group'.

7.1.3.2 Discussion of Results

From the above analysis H_{03} was rejected and hence H_3 can be assumed to be true. In other words, students of lower proficiency levels seem to appreciate higher amounts of L1 use than more advanced students. If one assumes that students' satisfaction or feeling at ease is decisive for successful learning, teachers should take those findings into consideration. In consequence, teachers might be advised to consider students' proficiency level when making decisions about language choice. They should keep in mind that students at lower proficiency levels are likely to be more dependent on their L1 in second language acquisition than more advanced ones.

However, I am not suggesting that beginners should not be encouraged to use the TL and that no L1 should be allowed in more advanced learner groups. Far from that, I believe also students with very limited TL resources should be encouraged to express what they want to say in the TL, especially if this lies within their language capacities. At the same time, it seems crucial to treat errors in a positive manner and to not punish students for incorrect language forms they produced in an attempt to use the TL. Equally, it is difficult to rule out that there might be occasions even in highly advanced proficiency groups where a short recourse or comparison to the L1 can be very beneficial or fruitful.

Generally, teachers seem to show a quite sound sensitivity to students' level and their according desire for L1 use, as the results from H_2 suggest. In other words, one could say that the reported amount of L1 use and students' desired amounts seem to coincide.

7.2 Research Questions

It has to be stressed that the analyses to answer the research questions are all based on descriptive statistics and therefore do not allow for any generalizations above the present sample. They will rather be used as a basis for argumentation and combined with quotes from the open-ended questions.

7.2.1 How do Students feel about L1 Use as opposed to English-Only in ELT? What do they (not) like about it?

To answer the first research question, items IIA3, IIA6, IIA8 and IIA10 need to be considered, as they addressed students' views on the appropriateness of L1 use in ELT by both teachers and students in general terms. The relevant items are listed below and those with reversed coding are marked accordingly.

Items measuring desire for L1 use
IIA3: English teachers should never use German in lessons.
IIA6: Students should be allowed to use German in English lessons, if they cannot express their point in English. *(reversed coding)*
IIA8: It can be beneficial, if English teachers use a certain amount of German in English lessons. *(reversed coding)*
IIA10: Students should never use German in English lessons.

Table 12: Items measuring students' desire for L1 use in general

Items IIA6 and IIA8 address similar ideas and hence they will be analysed together. Both items express some appreciation of limited and judicious use of L1 in ELT. Item IIA6 deals with L1 use by students, while item IIA8 addresses a similar idea for teachers. Below the descriptive statistics and the frequency table for these items are given.

		IIA6	IIA8
N	Valid	221	221
	Missing	0	0
Mean		2,49	2,52
Median		2,00	2,00
Mode		2	2
Standarddeviation		1,327	1,223
Variance		1,760	1,496
Range		5	5

		IIA6		IIA8	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	1	60	27,1	51	23,1
	2	68	30,8	66	29,9
	3	43	19,5	64	29,0
	4	28	12,7	20	9,0
	5	18	8,1	18	8,1
	6	4	1,8	2	,9
	Total	221	100,0	221	100,0

Table 13: Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Table for Items IIA6 & IIA8

Items IIA6 and IIA8 show very similar results with mean scores of 2,49 and 2,52 and a standard deviation of 1,327 and 1,223. For both items the mode is 2, which stands for 'agree' as coding was reversed for those two items to be able to conduct other analyses. Furthermore, the majority of the participants seems to 'strongly agree', 'agree' or 'rather agree' with some use of L1 by both teachers and students. In other words, participants do not seem to appreciate an English-Only approach. This observation can further be confirmed by results of items IIA3 and IIA10 that targeted at opinions about an English only approach. Descriptive statistics and frequencies for these two items are given in table 14.

		IIA3	IIA10
N	Valid	221	221
	Missing	0	0
Mean		2,81	2,67
Median		3,00	3,00
Mode		3	1
Standarddeviation		1,328	1,438
Variance		1,764	2,068
Range		5	5

		IIA3		IIA10	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	1	40	18,1	64	29,0
	2	57	25,8	42	19,0
	3	63	28,5	54	24,4
	4	35	15,8	31	14,0
	5	18	8,1	24	10,9
	6	8	3,6	6	2,7
	Total	221	100,0	221	100,0

Table 14: Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Table for Item IIA3 & IIA10

The mean for items IIA3 and IIA10 are very similar with 2,81 and 2,67 and they have the same median of 3 and a mode of 3 and 1. In essence it can be said that the majority of participants was on the 'disagree' side of the answer spectrum and hence they seem to rather object to a complete exclusion of the L1 in ELT.

In sum, participants of the present study seem to rather acknowledge some use of the L1 as beneficial and helpful and hence rather oppose a completely orthodox English-Only approach, according to the above-mentioned items. The reasons for this view will be discussed in the following section.

7.2.2 For which Reasons do Students consider L1 Use or the (almost) Exclusive Use of the TL Helpful?

There are multiple and seemingly endless reasons why one could appreciate or disfavour TL exclusiveness or some judicious use of the L1 in ELT. To get some insight into participants' reasons for their views, two open-ended questions were asked at the end of the questionnaire in this study. The coding and analysis of these two items are discussed in section 6.4.2. Below the frequencies of answers for the various coding categories are provided (figure 7) and interpreted. Additionally, several illustrative quotes from participants' answers will be discussed.
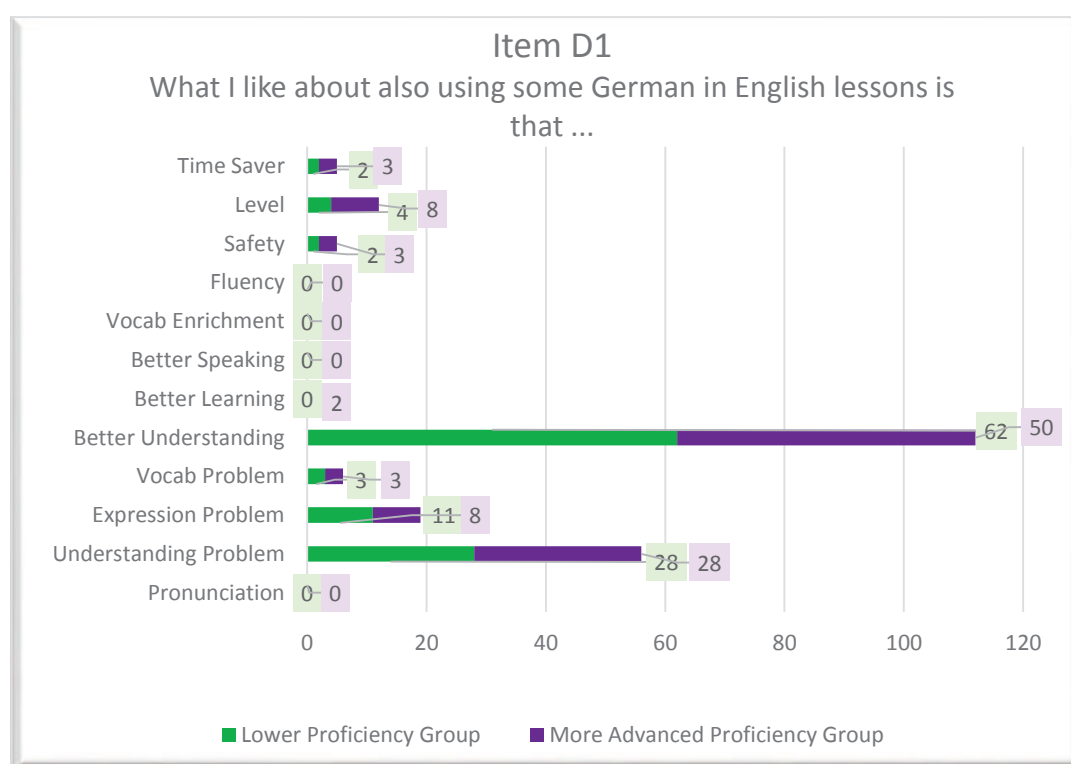
Figure 7: Quantities for Item D1 by Proficiency Group
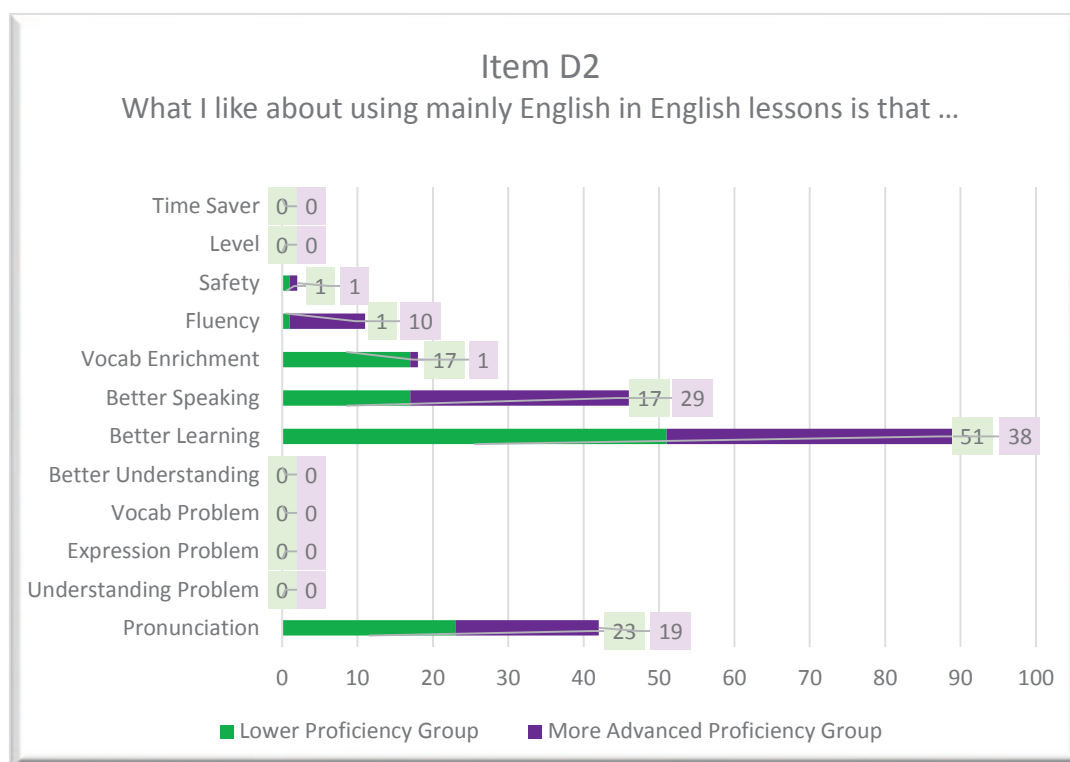
Figure 8: Quantities for Item D2 by Proficiency Group

Item D1 aimed at raising reasons for which students appreciate a certain amount of L1 to be used. By far the most frequently occurring reason is what I coded as 'better understanding'. Answers given in this category all explain that students feel they sometimes understand concepts, words or issues more fully and clearly, if they are discussed in the L1. Below are three examples of this category. In all the quotes from participants which will be reported here, 'U' signifies the 'lower proficiency group' and 'O' stands for the 'more advanced proficiency group'. Additionally, participants were consecutively numbered. The numbers exceed the actual number of participants, as I numbered questionnaires before I decided which questionnaires I had to discard (for details about the data clearing process see section 6.4)

> If our teacher explains grammar, we can really understand it. One does not understand it in English for there are too many unfamiliar words. (U #253)

> Because you understand certain things better. but only if it is really necessary (O participant Both #29)

> One can understand it more easily and I rather listen if one speaks German (U #233)

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All the above quotes share the same idea of the L1 leading to a deeper and faster understanding. However, all of them contain some other noteworthy aspects. In the first quote, the participant actually provides a reason why he or she prefers the L1 over the TL: the understanding process is disrupted if there are "too many unfamiliar words" according to participant 253. One could further argue that this again largely depends on the students' level of proficiency. If students are complete beginners or only little advanced, their vocabulary is bound to be limited and hence they will not be capable of understanding everything in the TL. More advanced students however, might be more likely to comprehend more complex explanations. In other words: While a discussion of an unfamiliar grammar point might fail with beginners, it might be possible with advanced students.

The second quote expresses a clear notion of the necessity to not rely on the L1 too heavily while at the same time acknowledging that sometimes recourse to the L1 can foster understanding. Participant 233 interestingly admits that he or she is more likely to pay attention if the teacher talks in the L1. I do not suggest to conclude from this idea that a teacher should decide to speak German to ensure students pay attention. However, the crucial point in my view is, to ensure that students can understand whatever the teacher says. There are multiple ways of ensuring the comprehensibility of teacher talk, only one of which is a short recourse to the L1. The most appropriate method to ensure comprehension depends on the teacher's expertise and informed decision in the individual situation. However, I feel that in certain cases switching to the L1 is one justified possibility that should neither be ignored nor discouraged.

A category that is very closely related to the idea of 'better understanding' is 'understanding problems', the category that had the second most frequent answers for question D1. The 56 answers that were given for this category all regard the L1 as a useful tool for clarification if there is some misunderstanding or a communication problem.

> If I don't understand something, my teacher can explain it to me in German. There is no use in explaining in English (or any other language) if one simply doesn't understand. (U #259)

The participant that gave the above answer seems to appreciate the L1 for an explanation if everything else failed. He or she also seems to be convinced that there

are cases when explanations or circumlocution in the TL is neither efficient nor effective. Participant 219 seems to agree on the usefulness of L1 use for clarification:

> If you cannot understand something in English you can switch to German and hence you learn how you can say it English in the future (O #219)

Furthermore he or she seems to regard an L1 explanation even beneficial for acquisition as one will learn how to express something in English you were not capable to say before. However, one always needs to pay attention not to rely on the L1 too heavily. Participant 194 seems to be well aware of this aspect:

> If there are discipline issues or to explain an unfamiliar word. but really only if nobody understands it in English. (O #194)

For the coding category 'expression problems' 19 instances could be found and hence this group constitutes the third biggest category. This category contains answers that express some failure on the side of the students to say what they intend to say in the TL. In these cases, some students regard it as helpful to seek assistance from the teacher in the L1. In that sense the category is somewhat related to the category 'vocabulary problems'. Probably any teacher has already heard a student ask 'What does x mean in English?'. This question is exactly what is meant by this category. The quotes below are illustration for the category 'expression problems':

> Because you can recourse to German if there is no other way and your teacher can help you express your point in English. (O #59)

> Because you also have a chance to express your point if you don't know how to say it in English (O #37)

Participant 37 points out another important aspect: If some judicious use of L1 is allowed in a language class, weaker students have a possibility to express their points and ideas who would otherwise probably remain silent at all. That is not to say students, especially at more advanced level should not be encouraged to express their ideas in the TL. Rather, the L1 can be a scaffolding tool and enhance participation of students overall.

The three most frequently occurring categories for item D2, the second open-ended question, are 'better learning', 'better speaking' and 'pronunciation' and will be discussed in turn. By far the most frequent category is 'better learning' with 89 instances altogether (51 for 'lower proficiency group' and 38 for 'more advanced proficiency group'). This category is especially interesting in contrast to the most

frequent one for item D1, which is 'better understanding'. In consequence one could say that according to the participants of this study, L1 use fosters understanding while TL use leads to 'better learning'. Here are two examples of the latter:

> The language proficiency increases as students learn a lot, if they have to paraphrase a word they don't know (O #88)

> Because you simply learn better that way! (O #223)

Participant 164 also stresses the necessity to learn English in English but he or she additionally raises another crucial point:

> Personally I learn English best from listening and reading (films, videos, books). (O #164)

While he or she acknowledges the importance of being surrounded by the English language for acquisition he or she mentions his/her learning from TL films and videos which will clearly only have very limited relevance in the language classroom as such. However, he or she raises an important idea. As was mentioned earlier, the idea of TL exclusiveness was largely influenced by Krashen and his idea about the decisiveness of comprehensible input. If one thinks of the very limited time a student generally spends in an English language classroom, it is almost impossible to rule out that the amount of input students get during class time is very limited even if one applies a complete TL exclusive approach. This restricted time was also observed by one of the participants in the study who talked about the advantage of using the TL:

> You get more used to the language and get a better feeling for it. However, this only works if you have English lessons more frequently. We only have 3 English lessons a week. (O #175)

Indeed, in Austrian secondary schools students have as little as three to four lessons of English a week. It is thus doubtful that even if all these lessons are entirely delivered in the TL, this amount of input is sufficient. Rather than making teachers and students a bad conscience for using certain amounts of L1 in their lessons, I would prefer to think of ideas how students can be encouraged to seek TL input outside the classroom. One possibility for this would definitely be to watch films or read books in English. In the days of Internet, YouTube and social media there seem to be endless possibilities to get in touch with the English language in ways that might even be specifically appealing and interesting for students, much more than English lessons. There are YouTube channels for almost any topic and watching these videos in English can improve language skills distinctively.

The second most frequently occurring category for item D2 is 'better speaking' with 46 answers altogether. Indeed, speaking skills will only improve if one actively practises them in the TL as several participants acknowledge:

> We should learn and practise how to really speak English and not only theory about how it should be spoken (U #204)

> You learn how to speak English. You will feel less inhibited to speak during the lessons. (O #147)

The second quote contains another argument concerning anxiety which is frequently raised by proponents of TL-exclusiveness. If students are used to speaking English (the TL) from early stages they will feel less inhibited to do so than if they are allowed to and frequently do recourse to the L1. This aspect has already been discussed in section 7.1.1 where H_1, which was related to anxiety and L1 use, was discussed. It was assumed that a teacher requiring students to exclusively use the TL in the classroom would positively correlate with students' feelings of anxiety. However, this hypothesis could not be confirmed on the basis of the present analysis.

Finally, the category of 'pronunciation' deserves specific attention, as it has not been discussed in the literature with regard to TL/L1 use very much. Similarly, I would have never thought of pronunciation to be an issue relevant to TL use in ELT. However, as many as 42 responses related to this idea were found in participants' answers in this study, as the example below demonstrates:

> Your pronunciation will get better and you learn words that only exist in English (U #200)

The fact that TL use improves students' pronunciation was already mentioned by Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney (2008: 268)

> While students prefer the use of the L1 to deal with vocabulary and grammar, they view exposure to the TL as helping the acquisition of another component of the medium: pronunciation. Many students see use of the L1 as a lost opportunity to acquire the phonetic features of the TL, alluding to a beneficial role of the TL to acquire pronunciation.

As figure 8 illustrates, different categories were found for items D1 and D2, which elicited advantages of judicious L1 use and almost exclusive use of TL respectively. While 'better understanding', 'expression problem' and 'understanding problem' were the categories that were found most frequently for item D1 in participants' answers, none of this categories applied to answers for item D2. The same hold true for item

D2 and categories 'vocab enrichment', 'better speaking', 'better learning' and 'pronunciation, but vice versa. It other words, those reasons that were reported as advantageous of one strategy (L1 use or TL exclusiveness) were not indicated as beneficial for the other one. That is to say both of these strategies have advantages though they might go into quite different directions. In consequence both L1 use and almost exclusive use of TL seem to be justifiable in the view of participants, though for different reasons and therefore probably in different situations. Finally, the best learning condition is always a highly individual question and hence one needs to pay attention to the specific learner, as one of the participants convincingly argued:

> It completely depends on the person, if he or she learns better from English or German. You cannot generalize. (O #163)
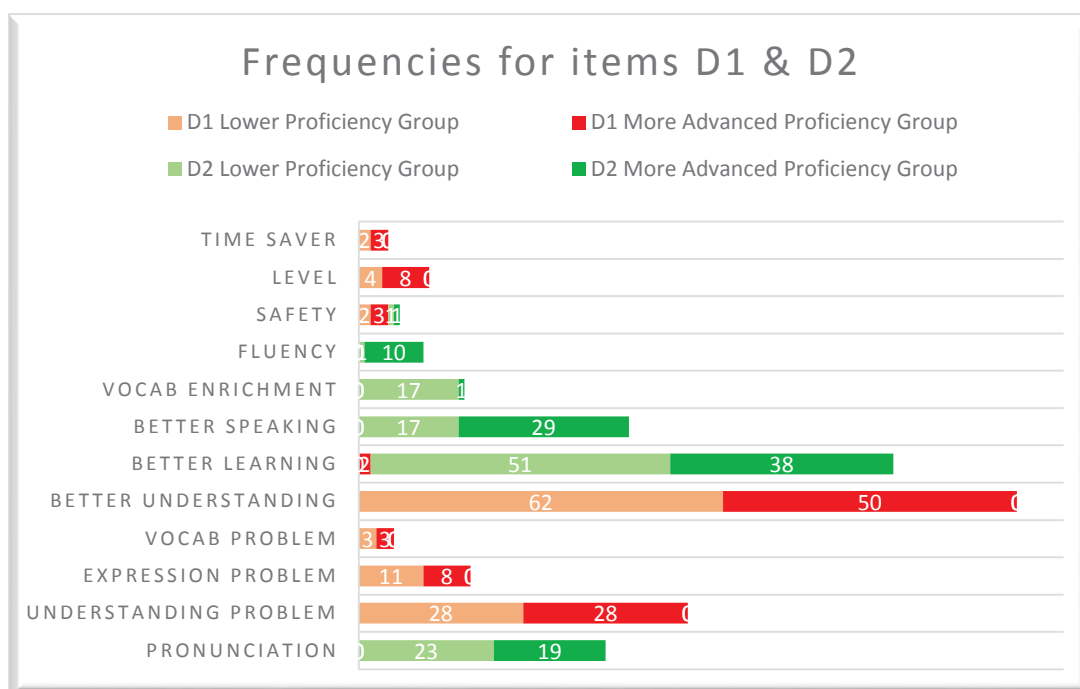

Figure 9: Frequencies for Items D1 & D2

7.2.3 In which Circumstances do Students Appreciate (or not Appreciate) L1 Use?

The third research question addresses the different situations in which students appreciate the use of L1. Item IIB aimed at this specific aspect. For this item multiple answers were possible and indeed likely.

Item IIB
I find it beneficial, if English teachers use German in the lesson (irrespective of what your own teacher actually does)
Tick all the applying answers! More than one answer possible!   ☐ disciplinary issues   ☐ explaining grammar   ☐ contrasting differences and similarities between German and English   ☐ to define the meaning of an unknown word   ☐ giving instructions for a task   ☐ organisational issues   ☐ other; please specify: _____

Table 15: Item IIB

Additionally to this item, items IIA2, IIA4, IIA5, IIA7 and IIA9 all dealt with situations of L1 use and the according opinions of the students. The relevant items are displayed below. It has to be noted that for items IIA2, IIA4 and IIA5 coding was reversed so that for all items, 6 stands for 'strongly agree' with TL use and 1 signifies 'strongly disagree' with TL use for the specific situation.

Items measuring situations of L1 use
IIA2: I understand grammar better, if it is explained in German. *(reversed coding)*
IIA4: It is better for an English teacher to give instructions for a task in German. *(reversed coding)*
IIA5: The best way to acquire a new word is from a German translation. *(reversed coding)*
IIA7: It is better and results and faster learning, if grammar is explained in English.
IIA9: The best way to acquire a new word is from an English definition.

Table 16: Items Measuring Situations of L1 Use

To answer the third research question, descriptive statistics for the above-mentioned items will be discussed and compared. Illustrative quotes from answers to the open-ended questions or from informal conversation with teachers will be added to round off the picture.

As was mentioned before, multiple answers could be selected for item IIB, hence every answer option that was chosen by each candidate was coded 1 and those that were not

ticked were coded 0. The number of participants that selected each answer option are illustrated in figure 9.

Desired Situations of L1 Use

Option	Value
a) discipline	48
b) grammar	131
c) contrastive analysis	114
d) vocabulary	113
e) instructions	48
f) organisation	152
g) other	18
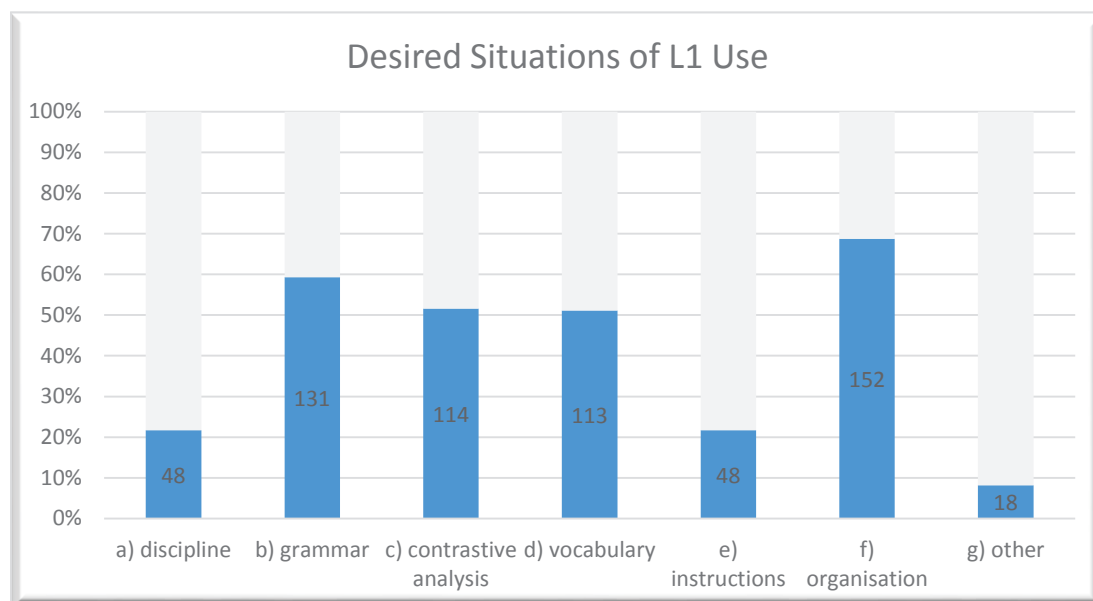
Figure 10: Desired Situations of L1 Use

The clear majority of the participants prefer the L1 to be used for grammar, contrastive analysis, vocabulary and organisational issues. Only a comparably small percentage, however, thinks that L1 use is helpful for disciplinary issues or giving instructions. The most prominent answer option was 'organisation' which might be due to the fact that these issues are considered off-topic and hence they seem not to belong to the English teaching process. Another explanation could be that organisational issues might contain very decisive and important information which students want to ensure to understand and hence prefer to be delivered in their L1. The following quote of one participant seems to support this view:

> If it comes to organisational issues. That way you can be sure really everybody has understood it properly (O #165)

If one compares the answers to item IIB of the 'lower proficiency group' and the 'more advanced proficiency group' a similar picture derives, with some interesting differences, however.
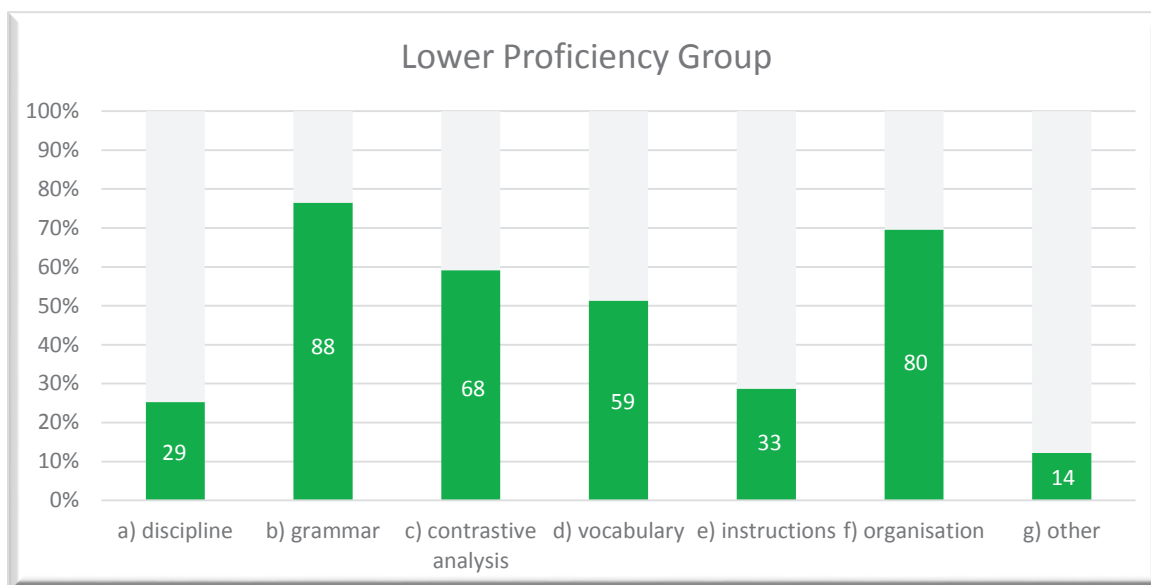
Figure 11: Desired Situations of L1 Use for 'Lower Proficiency Group'
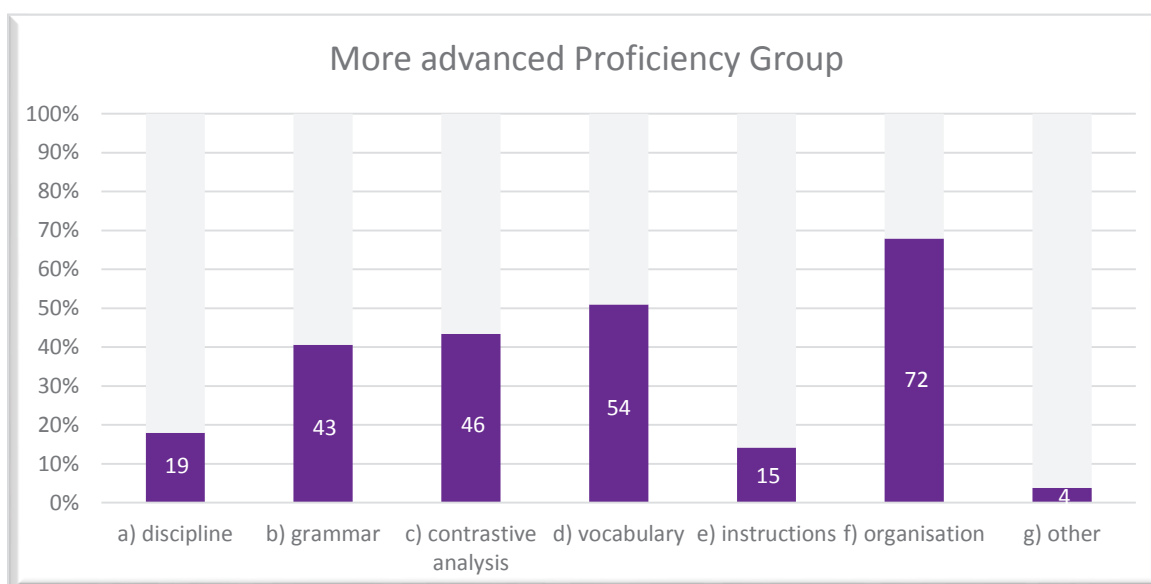
Figure 12: Desired Situations of L1 Use for 'More Advanced Proficiency Group'

Within both groups the same answer options are most often selected (b, c, d and f). However, if one considers the percentage of participants by group that chose the individual answer options, a clear difference between the two proficiency levels becomes apparent: 76,5% of participants in the 'lower proficiency group' selected answer option b opposed to 40,6% within the 'more advanced proficiency group' and 59,1% against 43,4% for option c. This suggests that L1 use for explaining grammar or for contrastive analysis is more important for the 'lower proficiency group' in this investigation. For options d and f, the image is about equal across the proficiency groups, with 51,3% against 50,9% for option d and 69,6% against 67,9% for option f.

This in turn would suggest that within the present sample students prefer the L1 for vocabulary and organisational issues irrespective of their levels.

More generally speaking, if one compares the total amount of answer options selected by the two proficiency groups, a clear difference becomes apparent: As figure 12 illustrates, participants of the 'lower proficiency group' ticked 46% of all the answers options for item IIB, opposed to 37 % for the 'more advanced proficiency group'.
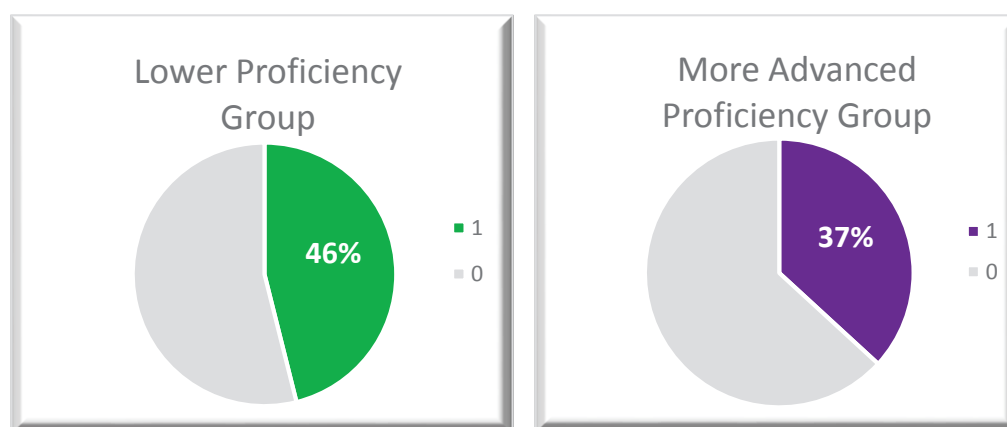
Figure 13: Percentage Ticked of Total Number of Answer Options for Item IIB by Proficiency Group

This tendency suggests that for the participants of the 'lower proficiency group', L1 use on the whole is more important than for the 'more advanced proficiency group'. Even though the present data is not generalizable, the observed tendency is in line with the findings from hypothesis 2, which showed a difference in the amount of L1 use according to proficiency level. Moreover, it can be added that only four participants of the entire sample did not select a single answer option for item IIB (three of which were from the 'more advanced proficiency group'). This suggests that the vast majority of the participants sees a point in using the L1 at least in one situation. Again this may be regarded as an argument against the exclusive use of the TL in the view of the students.

<u>Vocabulary</u>

As was mentioned above, students seem to consider L1 use appropriate for vocabulary issues irrespective of proficiency level according to item IIB. This relative preference agrees with findings from a study by Prince (1996, see section 4.4.1 for details), which found that vocabulary acquisition was more effective if students of two different proficiency levels used TL/L1 equivalents as opposed to circumlocution and paraphrase. Similarly, in a study by Tian and Macaro students who had received

vocabulary instruction by means of L1 translation outperformed participants who had been instructed with the help of context and paraphrase in acquisition tests. Overall, one might assume that L1 is especially useful and required for issues of vocabulary acquisition regardless of students' proficiency. However, this assumption in a way contradicts previous findings by Lee and Macaro (2013: 889) who found that "as L2 proficiency increases, the conceptual links between the L2 and its associated concepts are strengthened, leading to less reliance on L1 equivalents".

If one considers the two other items in the present study that aimed at L1 use for vocabulary issues, a somewhat confusing picture derives. Descriptive statistics for items IIA5 and IIA9 are illustrated in figure 13. These two items basically aimed at the same target but were formulated in the opposite direction, hence coding for item IIA5 was reversed. Consequently, 6 signifies 'strongly agree' that vocabulary should be taught in the TL. It is therefore surprising that the results for these two items clearly diverge. This may be caused by two reasons. First, the items may not be constructed precisely enough, hence, they do not really aim at the same thing. On the other hand, these inconsistencies might be caused by some insecurities on the part of the participants. In other words, participants might be unsure about the appropriate language to teach vocabulary and might in fact hold conflicting views. Either ways, the data does not allow for any generalization and can do little more than point to areas that might be interesting to further pursue in future research.
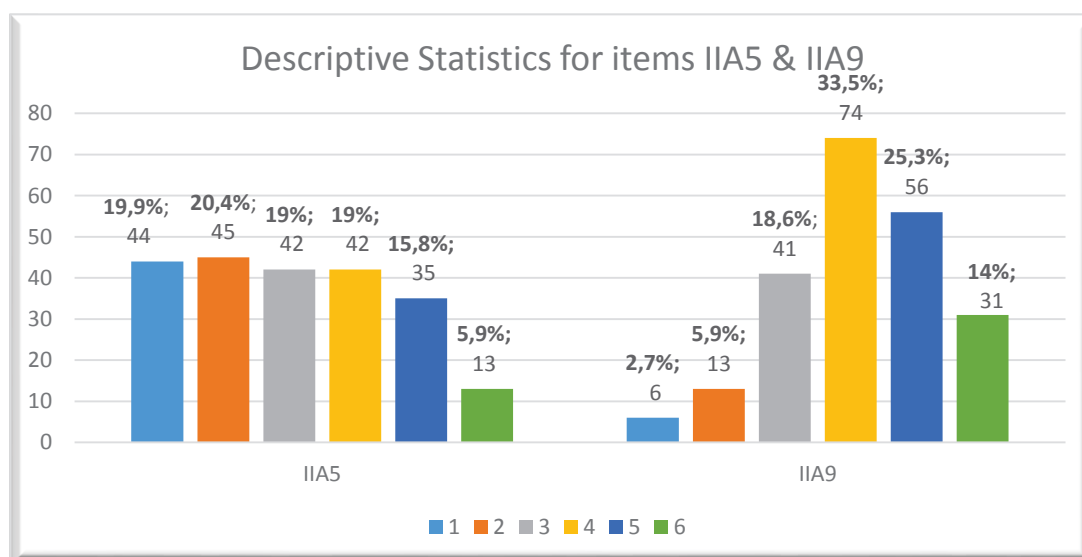

Figure 14: Items Measuring Desire to Use L1 for Vocabulary Instruction

The three quotes from the open-ended questions also suggest that participants appreciate L1 use for discussing unfamiliar words:

> Because you cannot explain an English term in English if you do not know the words of the explanation either (O #76)

> It sometimes better to give a German translation of a word because a paraphrase might again contain words that are unknown (O #37)

> To clarify any misunderstandings. Especially for very difficult terms, it can be quite challenging to find a simple synonym. Therefore it is extremely helpful, if the teacher provides the German translation. (O #88)

In all the quotes, participants provide clear arguments why they welcome L1 equivalents for unfamiliar words. In the first two quotes, participants feel that paraphrase might not be effective, if one fails to understand the words in the paraphrase. As has been mentioned already, this aspect is clearly contingent on students' proficiency level. The participant in the third quote argues that he or she sometimes find it too challenging to come up with an appropriate definition or alternative terms.

In sum, it can be said that vocabulary is an issue that frequently raises discussion about the appropriate language choice. Participants of the present study across all levels seem to generally prefer the L1 to be used for this purpose, even though some insecurity about the matter seems to be at hand.

Grammar

The answer option that was selected second most frequently for item IIB was 'grammar' with 131 which constitutes the clear majority of 59,3%. Quite different from the results for vocabulary, more than twice as many participants from the 'lower proficiency group' selected 'grammar' than from the 'more advanced proficiency group'. This suggests that the reliance on the L1 to understand grammar is more important for lower proficiency learners, though one cannot generalize from this data. It might be possible that this difference results from the fact that with regard to grammar as opposed to vocabulary the conceptual links between L1 and TL are less strong.

One of the teachers to whom the author talked reported to generally only speak English. When asked about her practise in a first form she said:

> I only speak English there as well. If they are used to it from the beginning, it usually works quite well. Only if I am explaining grammar, I do this in German. (Teacher 1, school E, personal communication, 26.02.2015)

The above quote indicates that grammar is perceived as requiring L1 use also from teachers' point of view, and in this case even by a teacher who generally rather takes a TL exclusiveness position. A second teacher seemed to share this view:

> If it comes to grammar, I do this almost exclusively in German. If I do it in English my feeling is that the students, especially the weaker ones who would need the explanations most, understand nothing. (Teacher 2, school D, personal communication, 23.02.2015)

This teacher agrees on the necessity to recur to German for discussing grammatical issues. Furthermore, she has a sensitivity to the different needs of learners with different abilities and proficiency levels.

Finally, a quote from the open-ended questions shows agreement on usefulness to explain grammar in the L1:

> If our teacher explains grammar, we can really understand it. One does not understand it in English for there are too many unfamiliar words. (U #253)

Contrastive analysis

The conscious comparison of features of the L1 and the TL was selected third most frequently by participants for item IIB (114 of 221 participants). There seems to be not much difference between the two proficiency groups regarding this particular situation of L1 use, as 68 participants from the 'lower proficiency group' considered it appropriate for L1 use, opposed to 46 in the 'more advanced proficiency group'. Even though scholars and theorists hold controversial views on the usefulness of contrastive analysis, a considerable number of students in the present analysis seem to appreciate a certain amount of comparison between the two languages. Additionally, according to the reported data by the participants, teachers seem to still use contrastive analysis to some extent as 108 of the participants selected 'contrastive analysis' for item IB (=My English teacher speaks German in the following situations (in English lessons). Again it seems that teachers use contrastive analysis more in lower forms than with advanced students (70 participants of 'lower proficiency group' ticked 'contrastive analysis' for IB, 38 of 'more advanced proficiency group').

<u>Discipline</u>

It is interesting to note that a comparably small amount of participants seems to consider L1 use appropriate for disciplinary issues. 48 participants of the entire sample ticked 'discipline issues' for item IIB which constitutes around 20%. Again the figure is slightly higher for the 'lower proficiency group' (29 opposed to 19 participants). This finding seems to be somewhat in contradiction to the perception of one of the teachers to whom the researcher talked informally while the participants filled out the questionnaire. It has to be noted that the quote below is rather a paraphrase as the content of the teacher's comment is relevant here, than a verbatim quote. The teacher reported:

> We have a teacher in our school who is a Native Speaker of English and she attempted to talk English-Only as much as possible in her second form. In consequence she had enormous problems with students' discipline in that class and felt she could not really handle them using English. Ultimately she gave up and decided to speak German if there were disciplinary issues. She feels it got a lot better now. I made similar experiences with my classes and if I scold students I rather use German. It is my feeling that especially if students don't understand they switch off easily. Some of them perceive my talking in English rather like some background noise. (Teacher 3, school E, personal communication, 25.02.2015)

This teacher's experience here indicates that TL exclusiveness was not possible in some of her classes. In the opinion of the researcher there is a crucial point here: In some classes dealing with disciplinary problems might work well in the TL while other classes switch off if the teacher scolds in English. It is the teacher's responsibility, therefore, to find out what works best in which class and adapt practise accordingly. Apart from a sensitivity to students' level, which is always crucial for decisions about language choice, this might even mean that disciplining in the TL works well in one second form but prove impossible in a different second form.

Instruction

The results for L1 use for 'giving instructions' are somewhat surprising at first glance, especially if one compares them to the high numbers of participants that desired L1 for organisational issues. From all 221 participants only 48 selected answer option e for item IIB (33 for 'lower proficiency group', 15 for 'more advanced proficiency group' which constitutes 28,7% and 14,2% of the respective groups), which is a bit contrary to what one might expect. These findings agree with results from item IIA4 which aimed at preferred language choice for instruction.
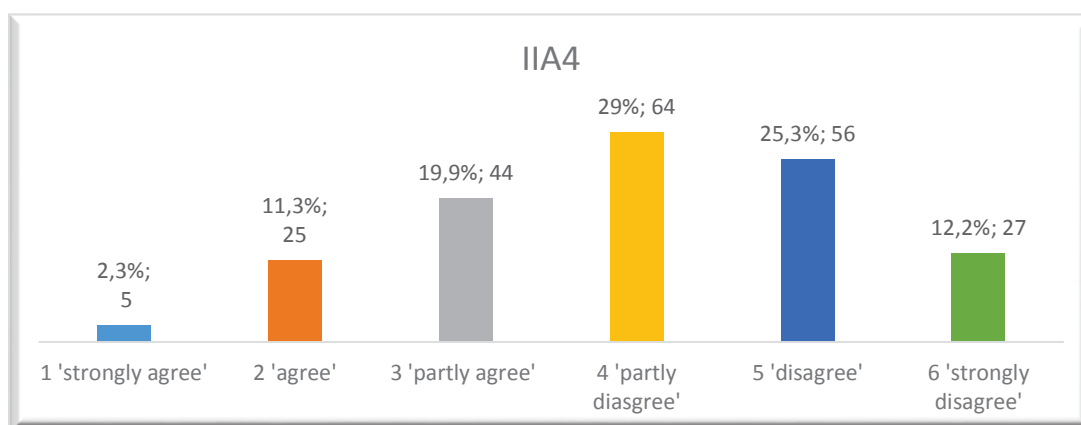
*Figure 15: Descriptive Statistics for Item IIA4 'It is better for an English teacher to give instructions for a task in German.'*

As figure 14 illustrates the majority of the participants partly disagrees, disagrees or strongly disagrees with the idea that instructions should be given in the L1. Hence, it can be concluded that item IIA4 confirms that participants preferred instructions to be given in the TL.
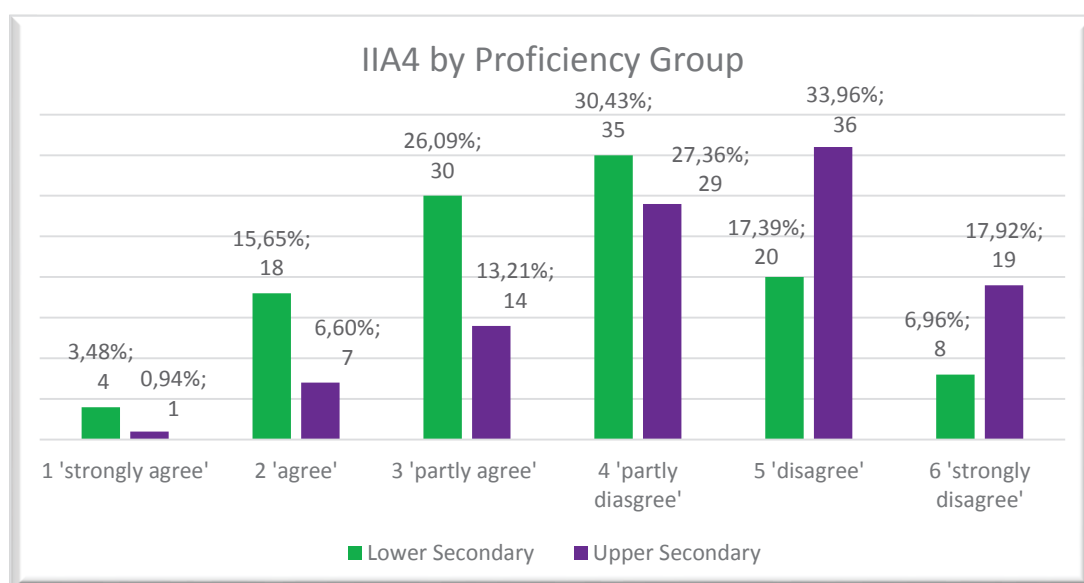
As figure 15 shows, the relative preference for instructions in the TL persists across the two proficiency groups. However, for the 'lower proficiency group' more participants agreed or partly agreed with instructions being given in the L1. This seems quite logical as the lower the proficiency level, the more students rely on the L1, as has been pointed out before. The comparably high acceptance of instructions being delivered in the TL by both proficiency groups might be due to the fact that instructions contains many formulaic expressions in nature. It has been argued by scholars that instructions are to be given in the TL as these phrases are quite predetermined and can be acquired easily. Furthermore, instructions in the TL have been regarded to be welcome opportunities for real and authentic communication in the TL and hence make the TL not only the aim of teaching but also the medium of communication. If a task is very complex or unfamiliar to the students, it might still be more effective to explain it in the students' L1 and leave more time for the task itself. The benefit of saving time, of course has to be weighed against the benefit of trying to explain a task in the TL and consequently have the students decode the utterances, even if this requires several attempt of rephrase. It lies in the expertise and ability to make informed decisions of the individual teacher to decide what is more appropriate in the unique and concrete situation. Finally, I can see little wrong about giving simple instructions in the TL also with low-level learners and hence practise simple imperatives like 'Open your books!' or 'Read this text!'.

Organisation

Quite different from giving instructions, a considerable amount of participants appreciate L1 use for organisational issues. From the entire sample 152 participants selected 'organisational issues' for item IIB (80 from the 'lower proficiency group' and 72 from the 'more advanced proficiency group'). These relatively high figures might be explained by a desire to fully comprehend the content of 'organisational issues' as they tend to be considered especially important. Examples of organisational issues might be information about a test, an excursion or time table changes. The participants' strong desire to have organisational matters delivered in their L1 coincides with the view of one of the teachers', whose students took part in the study. Talking to the researcher this teacher said

> Generally I always use English also in lower secondary. Only if it is something really important like information about the test I use German. Sometimes if I really want to make sure that everybody understands, I say a sentence in English and then I repeat it in German.
> (Teacher 1, school E, personal communication 26.02.2015)

Again the experience of the teacher expresses a strong sensitivity to the individual situation. If a teacher has the impression the information is highly relevant and considers it to be important to be understood in detail, he or she might be well advised to switch to the L1, especially if students TL resources are still limited. Additionally, saying something in the TL and repeating it in the L1 can be a very effective strategy to ensure comprehension.

Below quotes from the open-ended questions are given. In these participants express a desire to have organisational issues delivered in the L1 and hence agree with the above-quoted teacher:

> For important things that have nothing do to with the lesson to make sure really everybody understand without useless repetition (O #153)

> Students really understand a task. that you can understand organisational issues better. (U #152)

In sum, it can be said that participants of the present study consider L1 use more appropriate in some situations of teaching than in others. Participants of both proficiency groups were found to appreciate L1 use especially for discussing vocabulary, grammar and organisational issues. Only a small proportion, however, indicated to welcome L1 use for giving instructions or regarding discipline.

7.2.4 Which Amount of L1 do Students Consider Appropriate?

The appropriate amount of L1 use in ELT, hence, to find a balance between using students L1 and the TL, is a complex and challenging issue. It has to be mentioned that this question only arises if one generally accepts that students' L1 has a rightful place in ELT, a position the author of this thesis takes, as has been mentioned before. The question of the appropriate amount was discussed in detail in section 4.2. with reference to previous studies. Moreover, this aspect is closely related to H_2 and H_3 which dealt with students' reported and desired amounts of L1 use (see section 7.1.2 and 7.1.3).

To determine which amount participants in the present investigation considered appropriate, items IIC1 and IIC2 have to be considered more closely. These items asked how often students and teachers respectively should use the L1 in English lessons. The descriptive statistics for the two items are shown in table 17.

		IIC1	IIC2
N	Valid	221	221
	Missing	0	0
Mean		4,738	4,824
Median		5,000	5,000
Mode		5,0	5,0

		IIC1		IIC2	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	2,0	0	0	1	,5
	3,0	7	3,2	7	3,2
	4,0	52	23,3	38	17,2
	5,0	154	69,7	159	71,9
	6,0	8	3,6	16	7,2
	Total	221	100	221	100,0

Table 17: Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Table for items IIC1 & IIC2

It has to be kept in mind that the coding was reversed for these items. Hence, six stands for use the L1 'never' and accordingly always the TL. Equally, one signifies using the L1 'always' and hence 'never' using the TL. Furthermore, it should be mentioned again, that item IIC1 asked about the language use of teachers and item IIC2 concerned students' language choice.

On the whole, it can be said that students opted for rather large amounts of TL use by both teachers and students, as one was never chosen in both questions and options two and three together only constitute only 3,2 % of all participants' answers for item IIC1 and 5,7% for item IIC2.

Another very interesting observation can be made if one considers the mode, which is the option that was most often chosen. For both questions, 5 was the mode, which signifies students and teachers should use the TL 'almost always'. This option was chosen by 154 participants for item IIC1 and by 159 for item IIC2, which constitutes a clear majority in both cases. The relative dominance of the large amounts of TL use logically results in the rather high mean scores of 4,738 and 4,824. The tendency

towards the 'high answer options' and the quite outstanding dominance of option 5 are illustrated in figure 16:
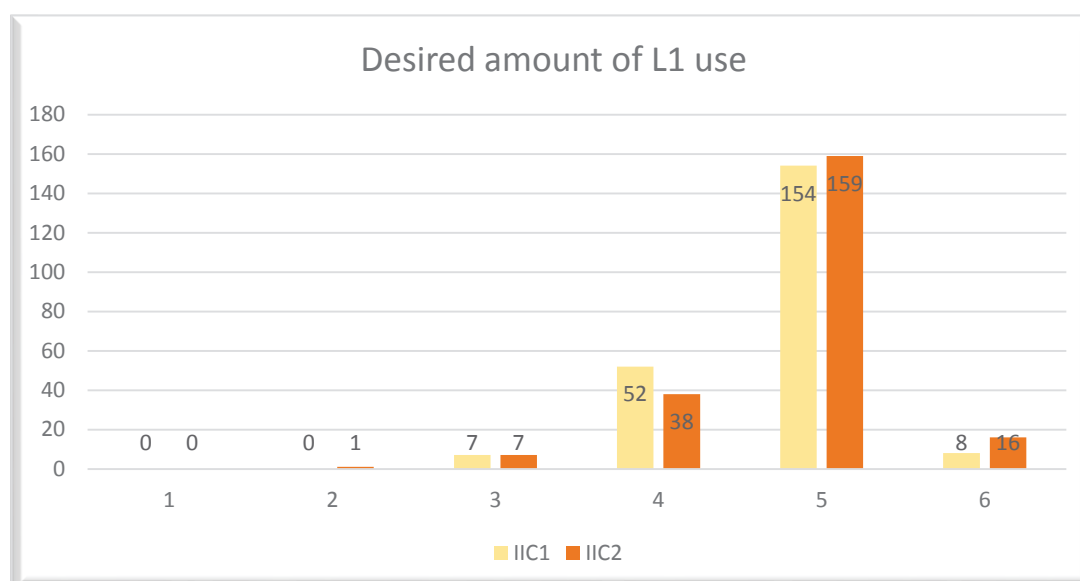
Figure 17: Desire for L1 use

Even though there seems to be a preference for rather large amounts of TL use among participants in the present sample, options 5 and 6 are worth a closer look. By far more participants selected option 5 than those who chose 6. Hence, it can be argued that according to the present analysis, participants prefer an 'almost exclusive' use of the TL but rather do not desire an exclusive use of the TL, which would require a total ban of the L1. Even though this analysis is descriptive in nature and therefore does not allow for generalizations above the present sample, the observation seems worth discussing and raises an important point. It would be definitely interesting to see if similar observations can be made in other samples and an investigation on this aspect that uses a method that allows for generalization would be appealing for some future research.

It is moreover noteworthy, that an almost identical picture derives, if one considers the descriptive statistics for items IIC1 and IIC2 for the 'lower proficiency group' and the 'more advanced proficiency group' in turn, as the illustrations below demonstrate:

LowerMoreAdvanced Proficiency Group			IIC1	IIC2
0	N	Valid	115	115
		Missing	0	0
	Mean		4,583	4,687
	Median		5,000	5,000
	Mode		5,0	5,0
1	N	Valid	106	106
		Missing	0	0
	Mean		4,906	4,972
	Median		5,000	5,000
	Mode		5,0	5,0

			IIC1		IIC1	
LowerMoreAdvanced Proficiency Group			Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
0	Valid	2,0	0	0	1	,9
		3,0	6	5,2	5	4,3
		4,0	38	33,0	29	25,2
		5,0	69	60,0	74	64,3
		6,0	2	1,7	6	5,2
		Total	115	100,0	115	100,0
1	Valid	3,0	1	,9	2	1,9
		4,0	14	13,2	9	8,5
		5,0	85	80,2	85	80,2
		6,0	6	5,7	10	9,5
		Total	106	100,0	106	100,0

Table 18: Descriptive Statistics and Frequency Table for Items IIC1 and IIC2 by Proficiency Group

From the above table one can see that for both items and in both proficiency groups, answer option 5 was by far chosen most frequently, as the figure below illustrates. Therefore, it can be concluded that in the present sample, the majority of the participants whether from the 'lower proficiency group' or from the 'more advanced proficiency group' believe that students and teachers should 'almost always' use the TL in ELT. This tendency coincides with the position taken by the author of this thesis who suggests that it is helpful and sensible to use a limited amount of L1. At the same time it is undoubtedly essential not to rely on the L1 too excessively and to aim for much conversation in the TL.
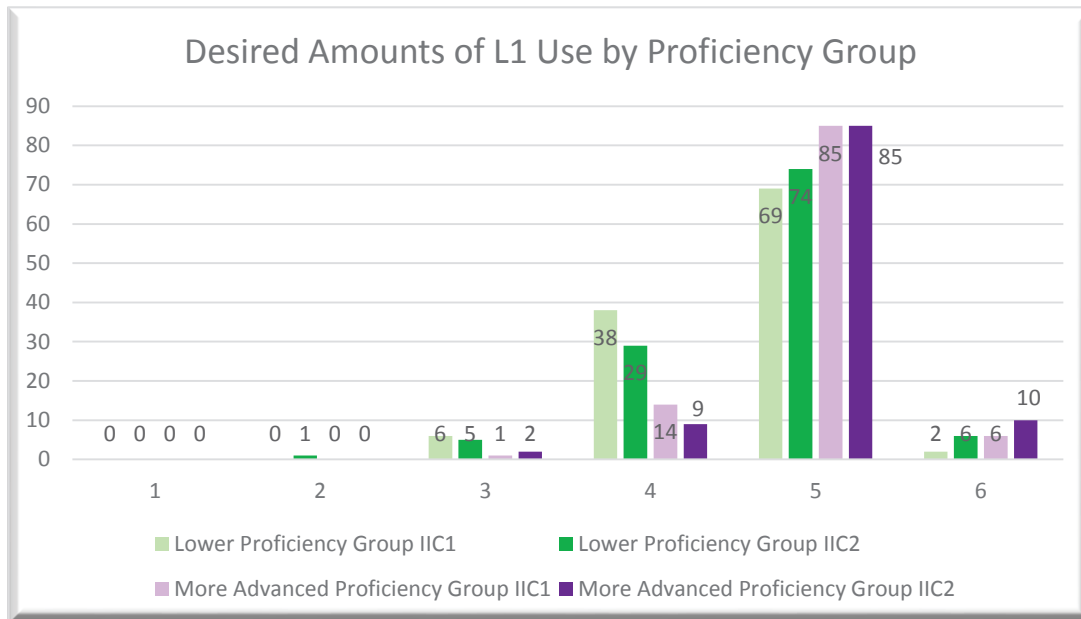
Figure 18: Desired Amounts of L1 Use by Proficiency Group

Another interesting observation that can be made from figure 17 should be mentioned: Even though both groups show a strong preference for answer option 5, more participants from the 'more advanced proficiency group' chose 5 than from the 'lower proficiency group'. Likewise, option 4 was more frequently chosen within the 'lower proficiency group'. This observable tendency agrees with the findings from H_3 which found that generally speaking students with lower proficiency show a stronger desire for larger amounts of L1 use.

In sum and to answer the research questions it can be said that generally speaking students seem to consider high amounts of TL use appropriate and hence only limited amounts of L1 use. However, they seem to prefer the use of some limited L1 use over an exclusive reliance on the TL.

7.3 Further Observations and Comments

In the course of the analysis I made a number of other observations and came across interesting ideas that derived from the present data. These are reported in this section.

First, items IC2 and IC3 reveal an interesting idea, if one considers them in comparison. Item IC2 required the participants to estimate the amount of English other students speak in relation to their entire oral contributions. For item IC3, participants were asked to estimate the same for their own language choice. Answer options ranged

from 1 (=never) to 6 (=always). The descriptive statistics and the frequencies for items IC2 and IC3 are given in table 19 and are illustrated in figure 18.

		IC2	IC3
N	Valid	221	221
	Missing	0	0
Mean		3,964	4,43
Standard Error of the Mean		,0601	,067
Median		4,000	5,00
Mode		4,0	5
Standard Deviation		,8937	,996
Variance		,799	,992
Range		4,0	4
Minimum		2,0	2
Maximum		6,0	6

Table 19: Descriptive Statistics for Items IC2 & IC3

As one can see above, item IC3 shows a higher mean score than item IC2. Equally, the mode is 5 for item IC3 and 4 for item IC2, which suggests that very broadly speaking, participants estimate to use more English themselves than their colleagues.
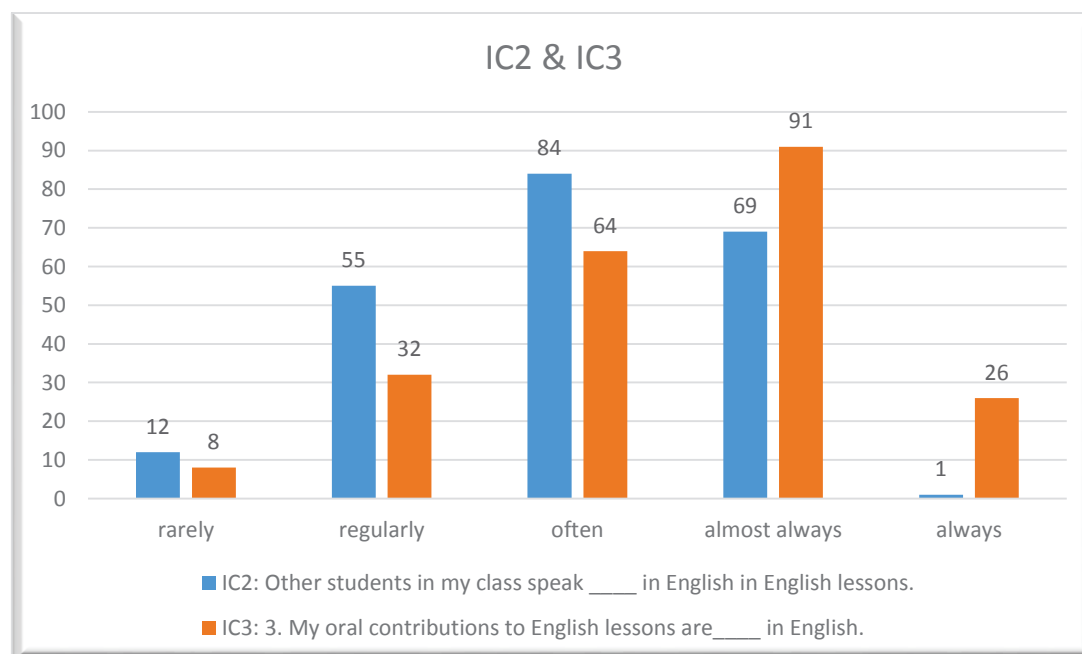

Figure 19: Illustration for Items IC2 & IC3

To further investigate this observation I distracted individual values for item IC2 from those for item IC3 and counted the frequencies, which are shown in figure 19.
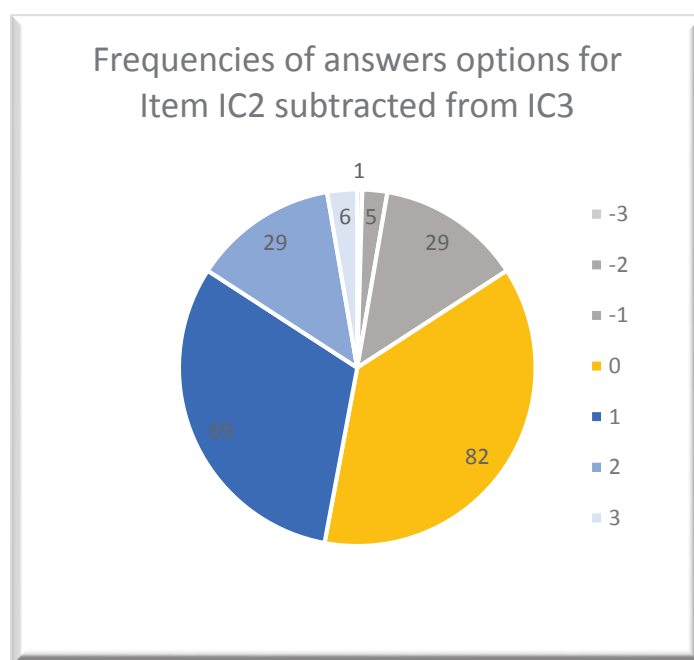
Figure 20: Answer Options for Items IC2 & IC3 compared

Hence, a negative value above signifies participants who attributed themselves a lower amount of TL use, while a positive value stands for participants who reported to use more TL than their colleagues. The value 0, finally, means participants attributed themselves the same amount as others. As the above figure shows, almost half of the participants showed a positive value, hence they attributed themselves higher amounts of TL use than their peers. 82 participants which constitutes 37,1% estimated themselves and others at equal amount. Only a minority reported to use fewer English than their colleagues.

From the above data it can be concluded that participants in the present analysis tended to attribute themselves higher amounts of TL use than their peers. It might be assumed that this is due to the fact that speaking in the TL is perceived as something positive and desirable by students. Presumably, participants had a desire to report themselves better than others.

Even though this argument is based on descriptive statistics and rather vague in nature, it shows an interesting tendency among the present participants. Furthermore, the observation expresses the bias that can result from self-reported data and the necessity to therefore treat it with care.

<u>Home Language</u>

As was already mentioned in section A 4.7, students' native language backgrounds which tend to be more and more mixed in those days, certainly have an impact on the issue of L1 use in ELT. Some scholars who favour an English-Only approach have argued that one puts students of different language backgrounds at disadvantage if one uses anything different from the TL in language teaching. Focus and restrictions of the present investigation do not allow for an in-depth investigation of this aspect. However, some short comments seem appropriate. The item that elicited students' language background was not very precise and it is hence not possible to determine which language participants used in their family and what they consider their first language. Therefore, I decided to group participants the following way: Participants who reported to use any language other than German (the official and dominant language in the research context) at home were put into the 'more than one L1 group', coded as 0 below. The other group, coded as 1, consisted of participants who only speak German as their native language and use no other language with their family. Three participants who did not specify their language background were excluded from this analysis.

On the basis of this group variable two test were run. First, a t-test was run to compare the mean scores for the variable 'Desire for L1 use' of the two groups. As the table below shows, no statistically significant difference was found. It can therefore be concluded that there is no difference in the desire for L1 use between the two language background groups according to the present investigation.

	L1_at home	H	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error Mean
Desire_L1_use	1	128	42,152	9,6266	,8509
	0	90	41,856	8,1065	,8545

		Levenes Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Desire_L1_use	Equal variances assumed	1,665	,198	,239	216	,811	,2968	1,2424	-2,1519	2,7455
	Equal variances not assumed			,246	208,999	,806	,2968	1,2059	-2,0805	2,6740

Table 20: Group Statistics and t-test for 'Desire for L1 use' for 'More than one L1' and 'German exclusive'

Secondly, data was split by the above mentioned group variable and a correlation analysis for the two variables 'Anxiety' and 'TL-exclusiveness' was run for each sub-group in turn (for details about the variables see section 7.1.1). Results are given in table 21 below.

L1_Daheim			TL_required	Anxiety_2_korrekt
0	TL_required	Pearson-Correlation	1	-,230[*]
		Sig. (2-tailed)		,029
		N	90	90
	Anxiety	Pearson-Correlation	-,230[*]	1
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,029	
		N	90	90
1	TL_required	Pearson-Correlation	1	-,030
		Sig. (2-tailed)		,737
		N	128	128
	Anxiety	Pearson-Correlation	-,030	1
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,737	
		N	128	128

*. Correlation is significant at 0,05 (two-tailed).

Table 21: Correlations for Variables 'TL required' and 'Anxiety' by Language Background

The correlation between the two variables was significant for the 'more than one L1' group (p-value = $< 0,05$) while no significant results could be found for the

'monolingual group'. As for the analysis for the entire sample (see section 7.1.1 for details), the correlation was negative, which means a high level of 'Anxiety' correlates with a low level of TL requirement and vice versa. It is difficult to judge why results are significant for one group but not for the other. It is especially surprising as the group that had fewer participants showed a significant result, while the larger one did not. Anyway, both samples are large enough to receive statistically justified results. One could speculate that the significant correlation for the 'more than one L1' group supports the argument that students of different L1 backgrounds might not feel comfortable with too much L1 use, if this is not their own 'strong' language but rather the dominant language in the educational system. However, this idea is extremely speculative and could be counter argued by the fact that the 'desire for L1 use' did not show significant differences between the different L1 groups (see t-test above). In any case, the issue of mixed and various L1 backgrounds clearly has a close connection to language choice in ELT and it would be highly interesting to investigate this relationship, its impact on teaching practises for instance in secondary school contexts and students' preferences in some future project with particular attention to this aspect.

Gender

To determine, if a gender difference can be found as regards preferences about L1 use and the correlation between 'Anxiety' and 'TL-Exclusiveness', the same analysis that were done for Home Language (see above) were also run for Gender. Hence, a t-test was run to see if participants with different Gender showed different amounts of 'Desire for L1 use'. As the table below illustrates, no statistically significant difference could be found.

	Sex	H	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error Mean
Desire_L1_use	1	85	41,559	9,4281	1,0226
	0	136	42,324	8,8691	,7605

		Levenes Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Desire_L1_use	Equal variances assumed	1,950	,164	-,609	219	,543	-,7647	1,2565	-3,2411	1,7117
	Equal variances not assumed			-,600	170,215	,549	-,7647	1,2744	-3,2804	1,7510

Table 22: Group Statistics and t-test for 'Desire of L1 use' between Gender

Secondly, participants were grouped by Gender and a correlation analysis for the parameters 'TL-exclusiveness' and 'Anxiety' was run for each group in turn. No statistically significant correlation was determined for either groups as table 23 illustrates.

Sex			TL_required	Anxiety
0	TL_required	Pearson-Correlation	1	-,129
		Sig. (2-tailed)		,136
		N	136	136
	Anxiety	Pearson-Correlation	-,129	1
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,136	
		N	136	136
1	TL_required	Pearson-Correlation	1	-,101
		Sig. (2-tailed)		,357
		N	85	85
	Anxiety	Pearson-Correlation	-,101	1
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,357	
		N	85	85

Table 23: Correlation of 'Anxiety' and 'TL-required' by Gender

On the basis of the present data it thus has to be concluded that there is no Gender difference regarding preferences of L1 use and the relationship between 'required TL-exclusiveness' and 'Anxiety'

8   Limitations and Outlook

Like any empirical investigation, the present study has some limitations that should be mentioned and are hence discussed below. First and foremost, the data which was collected and used was self-reported and thus needs to be treated with care. Even though students can be generally assumed to have a sound understanding of the matter and expressed their views honestly, the reported amounts of L1 use are not the amounts that actually occur(ed) in the classrooms but rather those that participants think do occur. Therefore, a future study that uses a different method to measure amounts of L1 use would be welcome. Data might be collected by means of observation, recording or video-taping to get more accurate data as regards amounts of L1 use.

Secondly, time and resource restrictions of the present investigation did not allow for a proficiency test to be administered to allocate students to different proficiency groups. The two groups that were compared were based on students' class level, which indeed not necessarily coincides with students' actual proficiency level. However, it seemed reasonable to group participants that way, as students in schools will often be in very heterogeneous groups. This fact puts a further challenge on teachers and hence no real general recommendations for the appropriate amounts of L1 use seem reasonable. Anything that goes beyond some directives or guidelines to consider is contingent to the individual group of learners. Similarly, it cannot be accurately determined how much participants of the two proficiency groups in fact differed in their actual language level. In consequence, they might be very close, even though some difference is likely.

Therefore, even though participants of different levels were included, they might have been all too advanced to be generally afraid to use the TL. As was mentioned before, no 'real' beginners could be included for the design of the research instrument. Nevertheless, it would be specifically interesting to investigate the views and perceptions of real beginners to see if results are different. A future investigation that uses a method that allows to elicit data from younger learners, hence beginners would be appealing. Alternatively, one might want to draw on data from grown-ups who are beginners in some foreign language, as they would be cognitively mature and hence a questionnaire could be used. However, one would have to take the age difference which is very likely to have an effect on results into consideration when interpreting the results.

Moreover, as was already mentioned before, the items measuring anxiety were not without problems. First, only three items were used to measure anxiety, which are not that many, though enough, however. Additionally, the items that were summed were not checked on validity for time constraints. The concept of 'anxiety' is furthermore not easily defined, a fact which might have also influenced the present data (for details see section 2.10 & 7.1.1.2). A future investigation that pays specific attention to the relationship of anxiety and language choice in ELT and addresses the concept of anxiety more in-depth and from different angles would thus be welcome.

Furthermore, mean scores for reported and desired amounts of L1 use were compared between two predefined proficiency groups. To see if there is a between group difference one would need data from several distinct proficiency groups and an ANOVA analysis would be required which was not possible within the limitations of the present project.

Finally, as was stressed in the introduction, I consciously focused on an EFL context in the present investigation. However, it would be interesting to explore patterns of language choice in formal language teaching in ESL contexts and determine similarities and differences. Likewise, it would be worth-while to relate present and other findings about language choice in classroom language teaching to CS practises within bilingual communities who constantly alternate between two languages, often a weaker one and one they feel more at home with.

9 Conclusion

This thesis aimed to shed some light on Viennese secondary school students' experiences and perceptions of language choice in ELT. By investigating this particular age group I wanted to broaden the picture on L1 use opposed to TL use presented in the existing body of literature, which largely focused on university contexts and rather neglected the student perspective in general.

From the literature review I provided, it became clear that a variety of aspects related to language choice in ELT have been addressed in previous studies. Even though these investigations are very useful indeed, they could not reach a consensus on what teachers should actually do in their teaching practise. From my point of view, this is neither possible nor desirable, as the appropriate balance between L1 and TL as MoI is always contingent on the individual students, the unique context and the particular learning situation.

Therefore, I regard it as crucial to take the preferences and views of the particular students into consideration when selecting the MoI. Still, there might be some tendencies in teachers' practises and students' preferences, which could be usefully applied to various teaching contexts. For that very reason, I greatly value any investigations into the area, as they all help to get further insight into the matter. That way, I hope my present work usefully contributes to the field.

From the present empirical investigation, I conducted, the anticipated positive correlation between a teacher requiring students to exclusively use the TL and students' levels of anxiety could not be confirmed. As regards the relationship between students' proficiency level and reported amounts of L1 use, more L1 was found to be used in lower level classes, which confirms the second hypothesis of this thesis. Likewise, as was anticipated, students of lower levels were found to require higher amounts of L1 use than more advanced ones.

The participants of the present study seem to appreciate L1 use for grammar, vocabulary and organisational issues while they do not regard it necessary for disciplinary issues or instructions. Regarding the desired amounts of L1, participants generally opt for rather high amounts of TL use, but at the same time across all levels they seem to disfavour a complete ban of the L1.

It is the conscious and informed decisions of the teachers that are required, which I hope I could stress as crucially decisive throughout my argumentation. These decisions should be based on sound theoretical knowledge from research into the field and take the individual and specific characteristics of the concrete teaching situation into consideration.

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11 Appendix

11.1 Questionnaire (Original Version)

Fragebogen zum Thema „Deutsch im Englischunterricht"

Liebe Schülerin! Lieber Schüler!

Ich studiere Englisch und Latein Lehramt an der Universität Wien und schreibe gerade meine Diplomarbeit. Ich bitte dich, diesen Fragebogen zum Thema „Deutsch im Englischunterricht" auszufüllen. Du hilfst mir damit sehr bei meiner Diplomarbeit. Dieser Fragebogen ist kein „Test", es geht um **deine eigene Meinung** – daher gibt es auch kein richtig oder falsch.

Bitte fülle die Fragen ehrlich aus. Der Fragebogen ist anonym; die Ergebnisse bekommt niemand außer mir und sie werden nur für meine Diplomarbeit verwendet. Solltest du sie lesen wollen, schreib mir bitte einfach ein E-mail an margot.katzenberger@gmx.at.

Wenn irgendetwas beim Ausfüllen unklar sein sollte, oder du sonst eine Frage hast, stehe ich gerne zur Verfügung. Zeig bitte einfach auf und ich komme zu dir.

Vielen Dank für deine Mithilfe!

Margot Katzenberger

I.   TEIL 1: Über den Englischunterricht mit meiner Lehrerin

A. Situationen im Englischunterricht

Kreuze zu jeder Aussage an, wie sehr sie deiner Einschätzung nach auf den Englischunterricht mit deiner Lehrerin zutrifft!

	trifft voll und ganz zu	trifft zu	trifft eher zu	trifft eher nicht zu	trifft nicht zu	trifft gar nicht zu
Beispiel: *Ich esse gerne Schokolade.*	x					
1. Meine Englischlehrerin spricht im Unterricht nur Englisch mit uns.						
2. Andere SchülerInnen sprechen im Unterricht wenig, weil sie sich nicht trauen, Englisch zu sprechen.						
3. Meine Englischlehrerin spricht im Englischunterricht häufig Deutsch.						
4. Ich spreche im Unterricht wenig, weil ich mich nicht traue Englisch zu sprechen.						
5. Unsere Englischlehrerin möchte, dass wir im Unterricht nur Englisch sprechen.						
6. Ich habe keine Angst im Unterricht Englisch zu sprechen.						
7. Wenn wir etwas nicht auf Englisch sagen können, dürfen wir es im Unterricht auch auf Deutsch sagen.						
8. Ich nehme häufig an Gesprächen oder Diskussionen im Englischunterricht teil.						
9. Wir dürfen im Englischunterricht nicht Deutsch sprechen.						
10. Meine Englischlehrerin spricht im Unterricht nie Deutsch mit uns.						

B. In folgenden Situationen spricht meine Englischlehrerin im Unterricht Deutsch:

Kreuze alle zutreffenden Antworten an. Mehrere Antworten sind möglich!

- ❏ Schülerinnen ermahnen
- ❏ Erklären von Grammatik
- ❏ Unterschiede/Ähnlichkeiten zwischen Deutsch und Englisch besprechen
- ❏ Um die Bedeutung eines Vokabels anzugeben
- ❏ Erklären einer Aufgabe/Gruppen-/Partnerarbeit
- ❏ Organisatorische Dinge
- ❏ Sonstiges; bitte gib, an welche Situationen: _____

C. Ausmaß von Englisch im Englischunterricht: Was würdest du schätzen?

Kreuze bei jeder Frage die deiner Einschätzung nach zutreffende Antwort an!

1. Meine Englischlehrerin spricht im Englischunterricht _____ auf <u>Englisch.</u>
   ○ niemals ○ sehr selten ○ regelmäßig ○ oft ○ fast immer ○ immer

2. Die Schülerinnen meiner Klasse sprechen im Englischunterricht _____ auf <u>Englisch.</u>
   ○ niemals ○ sehr selten ○ regelmäßig ○ oft ○ fast immer ○ immer

3. Meine Wortmeldungen im Englischunterricht sind _____ auf <u>Englisch.</u>
   ○ niemals ○ sehr selten ○ regelmäßig ○ oft ○ fast immer ○ immer

TEIL 2: Meine Meinung

A. So würde ich es für den Englischunterricht sinnvoll finden

Wie würdest du es für den Englischunterricht am besten finden? Kreuze deiner persönlichen Meinung entsprechend an!

	stimme voll und ganz zu	stimme zu	stimme eher zu	stimme eher nicht zu	stimme nicht zu	stimme gar nicht zu
1. Ich finde es am besten, wenn Lehrerinnen im Englischunterricht nur Englisch sprechen.						
2. Ich verstehe Grammatik besser, wenn sie mir auf Deutsch erklärt wird.						
3. Englischlehrerinnen sollten im Unterricht niemals Deutsch sprechen.						
4. Wenn eine Englischlehrerin eine Aufgabe erklärt, ist es besser, wenn sie Deutsch spricht.						
5. Die beste Möglichkeit ein neues Vokabel zu lernen, ist durch eine deutsche Übersetzung.						
6. Schülerinnen sollten im Englischunterricht Deutsch sprechen dürfen, wenn sie auf Englisch nicht ausdrücken können, was sie sagen wollen.						
7. Es ist besser und führt zu einem schnelleren Lernerfolg, wenn Grammatik auf Englisch erklärt wird.						
8. Es kann hilfreich sein, wenn Englischlehrerinnen im Englischunterricht ein gewisses Maß an Deutsch verwenden.						
9. Die beste Möglichkeit ein neues Vokabel zu lernen, ist durch eine englische Definition.						
10. SchülerInnen sollten im Englischunterricht niemals Deutsch sprechen.						

B. In folgenden Situationen finde ich gut, wenn die Englischlehrerin im Unterricht Deutsch spricht (egal was meine Englischlehrerin tatsächlich tut)

Kreuze alle zutreffenden Antworten an. Mehrere Antworten sind möglich!

- ❐ SchülerInnen ermahnen
- ❐ Erklären von Grammatik
- ❐ Unterschiede/Ähnlichkeiten zwischen Deutsch und Englisch besprechen
- ❐ Um die Bedeutung eines Vokabels anzugeben
- ❐ Erklären einer Aufgabe/Gruppen-/Partnerarbeit
- ❐ Organisatorische Dinge
- ❐ Sonstiges; bitte gib an welche Situationen: _____

C. Ausmaß von Englisch im Englischunterricht: Was würdest du gut finden?

Kreuze bei jeder Frage die deiner Meinung nach passende Antwort an!

1. Wieviel sollte deiner Meinung nach im Englischunterricht von Lehrerinnen <u>Deutsch</u> gesprochen werden?
   ◯ niemals ◯ sehr selten ◯ regelmäßig ◯ oft ◯ fast immer ◯ immer

2. Wieviel sollte deiner Meinung nach im Englischunterricht von Schülerinnen <u>Deutsch</u> gesprochen werden?
   ◯ niemals ◯ sehr selten ◯ regelmäßig ◯ oft ◯ fast immer ◯ immer

D. Vor- und Nachteile von Deutsch im Englischunterricht

Was denkst du? Vervollständige die beiden Sätze!

1. **Was ich gut daran finde, dass im Englischunterricht auch Deutsch gesprochen wird ist, dass**

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

2. **Was ich gut daran finde, dass im Englischunterricht hauptsächlich Englisch gesprochen wird ist, dass**

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Informationen zu dir

❖ Alter: _____ Jahre   Geschlecht: ○ männlich ○ weiblich

❖ Welche Sprache(n) sprichst du zu Hause?

(Bitte gib alle an und mit wem du welche sprichst, wenn es mehrere sind!)

_____

❖ Schulstufe:

1.AHS	2. AHS	3.AHS	4.AHS	5.AHS	6.AHS	7.AHS	8.AHS

❖ Ich spreche folgende weitere Fremdsprachen: _____

❖ Meine letzte Zeugnisnote in Englisch war:

1	2	3	4	5	möchte ich nicht sagen

Vielen Dank für deine Mithilfe!

Anmerkung: Mit der weiblichen Form sind jeweils beide Geschlechter gemeint (Lehrerinnen meint sowohl Lehrerinnen als auch Lehrer).

11.2 Questionnaire (English Version)

Questionnaire about "The Use of German in English Lessons"

Dear Students,

I am studying English and Latin for teaching purposes at Vienna University and I am currently working on my diploma thesis. I would kindly ask you to fill out this questionnaire on the topic of "The Use of German in English Lessons". This would be of enormous help for my thesis. This questionnaire is not a "test", it seeks to find out **your personal opinion – therefore there is not right or wrong**

Please be honest in your answers. The questionnaire is anonymous; nobody apart from me will get any results and they will only be used for my thesis. If you should be interested in reading it, please write an e-mail to margot.katzenberger@gmx.at

If there should be anything unclear while filling out the questionnaire or in case other questions arise, I am of course here to answer them. Please just raise your hand and I will come over to you.

Thank you very much for your help!

Margot Katzenberger

I.   TEIL 1: About the English lessons with your teacher

A. Situations in your English lessons

For each statement, tick the box that according to your impression is true for the English lessons with your teacher

	absolutely the case	the case	rather the case	rather not the case	not the case	absolutely not the case
Example: *.I like eating chocolate*	x					
1. My English Teacher speaks only English in our lessons.						
2. Other students talk rarely in lessons, as they are afraid of speaking in English						
3. My English teacher speaks frequently German in our lessons.						
4. I rarely speak in our lessons, as I am afraid of speaking English.						
5. Our English teacher requires us to speak only English in our lessons.						
6. I am not afraid of speaking English in our lessons.						
7. If we are not able to express something in English, we are allowed to say it in German in our lessons.						
8. I frequently participate in interactions and discussions in our English lessons.						
9. We are not allowed to speak German in English lessons.						
10. My English teacher never speaks in German to us in English lessons.						

B. My English teacher speaks German in the following situations (in English lessons):

Tick all the applying answers! More than one answer possible!

- ❏ disciplinary issues
- ❏ explaining grammar
- ❏ contrasting differences and similarities between German and English
- ❏ to define the meaning of an unknown word
- ❏ giving instructions for a task
- ❏ organisational issues
- ❏ other; please specify: _____

C. Amount of English used in English lessons: What is your assessment?

For each question, tick the appropriate answer according to your assessment!

1. In English lessons, my English teacher speaks _____ in <u>English.</u>
   ○ never ○ rarely ○ regularly ○ often ○ almost always ○ always

2. Other students in my class speak _____ in <u>English</u> in English lessons.
   ○ never ○ rarely ○ regularly ○ often ○ almost always ○ always

3. My oral contributions to English lessons are_____ in <u>English.</u>
   ○ never ○ rarely ○ regularly ○ often ○ almost always ○ always

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II.   PART 2: My opinion

A.   That's how I would find it best for English lessons.

What would you think would be best for your English lessons? Tick the answers according to your oen opinion!

	totally agree	agree	partly agree	partly disagree	disagree	strongly disagree
1. I consider it best, if teachers only speak English in English lessons.						
2. I understand grammar better, if it is explained in German.						
3. English teachers should never use German in lessons.						
4. It is better for an English teacher to give instructions for a task in German.						
5. The best way to acquire a new word is from a German translation.						
6. Students should be allowed to use German in English lessons, if they cannot express their point in English.						
7. It is better and results in faster learning, if grammar is explained in English.						
8. It can be beneficial, if English teachers use a certain amount of German in English lessons.						
9. The best way to acquire a new word is from an English definition.						
10. Students should never use German in English lessons.						

B.   I find it beneficial, if English teachers use German in the lesson (irrespective of what your own teacher actually does)

Tick all the applying answers! More than one answer possible!

- ☐ disciplinary issues
- ☐ explaining grammar
- ☐ contrasting differences and similarities between German and English
- ☐ to define the meaning of an unknown word
- ☐ giving instructions for a task
- ☐ organisational issues
- ☐ other; please specify: _____

C.   Amount of English used in English lessons: What would you find most appropriate?

For each question, tick the answer according to your own opinion!

1. How often should English teachers use <u>German</u> in English lessons, according to your opinion?
   ○ never ○ rarely ○ regularly ○ often ○ almost always ○ always

2. How often should students use <u>German</u> in English lessons, according to your opinion?
   ○ never ○ rarely ○ regularly ○ often ○ almost always ○ always

D. Pros and Cons of using German in English lessons

What do you think? Complete the sentences!

1. **What I like about also using some German in English lessons is that**

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

2. **What I like about using mainly English in English lessons is that**

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

Information about you

❖ Age: _____ Years   Sex: ○ male ○ female

❖ Which languages do you speak at home?

   (Please specify with whom you are using which, if it is more than one!)

   _____

❖ Level:

1.AHS	2. AHS	3.AHS	4.AHS	5.AHS	6.AHS	7.AHS	8.AHS

❖ I know the following further foreign languages: _____

❖ My last grad in English was (in your report):

1	2	3	4	5	I do not want to say

Thank you very much for your help!

11.3 Letter to Participants' Parents (German)

Wien, im Dezember 2014

Sehr geehrte Erziehungsberechtigte!

Liebe Eltern!

Mein Name ist Margot Katzenberger und ich studiere Englisch und Latein Lehramt. Für meine Diplomarbeit mit dem Thema „Die Verwendung der Muttersprache im Englischunterricht" möchte ich gerne eine Fragebogenstudie mit SchülerInnen durchführen. Frau Prof. xxx, die Direkton sowie der Stadtschulrat Wien haben genehmigt, dass ich meine Erhebung in der Klasse Ihrer Tochter/Ihres Sohnes durchführen darf. Aus diesem Grund ersuche ich Sie höflich, Ihr Einverständnis zu geben, dass ihr Sohn/ihre Tochter an meiner Umfrage teilnimmt. Sämtliche erhobenen Daten sind selbstverständlich anonym, werden nicht an Dritte weitergegeben und ausschließlich für meine Diplomarbeit verwendet.

Bei etwaigen Rückfragen stehe ich gerne zur Verfügung (margot.katzenberger@gmx.at, ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮

Mit Ihrem Einverständnis würden Sie mir sehr helfen!

Ich bedanke mich sehr herzlich im Voraus!

Mit freundlichen Grüßen

Margot Katzenberger

Einverständniserkärung

Ich, _____ bin damit einverstanden, dass meine

Tochter/mein Sohn _____ (geboren am _____)

an der oben beschriebenen Studie teilnimmt.

_____   _____

Ort, Datum   Unterschrift

11.4 Letter to Vienna Board of Education (German)

Margot Katzenberger   Wien, am 19.Dezember 2014

███████████████

Stadtschulrat für Wien
z.H. Mag. Sabine Sommer

Wipplingerstraße 28
1010 Wien

Ansuchen um Bewilligung einer Fragebogenerhebung an Wiener AHS

Sehr geehrte Damen und Herren, sehr geehrte Frau Mag. Sommer!

Mein Name ist Margot Katzenberger und ich studiere Englisch und Latein Lehramt. Für meine Diplomarbeit zu dem Thema „Die Verwendung der Muttersprache im Englischunterricht" würde ich gerne eine Fragebogenerhebung mit SchülerInnen an einigen Wiener AHS-Standorten durchführen. Aus diesem Grund ersuche ich Sie mit diesem Schreiben höflich, die Durchführung meines Projekts, das ich im Folgenden näher beschreiben werde, zu genehmigen.

Hintergrund und Relevanz

Die Frage, wieviel und mit welchem Zweck im Englischunterricht die Unterrichtssprache (in Österreich: Deutsch) verwendet werden soll, beschäftigt die fachdidaktische Forschung seit geraumer Zeit. Zahlreiche Studien in unterschiedlichen Ländern haben unterschiedliche Aspekte des Themas untersucht. Die Relevanz des Themas wird auch im österreichischen Lehrplan für lebende Fremdsprachen reflektiert, in dem es heißt „Im Unterricht ist soviel Fremdsprache wie möglich zu verwenden […] Ein bewusster und reflektierter Umgang mit Sprache (auch im Vergleich mit der Unterrichts- bzw. Muttersprache) ist zu fördern." (Lehrplan Erste & Zweite Lebende Fremdsprache). Hier zeigt sich, dass die Entscheidung über das adäquate Verhältnis der Verwendung von Unterrichtssprache und Fremdsprache eine durchaus bedeutsame, jedoch für die Lehrenden nicht immer einfach zu treffen ist. In jedem Fall trifft jede Englischlehrerin/jeder Englischlehrer, ob bewusst oder unbewusst, in jeder Unterrichtsstunde diesbezügliche Entscheidungen.

Um einen Beitrag zum wissenschaftlichen Diskurs zu dieser Thematik zu leisten, beabsichtige ich, im Rahmen der Erhebungen für meine Diplomarbeit zu der Thematik SchülerInnen zu befragen, nicht zuletzt deshalb, da bisherige Studien überwiegend die Sicht der Lehrenden untersucht haben. Ziel der Fragebogenerhebung ist es, folgende Hypothesen zu testen:

H_1 Es besteht eine positive Korrelation zwischen einer Hemmnis von SchülerInnen im Englischunterricht an der Kommunikation teilzunehmen und der Anforderung seitens der Lehrenden im Englischunterricht ausschließlich Englisch zu sprechen.

H$_2$ Es besteht eine negative Korrelation zwischen dem Ausmaß, in dem im Englischunterricht Deutsch gesprochen wird, und dem Alter/Sprachniveau der SchülerInnen (die Verwendung von Deutsch wird geringer, wenn das Alter/Sprachniveau der SchülerInnen steigt).

H$_3$ Es besteht eine negative Korrelation zwischen dem Alter/Sprachniveau der SchülerInnen und dem Bedürfnis ein gewisses Maß an Deutsch im Englischunterricht zu verwenden. (je geringer das Alter/Sprachniveau, desto höher ist das Bedürfnis, dass auch Deutsch verwendet wird)

Methode und Analyse

Um die Hypothesen zu testen, soll ein Fragebogen mit geschlossenen Fragen verwendet werden, die auf einer sechs-stufigen Likert-Skala gemessen werden. SchülerInnen sollen zu Aussagen zwischen „1=stimme voll und ganz zu" und „6=stimme überhaupt nicht zu" auswählen. Weiters kommen Multiple Choice fragen zum Einsatz. Mit den erhobenen Daten wird im Anschluss mittels SPSS eine Korrelationsanalyse durchgeführt werden. Um die zweite und dritte Hypothese zu testen, werden die Daten in zwei Gruppen geteilt: Gruppe 1 SchülerInnen mit „Elementary English Level" (=SchülerInnen der 3. und 4. AHS); Gruppe 2 SchülerInnen mit „Upper-Intermediate English Level" (=SchülerInnen der 6.-8. Klasse AHS) und ein t-test durchgeführt, um zu sehen, ob es zwischen den beiden Gruppen statistisch relevante Unterschiede gibt. Schließlich werden die Ergebnisse mittels deskriptiver Statistik analysiert und interpretiert und mit vorhandenen Studien verglichen.

Darüber hinaus wird der Fragebogen zwei offene Fragen enthalten. Die Ergebnisse werden anschließend kodiert und interpretiert. Der Fragebogen ist diesem Schreiben beigelegt.

Organisatorisches

In Absprache mit den Direktionen und den zuständigen LehrerInnen, die mir die grundsätzliche Durchführbarkeit in ihren Schulen bzw. Klassen mündlich zugesagt haben, soll die Erhebung an folgenden Wiener AHS-Standorten durchgeführt werden:

- Grg
- pG
- Rg
- GRgORg
- GRg

Je nach Möglichkeit der einzelnen Schulen sollen pro Schulstandort eine oder mehrere Klassen sowohl der Unterstufe als auch der Oberstufe an der Erhebung teilnehmen. Das Ausfüllen des Fragbogens sollte wird etwa 20 Minuten in Anspruch nehmen. Als Erhebungszeitraum ist Jänner bis Februar 2015 angedacht. Die genauen Termine richten sich nach den Möglichkeiten der einzelnen Klassen und LehrerInnen.

Datenschutz und Einverständniserklärung

Obwohl wissenschaftliches Selbstverständnis, möchte ich doch gesondert erwähnen, dass die Teilnahme an der Erhebung freiwillig und anonym erfolgt und die erhobenen Daten nur für meine Diplomarbeit verwendet und nicht an Dritte weitergegeben werden. Da die Befragung mit Minderjährigen erfolgen soll, wird vor Durchführung der Erhebung außerdem die erforderliche Zustimmung der Erziehungsberechtigten eingeholt. Der entsprechende

Elternbrief findet sich im Anhang. Ebenfalls im Anhang findet sich das Informationsschreiben an die zuständigen LehrerInnen.

Abschließende Worte

Selbstverständlich stelle ich nach Abschluss meiner Diplomarbeit dem Stadtschulrat für Wien gerne ein digitales Exemplar meiner Arbeit sowie eine deutsche Kurzfassung der Ergebnisse zur Verfügung. Ich hoffe, ich konnte Ihnen mit diesem Schreiben einen guten Überblick über mein geplantes Projekt geben, und ersuche nun höflich, der Durchführung der beschriebenen wissenschaftlichen Erhebung zuzustimmen. Für etwaige Rückfragen stehe ich gerne per Mail oder telefonisch zur Verfügung.

Mit Ihrer Zustimmung helfen Sie mir sehr beim Abschluss meines Studiums, wofür ich mich im Voraus herzlich bedanken möchte.

Für Ihre baldige Antwort wäre ich sehr dankbar und verbleibe einstweilen

mit freundlichen Grüßen

Margot Katzenberger

Anlagen
Fragebogen
Elternbrief
Information an LehrerInnen
Verpflichtungserklärung auf Datengeheimnis
Bestätigung des Diplomarbeitsbetreuers

11.5 Permission by Vienna Board of Education (German)

BearbeiterIn
Mag. Sabine Sommer
office@ssr-wien.gv.at

Frau Margot Katzenberger

Tel. 525 25
DW 77213
Fax 99-77999

Unser Zeichen/GZ
200.006/0003-AHS/2015

Datum
26.01.2015

Sehr geehrte Frau Katzenberger!

Der Stadtschulrat für Wien erteilt Ihnen die Bewilligung, im Rahmen Ihrer Diplomarbeit mit dem Titel

„Die Verwendung der Muttersprache im Englischunterricht"

eine Fragebogenerhebung bei Schüler/innen vorbehaltlich der Zustimmung der Direktion an den von Ihnen in Ihrem Ansuchen genannten Wiener Schulen

- GRg
- pG
- Rg
- GRgORg
- GRg

durchzuführen.

Für die Untersuchung sind die vorgelegten Unterlagen verbindlich. Bei der Mitarbeit von Lehrer/innen muss der Nachweis der Freiwilligkeit vorliegen.

Alle Untersuchungsergebnisse unterliegen der Anonymität und dürfen nur für die wissenschaftliche Arbeit Verwendung finden.

Mit freundlichen Grüßen
für die Amtsführende Präsidentin:
Mag.ᵃ Gabriele Dangl
Abteilungsleiterin
(elektronisch gefertigt)

11.6 Curriculum Vitae

Persönliche Daten

Name	Margot Katzenberger
Geburtsdatum	17.04.1989, Wien
Staatsangehörigkeit	Österreich
e-mail Adresse	margot.katzenberger@gmx.at

Ausbildung

1995-1999	Volksschule in Wien (VS Oberdorfstraße)
1999-2007	Neusprachliches Gymnasium in Wien (BRG Polgarstraße)
Juni 2007	Matura mit Auszeichnung
2007-2015	Studium der Anglistik und Klassischen Philologie (Latein) für Lehramt (Universität Wien)

Berufserfahrung

2011-dato	Freiberufliche Nachhilfetätigkeit für die Bildungsmanagment GmbH (Lernquadrat) für die Fächer Englisch und Latein
Juli 2011	Ferialpraktikum bei der UniCredit Leasing in der Abteilung „Cost Management and Logistics"

Sprachen

Deutsch (Muttersprache)

Englisch (fließend in Wort und Schrift)

Französisch (B1)

Latein