

The classroom as a bilingual space: An exploration of attitudes towards mono- and bi/multilingual practices in English language teaching contexts

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DECLARATION

I hereby certify that this material, which I now submit for assessment on the programme of study leading to the award of Doctor of Philosophy is entirely my own work, that I have exercised reasonable care to ensure that the work is original, and does not to the best of my knowledge breach any law of copyright, and has not been taken from the work of others save and to the extent that such work has been cited and acknowledged within the text of my work.

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List of abbreviations

Abbreviation	Explanation
CBI	content-based instruction
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CELTA	Cambridge English Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
CLIL	Content-Language-Integrated-Learning
DFG	Douglas Fir Group [see p. 1 further details]
EFL	English as a foreign language
ELF	English as a lingua franca
ELT	English language teaching
ESL	English as a second language
FonF	Focus on Form
IRR	inter-rater-reliability
L1	First language
L2	Second or additional language
LLJ	Language Learning Journal
LTC	Language Teaching cognition
LTE	Language Teacher Education
LTR	Language teaching research
NEST	Native English speaker teacher
NNEST	Non-native English speaker teacher
SJR	Scimago Journal Rankings
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SR	Stimulated recall
TA	Thematic Analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006; 2013)
TESOL	Teaching English to speakers of other languages
REC	Research Ethics Committee

Fiona Gallagher

The classroom as a bilingual space: An exploration of attitudes towards mono- and bi/multilingual practices in English language teaching contexts

Abstract

This PhD by publication is underpinned by three journal articles which together explore attitudes towards using the students' L1 in various English language teaching contexts. Publication One investigates a dual-language instructional technique used with secondary school students in a CLIL context. Publication Two compares the attitudes and practices of EFL teachers towards using the L1, firstly in shared-L1 contexts and secondly in multilingual contexts where students do not share a common L1. Publication Three examines the cognitions of teacher trainers around using the L1 in language teaching and how this issue is dealt with on CELTA¹ programmes.

Four research aims are addressed: to explore the attitudes, beliefs and cognitions of educators towards using the L1 in language teaching [Publications 2,3]; to identify the extent to which ELT practitioners view their students as (emerging) bilinguals and the classroom as a bilingual space [Publications 2, 3]; to consider the role of the teaching context in pedagogic decisions around using the L1 in the classroom [Publications 1,2,3]; and to examine the potential role of bilingual instructional perspectives and techniques to enhance language learning [Publications 1,2,3].

Findings point to the continued dominance of the monolingual principle among ELT professionals and the need to revisit some of the taken-for-granted assumptions about best practice in relation to this in language teaching. The study also demonstrates the flexible and often inconsistent positions taken by educators in relation to L1 use in language teaching and the influence of the particular teaching context on their practices. The role of teacher development programmes in exploring this issue in a considered and reflective way is also identified. Findings highlight the value of exploiting the bi/multilingual skills of both teachers and students and of embracing bilingual perspectives to facilitate learning.

¹ University of Cambridge: Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

Chapter One: A framework for the three publications

1.1 Introduction

[O]ur present collective text is motivated by the conviction that SLA must now be particularly responsive to the pressing needs of people who learn to live - and in fact do live - with more than one language at various points in their lives, with regard to their education, their multilingual and multiliterate development, social integration, and performance across diverse contexts. A new SLA must be imagined, one that can investigate the learning and teaching of additional languages across private and public, material and digital social contexts in a multilingual world.

(Douglas Fir Group, 2016, p. 20)

A multilingual re-imagining of second language teaching and learning has been advocated by the Douglas Fir Group (DFG, 2016), a group of fifteen eminent scholars with varied disciplinary and theoretical allegiances to the field of second language acquisition (SLA) who collaborated on a joint position paper for the special centenary issue of the *Modern Language Journal* (Byrnes, 2016). The DFG authors are, in alphabetical order: Dwight Atkinson, University of Arizona; Heidi Byrnes, Georgetown University; Meredith Doran, The Pennsylvania State University; Patricia Duff, University of British Columbia; Nick C. Ellis, University of Michigan; Joan Kelly Hall, The Pennsylvania State University; Karen E. Johnson, The Pennsylvania State University; James P. Lantolf, The Pennsylvania State University; Diane Larsen-Freeman, University of Michigan and University of Pennsylvania; Eduardo Negueruela, University of Miami; Bonny Norton, University of British Columbia; Lourdes Ortega, Georgetown University; John Schumann, UCLA; Merrill Swain, The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto; and Elaine Tarone, University of Minnesota. Their co-authored publication aims to counter the prevailing monolingual bias of much research in this field and calls for a multi-perspective approach to SLA in order to “explore the changing nature of language learning and teaching in a multilingual world” (DFG, 2016, p. 20). They propose a new transdisciplinary framework for SLA based on two explicit goals: “to expand the perspectives of

researchers and teachers of L2² [second or additional language] learners with regard to learners' diverse multilingual repertoires of meaning-making resources and identities" and "to foster in learners a profound awareness not only of the cultural, historical, and institutional meanings that their language-mediated social actions have, but also ... of the dynamic and evolving role their actions play in shaping their own and others' worlds" (DFG, 2016, p. 25).

The authors acknowledge the work of other important voices within SLA and the wider fields of applied linguistics and bi/multilingual education (e.g. Adrian Blackledge, Suresh Canagarajah, Vivian Cook, Angela Creese, Jim Cummins, Ofelia García, Nancy Hornberger, Li Wei, Stephen May), who have long championed change in this area and who have identified cross-linguistic influences and inter-language interactions as part of the broader reality of bi/multilingualism. However, as Ortega, one of the members of the DFG group pointed out in 2019, change has been remarkably slow. May (2019), commenting on the stance of the DFG, concurs, stating: "the task of re-orientating SLA toward multilingualism remains a particularly daunting one", despite the growing research emerging from studies in bilingualism and bilingual education. Ortega (2019, p. 26) believes a profound paradigm shift away from the prevailing monolingual orientation in SLA is required in order "to respond to the best current knowledge about multilingualism and the most pressing demands of the 21st century". She identifies two key obstructions to this transformation: the negative framing of "late timing" (Ortega, 2019, p.24) for language learning and the exclusive focus on the development of the target language being learned, discounting attention to the L1³ from the scope of most SLA studies. She proposes that "SLA's object of inquiry be reframed from L2 learning to learning to become bilingual later in life" (Ortega, 2019, p. 26). Many scholars including Ortega have noted a distinct reluctance to embrace a multilingual approach and engage with what May (2019, p.123) describes as "the normalcy of multilingual language use" among educators working in the field of foreign language teaching (Kramsch, 2014; Turnbull, 2018) and among those working in ELT (English Language

² The term L2 is used throughout to denote any language that is not the first language of an individual or learner. It is acknowledged that this could be a third, fourth etc. language for some people.

³ The term L1 is used to denote an individual's first language or mother tongue.

Teaching) contexts (Anderson, 2018; Cenoz and Gorter, 2020; Cook, 2016b; Leung, 2014).

My PhD project is situated in the research fields of SLA, language teacher education (LTE) and bilingual education and relates in particular to bi/ multilingual practices in second language learning and teaching contexts. The spotlight of the research is on TESOL (Teaching English to speakers of other languages), with a particular focus on three EFL (English as a foreign language) settings: firstly, a Geography-through-English CLIL (Content-Language-Integrated-Language) context in Northern Italy; secondly, EFL contexts where learners share a common language other than English, usually the L1 of the students; and, thirdly, multilingual EFL contexts where learners do not share a common language other than English. It is hoped that this research will add to the body of literature on the monolingual bias in SLA, provide insights into the beliefs and practices of language teachers working in different EFL contexts, and contribute to future language teacher education and foreign language teaching pedagogy.

The PhD by publication was chosen as the format for the project. Publishing throughout the process seemed a practical and useful way to gain external validation and disseminate timely and up-to-date findings on an ongoing basis, particularly given the longer time-frame involved in part-time study. Secondly, working on a number of self-contained but related studies appealed to me as an approach for a number of reasons: it provided a convenient and efficient way to organise unwieldy data into three separate projects; it provided a valuable and effective way of embedding triangulation methods into the research design from the outset; and it provided a manageable and concrete way to organise the project into clearly demarcated components.

Three journal articles form the central part of the dissertation. This is framed by introductory and methodology chapters, which provide an overview of the research project, and by a concluding chapter, which explores the overall findings of the three publications. This introductory chapter is divided into three sections: first, the three studies are situated within the EFL teaching and learning context; second, the focus and overarching research objectives of the three publications as a whole are explained, followed by short synopses of the individual studies; in the final section, a brief outline of the literature relating to key theoretical frameworks which underpin the research as a whole is provided.

1.2 Second and foreign language teaching

Traditionally, SLA has distinguished between two main language teaching contexts: second and foreign language teaching. Saville-Troike and Barto (2017, p. 4) define a ‘second’ language in this restricted sense as: “typically an official or societally dominant language needed for education, employment and other basic purposes. It is often acquired by minority group members or immigrants who speak another language natively”. They contrast this with a ‘foreign’ language which they define as: “one not widely used in the learners’ immediate social context which might be used for future travel or other cross-cultural communication situations, or studied as a curricular requirement or elective in school, but with no immediate or necessary practical application.” (Saville-Troike and Barto, 2017, p.4). García and Otheguy (2020, p.19) describe how the term ‘world languages’ is used instead of ‘foreign languages’ in some contexts in acknowledgement that not all the languages learnt are ‘foreign’ languages for the learner and could be spoken in the places where they are being taught. However, they point out that this change in terminology involves no real conceptual shift from the notion of languages as separate entities, “out in the world” and external to the learner and their own locale. In terms of ELT, this distinction is commonly referred to as EFL and English as a second language (ESL). On their website (no date), the TESOL International Association, one of the main ELT professional associations (Freeman, 2020), describe common acronyms used in the field. They define ESL as the term used for “English language programs in English-speaking countries where students learn English as a second language” (para. 18) and EFL as the term used to describe “English language programs in non-English-speaking countries where English is not used as the lingua franca. It is also used in some U.S. university programs where international students study English and are likely to return to their home countries after graduation or finishing course work” (para. 9). Traditionally, short-stay language courses in English-speaking countries are also included in definitions of EFL (Cenoz and Gorter, 2019; Cook, 2016b). However, these distinctions between ESL and EFL have become less distinct in the increasingly globalised and multilingual contexts in which English is spoken as a lingua franca for a myriad of purposes in people’s daily lives. This has led to the growing use of the term English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), which questions assumptions about ‘ownership’ of English and the nature of ‘English’ as a bounded and separate code. Seidlhofer (2017, p.39) describes ELF as providing “a means of

communication among those who share no other language”, observing that it “is used by people in all parts of today’s globalized world as a resource in the conduct of their professional and private lives ... effectively allow[ing] speakers of different languages to interact with each other”. ELF has become a rapidly expanding research field within TESOL over the last decade. However, the distinction between foreign language and second language teaching and learning in ELT is still a common one in the literature and one which is relevant to the focus of this PhD, which centres on the multilingual turn in foreign language teaching contexts and EFL in particular.

For the purposes of the overall objectives and findings of this study, I have included CLIL (where English is the vehicular language) under the EFL heading. Given the diversity of CLIL programmes, it is difficult to categorise this context. Cenoz (2015) describes a continuum from Content-Driven to Language-Driven orientations along which CLIL programmes can be aligned. She positions many CLIL programmes towards the content driven end of the continuum and in her comparison of European CLIL and CBI (content-based instruction) in the US, she sees many commonalities. However, Cenoz (2015) acknowledges that, over the years, CBI has attracted scholars from different disciplines, while CLIL is more closely linked to scholars working on English language teaching and second language acquisition. CLIL is often seen as an enhancement of foreign language teaching (Azkarai and Agirre, 2016; Banegas, 2014; Lasagabaster, 2011). García and Otheguy (2020, p.22) explain how CLIL emerged from plurilingual approaches advocated by the Council of Europe, stating: “[t]raditional core programs of foreign language instruction are now often content-based, following principles of CLIL”. Describing how CLIL links to Canadian and other bilingual and immersion programmes, Pérez-Cañado (2012, pp. 318 - 9) posits that CLIL is clearly distinct from its predecessors and not just a new expression of educational bilingualism; “it is no longer considered a mere offshoot of other types of bilingual programs, but an increasingly acknowledged trend in foreign language (FL) teaching”. In their descriptions of particular CLIL through English programmes, many scholars describe CLIL as a form of foreign language teaching, making the distinction between ‘mainstream EFL’ and CLIL lessons and programmes, often running in the same school and with the same students (Agustín-Llach and Alonso, 2016; Martínez-Adrián, Gallardo-del-Puerto and Basterrechea, 2019; Tragant *et al.*, 2016). This was the case in

the study leading to Publication One which took place in a Geography through English CLIL classroom in Northern Italy.

1.3 The three publications

This PhD by Publication comprises three separate studies, which resulted in three articles which have been double blind peer-reviewed and published in three different high-ranking, international journals: *The Language Learning Journal*, *System* and *Language Teaching Research*. All three journals are ranked in the top quartile of the Scopus database for the subject category Language and Linguistics. These journals are well established and strongly cited with H indices ranging from 26 to 77 (Scimago Journal Rankings (SJR), no date). (See the introduction to each article in Chapters three to five for a more detailed profile of each journal.) For ease of reading and to avoid unnecessary repetition, these studies are referred to as Publication One, Publication Two and Publication Three (rather than ‘the study leading to Publication One’, ‘the study leading to Publication two’ and so on).

The central focus of this dissertation as a whole is an exploration of the Multilingual Turn (Conteh and Meier, 2014; May, 2014b) in ELT. It involves an exploration of attitudes and beliefs around mono- and bi/multilingual practices in EFL contexts. Four overarching research objectives are addressed:

- [1] to explore the attitudes, beliefs and cognitions of educators in EFL towards using the L1 of the learners in language teaching;
- [2] to identify the extent to which EFL practitioners view their students as (emerging) bilinguals and the classroom as a bilingual space;
- [3] to consider the role of the teaching context in pedagogic decisions around using the L1 in the classroom; and
- [4] to examine the potential role of bilingual instructional perspectives and techniques to enhance language learning.

Table 1 demonstrates how these objectives relate to the three publications:

Table 1: Research objectives

Research Objectives	Publication One	Publication Two	Publication Three
To explore the attitudes, beliefs and cognitions of educators in EFL towards using the L1 of the learners in language teaching		✓	✓
To identify the extent to which EFL practitioners view their students as (emerging) bilinguals and the classroom as a bilingual space		✓	✓
To consider the role of the teaching context in pedagogic decisions around using the L1 in the classroom	✓	✓	✓
To examine the potential role of bilingual instructional perspectives and techniques to enhance language learning	✓	✓	✓

Publication One investigates a dual-language instructional technique used with secondary school students in a CLIL context. This article was co-authored with Gerry Colohan, the Geography-through-English class teacher in the school where the study took place. Publication Two compares the beliefs, attitudes and practices of EFL teachers towards using the L1, firstly in shared-L1 contexts and secondly in multilingual contexts where students do not share a common L1. Publication Three examines the beliefs and practices of teacher trainers around using the students' L1 in English language teaching and how this issue is dealt with on the Cambridge English CELTA (Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) teacher education programme. This article was co-authored with Catherine Geraghty, a practising CELTA trainer and colleague⁴.

When I started this PhD, different bilingual and immersion contexts were of particular interest to me. I was drawn to exploring how pedagogic approaches to teaching and learning, common in one immersion-type context, might inform another (e.g. dual-immersion programmes, CLIL, linguistic minority students in mainstream schools

⁴ Note: details of the respective contributions of the authors are included in the Declaration of Authorship forms accompanying Publications One and Three.

(immersion-by-default), etc.). While reading for Publication One, which focused on learning materials using the students' L1 in a CLIL immersion-type context, I was particularly struck by Cummins' (2005, p. 590) call to action to all "applied linguists and language educators to confront and critically re-examine our own monolingual instructional assumptions" and in particular for an "endorsement by TESOL of these approaches" in order "to challenge the educational and social injustices associated with the monolingual principle" (Cummins 2009b, p. 320). This prompted me to question my own cognition in relation to the multilingual orientation of TESOL and re-position my studies towards the EFL community. I became increasingly interested in the beliefs and attitudes of EFL teachers in relation to using the L1 in their teaching. The taken-for-granted assumptions around this were described in the literature (Auerbach 1993; Cook, 2001; Leung, 2014; Ellis and Shintani, 2014) and were ones which I myself had always accepted as self-evidently desirable.

At the time, there were a small number of studies which had investigated L1 use in EFL and ESL classroom contexts, particularly in terms of the quantity and purposes for which it was used (e.g. Duff and Polio, 1990; Polio and Duff, 1994; Lucas and Katz, 1994) and the feelings of guilt and discomfort expressed by many teachers about using the L1 in their teaching, given that using the first language of the students was not considered best practice (Butzkamm, 2003; Cook, 2001). Macaro's work (2009; 2014) had focused on teacher positions in relation to using the L1 in their teaching, but did not approach the issue from the perspective of the linguistic profile of classrooms in different contexts. I became increasingly drawn to this feature of the research.

Publication One had focused on a context where students shared a common L1 and I became interested in comparing and contrasting L1 use in this context with multilingual contexts where the students did not share a language other than English. The distinction between these two contexts shaped the focus of the next two studies. Publication Two explored the factors which influenced EFL teachers' views, beliefs and practices about using the L1 in their teaching and the extent to which these were affected by their teaching context. Publication Three focused on this issue in relation to the beliefs and practices of CELTA trainers and how the use of the L1 was addressed in LTE programmes in TESOL.

Although, after Publication One, my PhD research became oriented towards the use of the L1 in foreign language teaching contexts, I have continued to work in the field of

ESL teaching pedagogies, particularly in relation to the language needs and development of adult refugees and students from a migration background in mainstream classrooms in Ireland. The potential of one language teaching and learning context to inform another remains a key area of interest for me and I hope the use of bilingual instructional techniques in a range of language teaching and learning contexts will become a focus of my future research.

Table 2 includes the abstracts for the three publications in order to provide a brief overview of each article here.

Table 2: Title and abstracts for Publications One, Two and Three

<u>Title and abstract for Publication One</u>
<p>Fiona Gallagher and Gerry Colohan (2017) ‘T(w)o and fro: using the L1 as a language teaching tool in the CLIL classroom’, <i>The Language Learning Journal</i>, 45(4), pp. 485-498.</p> <p>Abstract:</p> <p><i>This article describes a small in-class study which sought to explore the effectiveness (or not) of using the emerging bilingual skills of the students as a teaching and learning tool in a Geography through English CLIL classroom in Northern Italy. In particular, the study sought to examine whether and to what extent the use of codeswitching / translanguaging between the native language and the language of instruction during content-related tasks might prove a useful technique for highlighting particular grammatical points in the CLIL vehicular language. Findings support the view that there is a place for the focused, planned and targeted use of the L1 during meaning-focused lessons in the language immersion classroom and that bilingual instructional techniques, such as the ‘twisted dictation’ used in the study, can be an effective means of both drawing students’ attention to particular linguistic forms and of developing an enriched bilingual vocabulary. The authors suggest that the use of the L1 as a language teaching and learning tool is not limited to the CLIL or immersion classroom, but could be adapted for use in other language learning contexts.</i></p>

Title and abstract for Publication Two

Gallagher F. (2020) 'Considered in context: EFL teachers' views on the classroom as a bilingual space and codeswitching in shared-L1 and in multilingual contexts'. *System*, 91 (online)

Abstract

This paper describes a qualitative research study which explores the views and practices of EFL teachers in relation to codeswitching and the use of the L1 in the classroom and the extent to which their particular teaching context plays a role in this. Interviews took place with twenty-four teachers who teach or have taught English in both (1) multilingual contexts in which the learners typically do not share a common L1 and (2) contexts in which the learners typically share an L1 other than English. Themes relating to the nature of the teaching and learning space in each context, the extent to which the teachers view the teaching environment as a bi/multilingual setting, and the role of the particular context in their overall approach and practices are examined. Findings point to the largely flexible, fluid and mixed views of EFL teachers in relation to the use of the L1 in the classroom and to the need for a more explicit focus on this area in teacher development and training. It is suggested that taking a bilingual stance may offer potential as a means for teachers to reflect on and critically examine their practices and beliefs in relation to this topic.

Title and abstract for Publication Three

Gallagher, F. and Geraghty, C. (2021) 'Exploring mono/multilingual practices on the CELTA course: what trainers say'. *Language Teaching Research* (online).

Abstract:

This paper examines mono- and bi/multilingual practices on the University of Cambridge CELTA (Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) course. This course is generally considered to be one of the most popular and widely-recognised initial teacher education programmes in English language teaching worldwide. The paper describes a small research project which explored the views of seventy-seven CELTA trainers in relation to the use of the L1 in English language teaching and centred on how this issue is addressed on the teacher training courses they worked on. The study included trainers who

use English either as an L1 or as an L2 and both monolingual and bi/multilingual participants. Respondents worked in shared-L1 (where learners share a common language other than English) and in multilingual teaching and training contexts. The need to develop a theoretical framework in relation to L1 use in English language teaching and for a more explicit and considered focus on this issue on the CELTA course was identified, so that both trainers and trainee-teachers can make informed pedagogic decisions around L1 use in their teaching and professional practices. Findings also point to the need for wider discussion within the CELTA community on issues relating to the traditionally monolingual and one-size-fits-all orientation of the course and to the potential added-value of language teachers and educators who bring bilingual skills and perspectives to the classroom, particularly non-native English speakers.

It is hoped that, cumulatively, the publications will afford an insight into constructive bi/multilingual practices in these educational contexts and make a valuable contribution to future teacher development and language learning pedagogy in foreign language teacher education.

1.4 Theoretical framework

This research project is underpinned by two theoretical frameworks in particular which are pertinent to SLA, TESOL and LTE research in this area. These relate, firstly, to the so-called multilingual turn in second language teaching and learning and, secondly, to language teacher cognition, particularly with regard to teachers' beliefs about their professional practice(s). These frameworks are explored as part of the review of pertinent literature contained in each of the three publications in this dissertation. They are also briefly described below.

1.4.1 The multilingual turn

The term 'multilingual turn' is commonly used to refer to a critical movement in education which challenges long-standing monolingual perspectives and ideologies in relation to second language learning and teaching and multilingual language use. The term appeared in the titles of two books which were published in 2014 (Conteh and Meier (eds.), *The multilingual turn in languages education: Opportunities and*

challenges and May (ed.), *The multilingual turn: Implications for SLA, TESOL and Bilingual education*), both of which advocated for a ‘multilingual turn’ in relation to the way language(s), language learners and second language learning are conceptualised in SLA and language teaching education. This multilingual turn has important implications for second language teaching pedagogy in particular. However, according to Meier (2017, p131): “[w]hile theoretically relatively well established, the multilingual turn faces important challenges that hamper its translation into mainstream practice, namely popularly accepted monolingual norms and a lack of guidance for teachers.”

This section provides a brief exploration of the multilingual turn with particular focus on the following issues: changes in our understanding of how bi/multilinguals store and use their additional language(s); the nature of language(s) and of linguistic and communicative repertoires; and the pedagogical implications of the multilingual turn for language teaching and learning.

1.4.1.1 Second /multi language users, learners and learning

The multilingual turn represents a profound paradigm shift away from the prevailing monolingual models of second language learners and second language learning (Cenoz and Gorter, 2019; Gao, 2019; May, 2019). The traditional conceptualisation of the second language learner in these models is largely based on how monolinguals acquire their first language rather than on how bi- and multilinguals acquire their second and additional languages (Cook, 2016b; Creese and Blackledge, 2010; McMillan and Turnbull, 2009; Ortega 2019). In these models, the ideal bilingual language user was constructed as “two monolinguals in one person” (Grosjean, 1989, p. 3), drawing from the assumption that different languages are stored separately in the brain so that a bilingual speaker merely turns one language on or off as the situation requires (Cenoz and Gorter, 2017; García and Otheguy, 2020; Shin, 2018). However, recent studies in bilingualism have established that this is not the case. A bilingual’s different languages are both activated in the brain, even when only one language is in use at a given point in time (García, 2009; Grosjean, 2010; Hoshino and Thierry, 2011; Kharkhurin and Li Wei, 2015; Lewis, Jones and Baker, 2012; Molway, Arcos and Macaro, 2020).

Within monolingual frameworks, using different named languages simultaneously or code switching between languages have been framed as a deficit use of language, denoting a lack of linguistic competence in one or more of the languages available to the user (Hornberger and Link, 2012; Lin and Li, 2012; Turnbull and Dailey-O’Cain, 2009). According to Leung and Valdés (2019), this reflects the view posited by early researchers on bilingualism that true or competent bilinguals do not alternate between their two languages. However, it is now known that, in fact, fluent bi/multilinguals demonstrate highly sophisticated linguistic knowledge, skills and “multi-competence” (Cook, 2016a, p.2). This is demonstrated in the complex ways in which they use and alternate between their languages, often in the same conversation, sentence or word formation, depending on who they are with, the mode of communication and the purposes for which they are using language (Baker, 2017; Ortega, 2019; Shin, 2018). The linguistic competence of bi/multilinguals is seen to be qualitatively different from that of multilinguals (Cook, 2016b; Scott, 2016; Ortega, 2016). Terms such as ‘translanguaging’ (García, 2009), ‘translingual practices’ (Canagarajah, 2014), ‘metrolingualism’ (Makoni and Pennycook, 2012) and ‘flexible bilingualism’ (Creese and Blackledge, 2010) have been coined to reflect the highly developed, flexible and complex use of their linguistic resources by fluent bi- and multilinguals.

The term ‘translanguaging’ in particular has gained currency in recent years and has been the subject of numerous publications and theoretical debates (e.g., Blackledge and Creese, 2017; Canagarajah, 2011; Cenoz and Gorter, 2019; Hornberger and Link, 2012; Leung and Valdés, 2019; Lewis, Jones and Baker, 2012; Li Wei, 2018; Vallejo and Dooly, 2020). Although defined in a variety of ways, it is most usually associated with the work of Ofelia García. She defines translanguaging as the ‘*multiple discourse practices* in which bilinguals engage’ (García 2009, p. 45, emphasis in original). For her, it is much more than a shift between languages or codes; she describes translanguaging as “rooted in the belief that bilingual speakers select language features from one integrated system and ‘soft assemble’ their language practices in ways that fit their communicative situations” (García, 2015, p. 140). This includes, but is not limited to, practices such as translation and code switching. Translanguaging represents a bottom-up approach because it highlights the practices of ‘real’ multilingual speakers and how they communicate (Cenoz and Gorter, 2020; May, 2019). Ortega (2019, p. 27) describes this as “grassroots” bi/multilingualism, which emerges from the lived

experiences of bilinguals and the ways in which they actually use their languages. The social justice perspective and transformative potential of translanguaging in relation to minoritized populations is often emphasised (Leung and Valdés, 2019).

Translanguaging is often considered to be closely related to the concept of plurilingualism, which is a widely used term in European contexts in particular. Plurilingualism has been described by Cenoz and Gorter (2013, p. 598) as “a dynamic competence that combines linguistic repertoires” and by Leung and Valdés (2019, p. 358) as an approach which promotes “the development of partial competence in several languages and tolerance toward different languages and varieties”. Commonalities with translanguaging approaches have been identified, especially in terms of the emphasis on the flexible linguistic practices of bi/multi/plurilinguals and the promotion of tolerance towards and well-being for linguistic minority speakers (Canagarajah and Liyanage, 2012; Llompart *et al.*, 2020; Vallejo and Dooly, 2020). However, García and Otheguy (2020) explicitly contrast ‘translanguaging’ with ‘plurilingualism’ and argue that the distinction between the origins and goals associated with the two concepts should be kept in clear focus. They contend that plurilingualism “was coined by the Council of Europe to ensure the political and economic cohesion of the European Union” and was started “from a position of power by those who believed in the value of multilingualism for national integration into a neoliberal economy” (García and Otheguy, 2020, p. 24). Translanguaging, on the other hand, started “from a minoritized multilingual position that understood the effects that colonialism and nation-building had on the community's identity, language, and economy”, and “focused on working with bilingual students to ensure that they were able to perform their bilingualism in ways that reflected who they were as bilingual beings”.

1.4.1.2 *Languages as bounded entities*

Another distinction that is often made between translanguaging and plurilingual approaches relates to the extent to which languages are seen as bounded, separate entities (Canagarajah and Liyanage, 2012; Llompart *et al.*, 2020). According to Vallejo and Dooly (2020, p. 7), there is a stronger focus on “debunking” languages as bounded systems among scholars associated with translanguaging approaches. Leung and Valdés (2019, p. 359) identify two different analytic perspectives on this issue:

(a) languages are distinct and separate semiotic entities, and (b) languages are configurations of temporal lexical and syntactic features expressing human meaning. The first perspective is broadly in line with the well-established ‘mainstream’ view in language education, that English is different from Spanish, and that Spanish is different from Japanese and so on. ... The second view sees languages as bundles of lexical, syntactic, phonological, and orthographic features in use in specific places and times. These features can change and cross from one (named) language to another.

Indeed, post-structuralist approaches to the nature of language have questioned the very idea of languages as separate, fixed and bounded entities and instead view the notion of separate languages as an artificial construct (Blackledge, Creese and Takhi, 2014; Makoni and Pennycook, 2012), often based on historical or socio-political factors such as the rise of the nation state in the nineteenth century (Horner and Weber, 2018; Martin-Jones, Blackledge and Creese, 2012; Shin, 2018). Scholars who embrace this view of languages stress the fluid and intertwined nature of language in the brain, conceiving of the language(s) of bi- and multilingual people as a single entity (Blackledge, Creese and Takhi 2014; García and Flores, 2012; Makoni and Pennycook, 2012). However, others such as Cenoz and Gorter (2020) and Vallejo and Dooly (2020) posit that it is possible to embrace the notion of soft boundaries between languages, yet still accept the distinction between different named languages. While acknowledging that languages are social constructions with arbitrary boundaries, Cenoz and Gorter (2020, p. 306) state that “it is important to consider that speakers treat them as separate and are able to identify them”. They point out that multilingual speakers themselves often name their various languages and see them as distinct, even as they move effortlessly among them, often simultaneously. Ortega (2019) notes that while the DFG authors endorsed a non-essentialist view of language, emphasising language as a practice rather than a system, they did not reject the notion of named and countable languages. Ortega (2019, p. 29) believes that “conflicting ideologies of language can co-exist in ambivalent relation”. She considers the possibility of a continuum of code mixing in relation to bi/multilingual practices. At one extreme there can be clear-cut code switching, described as “alternating monolingualisms”; in the middle, there may be “code gliding”, involving multiple and unselfconscious weaving in and out of languages; and translanguaging, where language boundaries are said to be blurred or

fused, may have a place at the other extreme of the same code mixing continuum (Ortega, 2019, p.31).

1.4.1.3 Linguistic and communicative repertoires

Closely related to these views on ‘language’ are the concepts of linguistic and communicative ‘repertoires’, which language users deploy in order to communicate and engage with others. The authors of the DFG (2016, p. 37) refer to these as “[t]he dynamic and malleable repertoires of resources that L2 learners develop from their lifeworld experiences”.

In the updated descriptors for The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), there is a new focus on mediation, plurilingualism and pluricultural competence, in which plurilingual competence is considered as “the ability to call flexibly on an inter-related, uneven, plurilinguistic repertoire” (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 18). This development of a plurilinguistic repertoire is seen as a key attribute for mobility and utilitarian interests and also as a means to advance respect for the cultural heritage, linguistic diversity and languages of others (Kramsch and Yin, 2018; Vallejo and Dooly, 2020).

Although rejecting the idea of plurilingual competence in a ‘repertoire of languages’ based on varying levels of proficiency in a number of named languages, García and others (e.g. Blackledge and Creese, 2017; Hornberger and Link, 2012) also posit the idea of a complex linguistic repertoire deployed by bi- and multilingual speakers. For example, García and Otheguy (2020, p. 25) define translanguaging from a linguistic perspective as “the deployment of a speaker’s full linguistic repertoire without regard for watchful adherence to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named (and usually national and state) languages”. They describe the linguistic repertoire which bilinguals develop as “a single aggregation of lexical and structural resources ... not only a unitary repertoire, but also a unitary linguistic system, a single lexicon and a single grammar”.

Although much attention has been given to the linguistic repertoire in language education, language is only one among many semiotic multimodal resources in human

meaning-making and communication (Block, 2014; Hornberger and Link, 2012; Li Wei, 2016; Saville-Troike and Barto, 2017; Vallejo and Dooly, 2020). Rymes (2010, p. 528) defines a communicative repertoire as “the collection of ways individuals use language and literacy and other means of communication (gestures, dress, posture, accessories) to function effectively in the multiple communities in which they participate”. According to Blackledge and Creese (2017, p. 35), this repertoire “can include not only multiple languages, dialects, and registers in the institutionally defined sense, but also gesture, dress, posture, and even knowledge of communicative routines, familiarity with types of food or drink, and mass media references including phrases, dance moves, and recognizable intonation patterns that circulate via actors, musicians, and other superstars.” The biographical dimension of ‘repertoire’ is often highlighted to reflect the individual trajectories followed by people throughout their lives (DFG, 2016). These include: opportunities and constraints they faced; inequalities they experienced; learning environments they had or didn’t have access to; their movements across physical and social spaces; and their potential for voice in particular social arenas (Blackledge and Creese, 2017). Cenoz and Gorter (2019, p.131) describe the rich and dynamic trajectories and “linguistic biographies” that even young learners bring to language learning.

Many scholars link communicative repertoires and trajectories to sites where these linguistic, semiotic and social meaning-making resources are deployed, including linguistically complex educational, urban and digital spaces (Blackledge and Creese, 2018; Horner and Weber, 2018; Li Wei, 2014; Saville-Troike and Barto, 2017). As Blackledge and Creese (2017, p. 32) put it: “the extreme linguistic diversification of neighbourhoods generates complex linguistic repertoires layering the same social space”. However, while welcoming this focus on the multifaceted lived experiences of bi/multilingual people, May (2019) cautions against a preoccupation with and privileging of multilingual urban repertoires at the expense of the complex multilingualism of local, indigenous, and often rural varieties.

Horner and Weber (2018) point out that both monolingual and multilingual people possess communicative and linguistic repertoires. Even so-called monolinguals shuttle between codes, language varieties, registers and discourses (Canagarajah and Liyanage, 2012). Ortega (2019) describes how ‘true’ or ‘pure’ monolinguals with zero knowledge of other languages are hard to find, even in countries traditionally imagined as

monolingual. Cenoz and Gorter (2019) claim that a large number of people are neither fully monolingual nor bilingual. In fact, the distinction between monolinguals, bilinguals and multilinguals may no longer be sustainable according to Blackledge and Creese (2017). They suggest that contemporary semiotics are captured better in terms of complexity rather than plurality or multiplicity.

1.4.1.4 Pedagogic implications

The above trends in the study of bi/ multilingualism have important implications for the traditional views of teaching languages based on the isolation of the target language and reference to the ideal monolingual speaker.

Traditional objectives of second language teaching have focused on communicative competence in the target language, with native-speaker like proficiency as the ultimate learning goal (Cook, 2016b; Leung and Valdés, 2019; Seidlhofer, 2017). However, this perspective elevates linguistic ownership by virtue of the first language learned at birth to an unfair and unachievable target (Cenoz and Gorter, 2020; Ortega, 2019). It positions almost all language learners as ‘failed native speakers’, despite the fact that they are often highly skilled communicators (Cenoz and Gorter, 2020; Freeman, 2020; Ortega, 2016; Scott, 2016). This is a profoundly monolingual perspective, with no real appreciation of the linguistic skills, trajectories and repertoires of bilingual speakers and (emerging) bilingual learners. Many scholars posit that the development of late timed bi/multilingualism, multicompetence and multilingual communicative repertoires are more appropriate and achievable learning goals in second language education (Cook, 2016b; Freeman, 2020; Scott, 2016), and advocate for a move away from the narrow views of language learning experiences implied by monolingual perspectives (Cenoz and Gorter, 2019; Leung and Valdés, 2019; Ortega, 2019; Arber, Weinmann and Blackmore, 2021).

However, the native speaker hegemony continues to prevail in language teaching (Cenoz and Gorter, 2020; Ilieva and Ravindran, 2018; Kiczkowiak, Baines, and Krummenacher, 2016; Ortega, 2016). Moreover, as Leung and Valdés (2019, p. 357) explain, “this native speaker ... was constructed as a monolingual, educated native user of the prestige variety of the language”. According to Ortega (2019, p. 30), these purist

views of language, based on “what educated, white middle-class people speak, listen to and read”, often work to the detriment of “grassroots” multilinguals and “many marginalised monolinguals as well”. This ‘native-speakerism’ can result in linguistic insecurity, anxiety and low self-esteem, even among highly proficient language speakers and non-native speaking teachers of the target language (Cenoz and Gorter, 2020; Ortega, 2019). In ELT, even fluent speakers of English from the so-called outer circle (e.g. India, Nigeria, Malaysia) sometimes do not consider themselves ‘good’ speakers of English because of the variety of English which they speak (Cenoz and Gorter, 2020; Cook, 2016b). Their voices are rarely found in EFL textbooks or teaching materials. There is still preferential treatment for native English speaking teachers (NESTs⁵) from the inner circle (e.g. England, Ireland, Australia) in terms of recruitment and perceptions of the optimal model for language teaching (Cenoz and Gorter, 2020; Freeman, 2020; Molway, Arcos and Macaro, 2020). However, according to de Costa and Norton (2017), concepts of good language teaching are subject to changing pedagogical approaches. They posit that the transdisciplinary framework advanced by the DFG (2016) may have a powerful effect on the validation of the translingual identities and skillsets of bilingual language teachers, especially when situated against an increasingly multilingual and globalised backdrop. Gao (2019, p. 163) identifies the need for more research on the beliefs and skills of multilingual language teachers, who bring particular strengths to their work and “are role models that inspire and motivate”.

Exclusive use of the target language in the language classroom is one of the most obvious manifestations of the monolingual bias in language teaching pedagogical practices. Vallejo and Dooly (2020) use the acronym OLON (one-language-only) to describe the one language at a time policies prevalent in many educational contexts. Although increasingly challenged as a valid paradigm in the literature (Cenoz and Gorter, 2013; Cook, 2016a; Lee and Lo, 2017; Shin, 2018), this “monolingual principle” (Howatt, 1984, p. 135) continues to dominate in many language teaching contexts, particularly in foreign language teaching and in TESOL (Jenkins, 2017; Leung, 2014). This approach centres on the strict separation of languages in teaching

⁵ Although it is accepted by the author that the use of the terms non-native-English-speaker-teachers [NNESTs] and native-English-speaker-teachers [NESTs] can contribute to discriminatory practices and ‘native-speakerism’ in the ELT profession, these terms are used in this thesis for ease of reading and because an important focus of Publication Three involves comparing the views of NEST and NNEST trainers.

and learning and the complete avoidance of the students' L1 in the classroom (Cummins, 2009b; Cook, 2001; Ellis and Shintani, 2014).

1.4.1.5 Translanguaging pedagogies

A translanguaging stance has been described as a “way of thinking about and acting on the language practices of bilingual people” (García, Johnson, & Seltzer, 2017, p. ix). In terms of this pedagogical stance, translanguaging and plurilingual pedagogies have much in common (Vallejo and Dooly, 2020; Llompарт *et al.*, 2020; Meier, 2017). In both approaches, there is a focus on drawing on all the linguistic and other meaning-making resources and repertoires of the learner to maximise understanding, learning and achievement.

Definitions of translanguaging as well as pedagogies described as translanguaging are still evolving and frequently illustrate very different understandings of the term (García and Li Wei, 2014; Leung and Valdés, 2019). First used in the context of bilingual education in Wales, where translanguaging was based on a systematic alternation between Welsh and English for input and output in the classroom, it was envisaged as a way to provide scaffolding and support for learners in bilingual education contexts (Lewis, Jones and Baker, 2012). However, the concept has been re-interpreted and expanded by others to include a range of strategies using multiple languages (Blackledge and Creese, 2017; Cenoz and Gorter, 2017; Vallejo and Dooly, 2020). García envisages translanguaging as a pedagogy which seeks to celebrate the skilful language mixing of minoritized multilinguals and to counter the raciolinguistic practices and messages which are prevalent in schools (García, 2015; García, Johnson and Seltzer, 2017).

Cenoz and Gorter argue for an exploration of pedagogic translanguaging approaches in TESOL (2020) and also in the trilingual educational contexts in the Basque region where Spanish, Basque and English are all languages of instruction, but where the promotion and protection of Basque is a key goal of the school (2017). However, they distinguish between ‘spontaneous’ and ‘pedagogic’ translanguaging approaches, whereby spontaneous translanguaging refers to the creative, flexible and everyday language practices of bi/multilinguals and pedagogic translanguaging refers to

intentional or classroom translanguaging, which embraces instructional strategies that integrate two or more languages. They give examples of a number of pedagogical translanguaging strategies which encourage students “to behave like multilinguals when learning languages” (Cenoz and Gorter, 2017, p. 909). These include opportunities to see similarities and differences between languages, using different languages for input and output and other planned activities, using translation and bilingual readers, exploring the knowledge learners have about the status and use of different languages in society, and the development of multilingual identities (Cenoz and Gorter, 2017; 2020).

However, translanguaging pedagogies in the Basque context can be perceived as a threat by many educators, based on the “strong fear that Basque might just disappear if it is mixed with Spanish” (Cenoz and Gorter, 2017, p. 905). A key principle of a pedagogic translanguaging approach in this context would involve what Cenoz and Gorter (2017, p. 909) describe as “breathing spaces” for the minority language, periods during which only one language would be used and where there would be no competition from other languages. These periods would complement other classroom periods during which pedagogic translanguaging practices would take place. As Cenoz and Gorter (2017) point out, Spanish-English bilingual contexts in New York are not the same as Spanish-Basque educational contexts in northern Spain. A context where majority language children learn through the medium of a minority language is very different to an urban multilingual school context, where the languages of the linguistically minoritized learners (e.g. Punjabi or Spanish) are not usually considered as ‘vulnerable’ or endangered. This highlights the importance of the particular educational context as an important consideration in any discussion of translanguaging pedagogies, which can be envisaged as a powerful tool for social justice in one context and a potential threat to vulnerable languages in another (Leung and Valdés, 2019; Cenoz and Gorter, 2017).

1.4.1.6 Foreign language teaching and learning

The multilingual turn has not been readily adopted among many language teaching practitioners and policy makers on the ground (Dailey-O’Cain and Liebscher, 2015; Hawkins and Cannon, 2017; Vallejo and Dooly, 2020) and in foreign language teaching contexts in particular (Anderson, 2018; Kramsch, 2014; Leung and Valdés, 2019;

Turnbull, 2018). Ortega (2019) also acknowledges that concepts such as translanguaging, metrolingualism and translingual practices often attract scepticism in many foreign language teaching quarters, where hard boundaries and strict language separation between different foreign languages is a key paradigm. Many foreign language teachers may not feel that encouraging multilingual practices in the classroom is part of their mission (Kramsch, 2014), or may find it difficult to accept the idea that languages should not be taught as separate entities but in inter-relationship with the learner's existing language practices (Cenoz and Gorter, 2020). In addition, as Ortega (2019, p. 32) points out, "[l]anguage educators working in foreign language contexts are generally averse to translanguaging because their main concern has always been with maximising use of the target language during instruction". Testing and assessment which would allow students to deploy their full communicative repertoire has also been identified as a particular challenge (Cenoz and Gorter, 2019; Llopart *et al.*, 2020; Seidlhofer, 2017; Vallejo and Dooley, 2020).

Kramsch (2014) describes how the intensified globalisation of the modern world has destabilized the codes, norms and conventions of foreign language teaching, bringing about fundamental changes and challenging some of the self-evident truths about the nature of language, language learning and the contexts where learners will use their languages and deploy their communicative repertoires. Foreign language teachers are faced with the complex epistemological tension between, on the one hand, preparing learners to reflect on and interact with native speakers whose national language, history, geography and culture are different from their own and, on the other hand, preparing them to engage with other multilingual speakers who speak a variety of regional, ethnic and immigrant languages in highly diverse, multicultural neighbourhoods and spaces (Kramsch and Yin, 2018). The need for training and guidance for language teachers who are used to traditional, monolingual approaches and models of teaching is apparent (Canagarajah and Liyanage, 2012; Meier, 2017). Gao (2019) suggests that profound critical reflection by language teaching educators and practitioners in relation to the very nature of language teaching and how they understand their professional work is now required.

1.4.2 Teacher beliefs and cognition

Language Teacher Cognition (LTC) has been described as “the invisible dimension of teachers’ mental lives” (Kubanyiova and Feryok, 2015, p. 435). Although a well-researched area in mainstream education for some time, there has been particular interest in the cognition of second and foreign language teachers in recent decades. This focus has quickly become a rapidly expanding field of enquiry (Barnard and Burns, 2012; Borg and Alshumaimeri, 2019; Song, 2015). The following sections provide a brief overview of LTC, firstly in terms of the definition and scope of the concept within the field of LTE and, secondly, regarding the relationship between language teacher beliefs and classroom practices, the latter being a key focus of LTC research to date. Issues around how LTC pertains to other research areas within LTE, namely reflective practice, professional learning and development, and curricular reform, are also considered.

1.4.2.1 Definition and scope of Language Teacher Cognition

Borg (2003, p.81) defined LTC as the “unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe and think”. He later included other constructs such as identity, attitudes and emotion to his definition, “in recognition of the fact that these are all aspects of the unobservable dimension of teaching” (Borg 2012, p.11). Although emotion has typically been viewed in opposition to cognition, Borg (2012) believes it should “in no way” be excluded from research on language teacher cognition, “given that our learning and actions as professionals are shaped by our emotional responses to our experiences” (Borg 2012, p. 12). LTC refers to teachers’ personal histories and personal value systems, their beliefs about the world and about teaching and learning, their previous learning experiences, their knowledge about language systems, language teaching and language learners, and their teaching experiences in various contexts, what Kubanyiova (2015, p. 567) calls “the rich tapestry of their mental lives”. It explores how these invisible inner dimensions come to shape the decisions teachers make about their teaching and what they do in their classrooms (Borg, 2011a; Barnard and Burns, 2012; Feryok and Oranje, 2015; Kubanyiova, 2015). LTC is a central part of

understanding what it means to be, become and develop as a teacher and is of central relevance to the field of LTE (Borg, 2011a; Crookes, 2015; Kubanyiova and Feryok, 2015; Moodie and Feryok, 2015). Often conceived as an individual, cognitive process, there has been a decided shift towards more holistic, ecological and situated positions on cognition in recent research (Borg 2018; Barnard and Burns, 2012; Kubanyiova and Feryok, 2015; Burns, Freeman and Edwards, 2015; Johnson, 2019), which highlights the socially and historically constructed framing of cognition and the importance of the collective settings and communities of practice in which the inner lives of teachers find expression. Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015, p. 440) argue for the use of the term “intentionality”, drawing from its conceptualisation in psychology and philosophy, to capture the inter-connections between the traditional mental faculties of cognition, emotion and motivation, which are central to agency. They argue that this lens would broaden the scope of the ‘inner life’ of teachers to include the full range of individual intentional mental processes and purposeful action and situate these ‘inner lives’ within larger environments, especially the classroom but also education institutions and other social contexts which involve “collective intentionality” and “collective purposeful actions”.

1.4.2.2 Language teacher beliefs and practices

One of the most researched sub-elements of the larger field of LTC relates to the beliefs of teachers. Richards (1996) describes a range of conscious and unconscious maxims or belief systems which guide teachers’ behaviours and decision-making in the classroom and which vary according to context and develop with experience. Basturkmen (2012, p. 282) defines the beliefs which teachers bring to the classroom as “evaluative propositions which teachers hold consciously or unconsciously and which they accept as true while recognising that other teachers may hold alternative beliefs on the same issue”. Although many studies focus on a single set of beliefs, Borg (2018) describes how teachers hold a multitude of complex, multidimensional beliefs about many different things. Some beliefs are more stable than others and will carry more or less weight in and across the complex network of belief systems held by teachers. Phipps and Borg (2009, p. 388) distinguish between “core” beliefs, which they see as “experientially engrained”, and “peripheral” beliefs, which they describe as

“theoretically embraced [but not] held with the same level of conviction”. Core beliefs exert a more powerful influence on behaviour than peripheral beliefs (Borg, 2018; Basturkman, 2012).

Studies which focus on the beliefs of language teachers often centre around the relationship between teaching beliefs and pedagogical practices. Early studies conceptualised this relationship as one-directional in nature, viewing beliefs as a powerful influence on classroom practices. However, many scholars (e.g., Borg, 2018; Farrell, 2016; Sun, Wei and Young, 2020) now view the relationship as bi-directional and interactional in nature. They theorize that while beliefs exert a strong influence on classroom actions and practices, classroom experiences and conscious reflection on these experiences, in turn, influence beliefs. Borg (2018, p.79) posits that the reciprocal relationship between beliefs and practices captures “the complex manner in which beliefs and practices interact over the course of a teacher’s professional life”. However, he believes further longitudinal research is needed to appreciate the full dialectical relationship between beliefs and practices (Borg, 2018).

The alignment between teachers’ beliefs and their classroom practices has been a particular focus of LTC research. Borg (2018, p. 77) compares the “espoused” or “stated” beliefs of teachers with their “enacted beliefs” or “beliefs in action”. Espoused beliefs refer to what teachers say they believe and enacted beliefs are those beliefs which can be inferred from what they actually do. Enacted beliefs can only be inferred because the beliefs themselves are not directly observable. According to Basturkman (2012), stated beliefs are not always a reliable guide to classroom realities. Zhu and Shu (2017) describe espoused beliefs as theoretical and top-down in nature, and often corresponding to teachers’ perceptions of the ‘ideal teacher’. They describe enacted beliefs as more implicit constructs, which are more likely to correspond to the reality of teachers’ practice. In her review of a number of studies which focused on this issue, Basturkmen (2012) identified three factors in particular which may affect the alignment between teachers’ beliefs and practices. These are: the context, particularly in relation to situational constraints (e.g. curricula, institutional policies, examinations, timetabling) which may prevent teachers from putting their beliefs into practice; the relative experience of the teacher, whereby alignment between beliefs and practices was found to be more evident among experienced teachers than with novice or less experienced teachers; and planned versus incidental aspects to teaching, whereby a

corresponding relationship was identified between stated beliefs and pre-designed and planned classroom activities, approaches and techniques. Sun, Wei and Young (2020) identify contextual factors as also important, in that teachers may hold generic, de-contextualised and abstract beliefs about a particular teaching approach or technique and consider these as not directly applicable to a context-specific situation. Borg (2018) cautions against overgeneralising on this issue on the basis of a relatively limited number of case studies, and calls for more research on the multifaceted factors which may affect the impact of teacher beliefs on the decision-making processes of teachers.

A discrepancy between teachers' beliefs and practices has often been framed as undesirable (Sun, Wei and Young, 2020; Thornbury, 2011). However, many scholars regard inconsistencies and tensions between different beliefs as normal and to be expected (e.g., Oranje and Smith, 2018; Burns, Freeman and Edwards, 2015). Borg (2018) explains that if, for example, a teacher's classroom practice seems at odds with a stated belief, this may be because the practice aligns more with a core belief, whereas the stated belief may align with a more peripheral belief. Beliefs are dynamic, complex and multi-layered. Borg and Alshumaimeri (2019, p. 30) suggest: "it is more productive to think of teachers' cognitions as being characterized by systems of competing forces which vie for implementational supremacy".

Borg (2018) and Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) are critical of approaches to LTC research which contrasts 'before' elicitations of the stated beliefs of teachers (for example, in response to a set of statements in a questionnaire) with 'after' observations of classroom practice. According to Borg and Alshumaimeri (2019), this type of study may identify mis-matches between stated beliefs and practices, but does not critically engage with the many factors that can cause discrepancies between the two.

Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) question the dichotomy which is often assumed between beliefs and actions. They suggest that these should not be viewed as distinct and separate from each other, but, more holistically, as dynamic and interacting entities. They posit that the practices of teachers are best understood, "not as spaces in which reified mental constructs, such as beliefs, may or may not be applied", but as "emergent sense making in action" (Kubanyiova and Feryok, 2015, pp. 437 - 438). They call for more bottom-up approaches to LTC research which would explore the beliefs and practices of teachers in a more holistic way (Kubanyiova and Feryok, 2015).

Borg and Alshumaimeri (2019) highlight the importance of providing a rationale for conducting research which centres on identifying gaps between what teachers say they believe and what they actually do. Borg (2018, p. 78) provides a list of reasons why an analysis of teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to a particular issue may be of value. These include: helping teachers recognise the gaps between their beliefs and practices in order to promote cognitive dissonance which can stimulate teacher change; highlighting the need for professional development in a particular area; or providing a starting point for educational innovation and reform (Borg, 2018).

1.4.2.3 Language Teacher Cognition and reflective practices

LTC research has been closely linked to the domain of teacher reflection and reflective practice (Song, 2015; Borg, 2011a; Gao, 2019; Kubanyiova and Feryok, 2015; Li, 2019). Anderson (2020b, p. 480) defines reflection in teaching contexts as “conscious, experientially informed thought, at times involving aspects of evaluation, criticality, and problem-solving, and leading to insight, increased awareness, and/or new understanding”.

Farrell and Kennedy (2019) describe the growing recognition that language teachers must constantly re-shape their knowledge of teaching and learning throughout their careers. This re-shaping is best done under the umbrella of reflective practice; unless teachers are aware of their decision-making processes, they cannot improve or develop (Farrell, 2016). Becoming consciously aware of and externalising their everyday inner understandings, beliefs and cognitions in relation to language learning and teaching has been identified as a useful exercise for language teachers (Johnson, 2019; Kubanyiova and Feryok, 2015; Svalberg, 2015). Farrell and Kennedy (2019, p. 2) advocate for a holistic approach to reflective practice which would incorporate a “post-mortem”, retrospective analysis of teaching events alongside “the personal, spiritual, and emotional” aspects of reflection. This approach involves a focus on the technical aspects of teachers' practice as well as internal (teacher philosophies, principles, beliefs) and external (social, cultural and political settings) aspects of their cognition. Many scholars (e.g.; Borg, 2011b; Anderson, 2020b; Coffey, 2015; Farr and Riordan, 2015; Farrell, 2016; Golombek, 2015) have provided suggestions for ways in which reflection on the inner lives of teachers could be structured such as: reflective journals and blogs as a

way for teachers to examine their instructional practices and identities as well as explore beliefs and experiences concerning teaching and learning; language autobiographies and other biographically responsive reflective practices through which teachers can understand the formative influence of past educational and professional experiences on their current beliefs; and discussion forums and interactive online chats which provide communal opportunities for teachers to talk about their beliefs and practices. Farrell (2016) has designed a 5-level reflection framework for teachers which explores the philosophies, principles (assumptions, beliefs and conceptions), theories (decision-making processes), practices and sociocultural dimensions of teaching and learning in TESOL contexts. He describes how participants found having opportunities to explore and sometimes challenge their current practices beneficial, especially when they noted any tensions between their philosophy, principles, theory and practice (Farrell, 2016).

1.4.2.4 Relevance of Language Teaching Cognition research to professional development and education

LTC research makes an important contribution to wider issues pertaining to the education and professional development of language teachers (Borg, 2018; Crookes, 2015; Li, 2019; Moodie and Feryok, 2015). Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) believe the central mission of LTC research relates to understanding how the inner lives of teachers affect how they structure classroom experiences and interact with their students. Song (2015) suggests that such knowledge about teachers' cognition can provide valuable insights for the design and delivery of teacher education and professional development programmes. However, there have been inconsistent findings in relation to the effects of pre- and in-service teacher education on the belief systems of teachers (Anderson, 2020a; Borg, 2011b; Horii, 2015; Molway, Arcos and Macaro, 2020; Song, 2015). Borg (2018) posits a number of reasons why this might be the case, including the particular profile of the participants in terms of motivation, previous experience etc.; the competence of the teacher educator; and the focus, design and context of the programme.

Research has identified beliefs which have been forged out of experiential learning in the classroom as the most stable (Borg, 2009; Johnson, 2019; Moodie and Feryok, 2015). This has implications for teacher education programmes and in-service

workshops and seminars. Traditionally, the assumption has been that following a focus on the value of new strategies or techniques by the teacher educator, these approaches are then incorporated into the teacher's own teaching and belief systems (Borg, 2018). However, this linear progression does not seem to happen consistently; several studies suggest it is only after experiencing success with new approaches and techniques that the teacher buys into them (Anderson, 2020a; Horii, 2015). Johnson (2019, p. 168) explains that "what language teachers learn from reading an introductory SLA course book will be fundamentally different from what they learn if they are meaningfully engaging with SLA concepts while they are learning to teach or in the actual activities of teaching". Borg (2018) calls for a practical experiential dimension to teacher education programmes.

Scholars associated with LTC (e.g. Borg, 2018; Kubanyiova and Feryok, 2015) consider providing opportunities for participants to engage with, confront and examine what they know, think and believe about language teaching and learning to be an important element of LTE programmes. Svalberg (2015, p. 541) describes how "cognitive conflict" can be a tool to "make student teachers aware of gaps in their knowledge, thereby focusing their attention on specific issues". Farrell (2016) identifies the role played by experienced facilitators on teacher education programmes, who provide stimuli for discussion in order to encourage reflective practices through feedback and guidance. Johnson (2019, p. 169) describes mediational strategies and awareness raising techniques used by teacher educators which push participants to consider a broader conceptualisation of pedagogy "in ways that enable them to re-imagine and re-conceptualize their lived experiences". However, as Johnson and Golombek (2020) point out, it is important to bear in mind that both language teacher educators and teachers enter LTE programmes with a range of emotions, personal histories, beliefs, knowledge and experience as languages learners. They argue for a greater focus on language teacher educators themselves in relation to what they do and what they believe, know, think and feel about their own mediation practices and language teaching pedagogy (Johnson and Golombek, 2020).

1.4.2.5 LTC and curricular reform

The role of LTC in curricular reform and the facilitation of paradigm shifts in language teaching approaches and methodologies has been identified (Liu, Mishan and Chambers, 2021; Sun, Wei and Young, 2020; Zhu and Shu, 2017). According to Zhu and Shu (2017), deeply entrenched beliefs and assumptions can hinder the intake of innovative principles and approaches. In addition, sustained commitment, investment and perseverance are required of teachers as they translate their intention and willingness to implement change into concrete classroom actions (Moodie and Feryok, 2015). Feryok and Oranje (2015, p. 560) describe “threats” to the commitment of teachers towards new practices (such as physical conditions in the classroom or the motivation of learners) as “an issue that bedevils teacher uptake of ideas in professional development”. Change in the attitudes and commitment of teachers towards curricular transformation and innovation takes time and requires a profound engagement with the beliefs, assumptions, emotions, identities and perspectives of teachers in their local contexts, through a combination of top-down, experiential and reflective approaches (Sun, Wei and Young, 2020; Zhu and Shu, 2017).

Barnard and Burns (2012, p. 2) describe teachers as the “executive decision-makers of the curriculum” because it is they who put curriculum innovation and reforms, often mandated by others, into practice. As Borg and Alshumaimeri (2019, p. 10) put it in the case of learner autonomy, “what [learner autonomy] means to teachers will thus impact on how much and how teachers promote it”. According to Barnard and Burns (2012, p. 2), “failure ... to take into account what teachers believe and know about language teaching will lead to failure to realise the intended curriculum”.

Kramsch (2014) describes the rapidly changing realities faced by language teachers in the modern classroom. In response to this, Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) advocate for researchers in the field of LTC to engage with these rapid changes in the linguistic, cultural and socio-political landscapes which globalisation has brought about and with the implications of these changes for both language teachers and language teacher educators around the world. LTC research which focuses on issues relating to teachers’ own plurilingual repertoires (Coffey, 2015) and to the beliefs, agency and identities of NNESTs in particular have been identified as an important area of further study (de

Costa and Norton, 2017; Ilieva and Ravindran, 2018; Kiczkowiak, Baines and Krummenacher, 2016). According to Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015, p. 442): “language teacher cognition must reconfigure its research agenda to include the ways in which language teachers come to terms with the dynamic, socially embedded, and unpredictable nature of language and meaning making ..., with the radical changes in conceptualizing communicative and intercultural competence in multilingual settings ..., and with the shifting emphasis from the monolingual native speaker model to learners’ multilingual competencies and repertoires as the basis for successful language teaching and learning”. In her consideration of the transdisciplinary framework advocated by the DFG (2016), Johnson (2019, p. 168) asserts that this multilingual re-imagining of SLA “must be positioned in conjunction with a comprehensive, theoretically grounded understanding of teachers’ cognitive development”.

1.5 Conclusion

To conclude, theories relating to the multilingual turn in SLA and language teacher cognition underpin the three studies which make up this dissertation. The PhD centres on monolingual teaching practices in TEFL contexts and explores, in particular, what both EFL teachers and teacher educators know, think, believe and feel about the use of the L1 in their professional practices and how the students’ L1 might be used to enhance learning. Particular attention is paid to the idea of the classroom as a bilingual space and to how this issue is addressed on pre-service teacher education programmes.

Chapter two provides an overview of the methodological approaches and decisions taken in relation to the design and data analysis of the three studies. This is followed by the publications themselves, which are presented in chronological order. The final chapter explores the overall findings of the three publications and their implications for teaching and learning in EFL teaching and teacher education contexts.

Chapter Two: Methodology

2.1 Overview

In this chapter, I will outline the methodological approach and decisions made over the course of the PhD project. It will firstly look at the broad ontological and epistemological approach taken in relation to the PhD as a whole and then at methodological choices and decisions made in relation to each of the three studies. Methods of data collection and analysis for each study are explained as well as issues relating to research rigour, trustworthiness and ethics.

2.1.2 Research paradigms

Cohen, Manion and Morrison. (2018) explain how an exploration of research methods is not just a technical exercise but is concerned with our understanding of the world and informed by how we view the world, what we consider to be the purposes of understanding, and what we deem valuable. These values and beliefs inform our ontological assumptions (assumptions about the nature of reality and the nature of things) and give rise to epistemological assumptions (ways of researching and enquiring into the nature of reality and the nature of things.). Maxwell (2009, p. 224) refers to research paradigms as a set of very general philosophical assumptions which “tend to be shared by researchers working in a specific field or tradition” and which also “typically include specific methodological strategies linked to these assumptions”.

Although recognising that there is ongoing debate about the paradigms which researchers bring to inquiry, Creswell and Creswell (2018) focus on four main paradigms or worldviews which are widely discussed in the literature: postpositivist, constructivist, transformative and pragmatic. Creswell and Creswell (2018, p. 5) define these worldviews as “a general philosophical orientation about the world and the nature of research that a researcher brings to a study.” A postpositive worldview involves a deterministic philosophy which sees behaviour and action as governed by laws of cause and effect. Knowledge which is developed through a postpositivist lens entails “the careful observation and measurement of objective reality that exists ‘out there’ in the

world” (Creswell and Creswell, 2018, p. 7). Proponents of this worldview see the world in terms of the laws and theories which govern it, which can be tested and refined.

Postpositivism is associated with quantitative approaches to research. The constructivist worldview is one which sees reality as shaped by human experiences and social contexts, and accepts the varied and multiple meanings with which participants make sense of the world. These socially-constructed meanings are context-specific and “are formed through interactions with others ... and through historical and cultural norms that operate in individuals’ lives” (Creswell and Creswell, 2018, p. 8).

Researchers within this paradigm try to understand the complex meanings others have about the world, accepting that their own backgrounds and beliefs will influence these interpretations. Researchers working within the transformative worldview go beyond the constructivist paradigm and hold that research needs to be intertwined with political advocacy to effect social change. They are particularly concerned with issues around empowerment, inequality, alienation and social justice. The focus is often on the lives and experiences of groups whose lives are constrained by oppression based on gender, class, race etc. and on ways “to resist, challenge and subvert these constraints”

(Creswell and Creswell, 2018, p.10). Both constructivist and transformative worldviews are associated with qualitative research. Pragmatism on the other hand draws on both quantitative and qualitative assumptions in order to address the aims of a particular study. Researchers within this paradigm do not see truth in binary terms of ‘out there’ or ‘within the mind’ and are not committed to one system of philosophy or reality over another. They choose “the methods, techniques and procedures of research that best suit their needs and purposes” (Creswell and Creswell, 2018, p.10). This worldview is associated with mixed methods research.

According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018, p. 19), Creswell’s constructivist worldview is closely allied to what they label ‘naturalistic and interpretive’ paradigms, in which the concept of the researcher as a detached objective observer of the world ‘out there’ is rejected and replaced by the view that researchers understand and explain social reality from inside, through the eyes of different participants, who themselves define this social reality. The research leading to the three publications in this project was underpinned by a constructivist-interpretive position based on my belief that social reality is largely relative and co-constructed in nature and my desire to investigate the subjective world of human experience and behaviour from within. The overarching

goal of my research was to explore the beliefs, attitudes and responses of the participants (teachers, teacher trainers and learners) in relation to the use of the L1 in English language teaching contexts with a view to informing teacher training and materials design.

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018, p. 9) argue that paradigms should not drive the research and may not even be necessary in order to conduct research. However, “they can help clarify and organise the thinking about the research”. Researchers can draw on one or more paradigms to do this. Paradigms have blurred edges and can overlap, with many variations within each of them. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018), they should not be seen as mutually exclusive. Although a constructivist worldview underpinned the research leading to all three publications, elements of a pragmatic approach were evident in the use of a quasi-experiment for the study leading to Publication One, and Publication Three was concerned with issues around native-speakerism which drew from a transformative paradigm.

2.1.3 Methodology

Creswell and Creswell (2018) stress that the worldviews they describe contribute to a research approach which tends to be quantitative, qualitative or mixed methods. Silverman (2005, p. 99) defines a methodology as “the choices we make about cases to study, methods of data gathering, forms of data analysis etc. in planning and executing a research study”, and “may be defined very broadly (e.g. qualitative or quantitative) or more narrowly (e.g. grounded theory or conversation analysis)”. A broadly qualitative methodology seemed the most suitable for my purposes. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018, p. 288) describe qualitative research as providing “an in-depth intricate and detailed understanding of meanings, actions, non-observable as well as observable phenomena, attitudes, intentions and behaviours.” According to Maxwell (2009, p. 221), “[i]n a qualitative study, you are interested not only in the physical events and behavior taking place, but also in how the participants in your study make sense of these and how their understandings influence their behaviour”. These perspectives are part of the reality the researcher is trying to understand. “This focus on meaning is central to what is known as the ‘interpretive’ approach to social science” (Maxwell, 2009, p. 221).

I wanted to find out about the cognitions, attitudes, assumptions and beliefs of EFL teachers and teacher trainers in relation to the use of the L1 in their teaching and also how learners responded to bilingual activities. It seemed clear that finding out about these things would involve accessing multiple voices in an open-ended and exploratory way, hearing and seeing in depth what the participants said and felt about their experiences.

Thematic analysis of the data was used for all three studies although different methods of data collection and different cohorts of participants were used in each one. According to Guest, MacQueen and Namey (2012, p. 11), “a thematic analysis is still the most useful in capturing the complexities of meaning within a textual data set. It is also the most commonly used method of analysis in qualitative research”. Similarly to Grounded Theory, thematic analysis approaches are concerned with ensuring that the interpretations identified by the researcher are supported by and congruent with the raw data, but unlike Grounded Theory, the envisaged outcomes are not necessarily focused on developing a theoretical model. Similarly to Phenomenology, the focus of thematic analysis is on subjective human experience and interpretations of reality, but, in the case of my three studies, the focus was less on the lived experiences of individuals and more on the wider exploration of a topic, i.e. the use of the L1 in English language teaching contexts. Likewise, I was less interested in analysis which focused on gaining a complete picture of individual teachers, learners and/or institutions such as in a case study approach and more in identifying broader issues and themes arising across the dataset in relation to the topic. A discourse analysis approach involving a focus on the actual language used by the participants was rejected as a method of analysis as was Content Analysis because this method tends to focus on quantifiable measures to interpret the data (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2018), which I felt would not always capture complex meanings as effectively as thematic analysis techniques. Thematic analysis allows the researcher a great deal of freedom and flexibility within a broadly qualitative approach, without being tied to a more prescriptive methodology. I found I enjoyed coding and looking for patterns in qualitative data and, over the course of my PhD studies, I focused on deepening my expertise with thematic analysis techniques and procedures rather than on experimenting with other methodologies. (Thematic analysis procedures are described in more detail in Section 2.3.)

2.1.3 Research objectives

The overarching theme for the PhD involves an exploration of attitudes and beliefs around mono- and bi/multilingual practices in English language teaching contexts. The research objectives underpinning the studies leading to the three publications were:

- [1] to explore the attitudes, beliefs and cognitions of educators in ELT towards using the L1 of the learners in language teaching [addressed in Publications Two, Three];
- [2] to identify the extent to which ELT practitioners view their students as (emerging) bilinguals and the classroom as a bilingual space [addressed in Publications Two, Three];
- [3] to consider the role of the teaching context in pedagogic decisions around using the L1 in the classroom [addressed in Publications One, Two, Three]; and
- [4] to examine the potential role of bilingual instructional perspectives and techniques to enhance language learning [addressed in Publications One, Two, Three].

Table 3 provides an overview of the research approach and methodology for the three publications.

Table 3: Overview of methodology for the three publications

	Publication one	Publication two	Publication three
Purpose	To explore the effectiveness (or otherwise) of using the emerging bilingual skills of the students as a teaching and learning tool in a Geography through English CLIL classroom	To explore the views and practices of EFL teachers in relation to codeswitching and the use of the L1 in the classroom and the extent to which their particular teaching context plays a role in this	To explore the views of CELTA trainers in relation to the use of the L1 in English language teaching and how this issue is addressed on the teacher training courses they worked on
Research Questions	Is the use of codeswitching/translanguaging between the native language and	1. To what extent and in what ways do EFL teachers use or allow the	1. To what extent and in what ways is the use of the language learners'

	the language of instruction during content-related tasks a useful technique for drawing students' attention to particular linguistic features of the CLIL vehicular language?	<p>learners to use their L1 in their classes?</p> <p>2. What are the attitudes and beliefs of EFL teachers regarding the use of the L1 and the emerging bi-/multilingual skills of learners in the language classroom?</p> <p>3. To what extent and in what ways do these practices and beliefs vary depending on whether the teaching takes place in shared-L1 or multilingual contexts?</p>	<p>L1 addressed on CELTA training courses?</p> <p>2. What are the views of CELTA trainers towards the use of the L1 in English language teaching?</p> <p>3. To what extent and in what ways are the views of trainers for whom English is an L1 different to those for whom English is an L2?</p>
Approach	<p>Constructivist; Interpretive / elements of pragmatic paradigms</p> <p>Qualitative methodology</p>	<p>Constructivist; Interpretive paradigm</p> <p>Qualitative methodology</p>	<p>Constructivist; Interpretive / elements of transformative paradigms</p> <p>Qualitative methodology</p>
Sample population	58 students (aged 14 to 15 years) of mixed ability and mixed gender in a bilingual (CLIL) Geography through English stream in a secondary school in Italy	24 teachers who teach or have taught English in both (1) multilingual contexts in which the learners typically do not share a common L1 and (2) contexts in which the learners typically share an L1 other than English	77 CELTA trainers who use English either as an L1 or as an L2
Methods of data collection	Quasi experiment followed by stimulated recall	Semi-structured face-to-face interviews	Qualitative online survey
Methods of data analysis	Qualitative data analysis (Creswell 2014; 2018)	Thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke 2006; 2013)	Thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke 2006; 2013)

2.1.4 My personal stance

Reflexivity and critical reflection are important elements of the research process. I understand qualitative research to be a subjective exercise in many ways, in which the researcher “brings [their] own histories, values, assumptions, perspectives, politics and mannerisms into the research” (Braun and Clarke, 2013, p. 36). Below is my “researcher identity memo” (Maxwell, 2009, p. 225), which outlines my personal stance in relation to the research and which was used to critically reflect on my role in decisions made about the direction and shape of the research process. I discuss reflexivity in more detail later in the chapter.

Researcher Identity Memo

I am in late middle age and have been involved in English language teaching for almost forty years, both as an EFL/ESL teacher and as a CELTA trainer, mainly in Ireland but also in a number of other countries, including Sudan, Italy, Spain, Australia, the US and Portugal. I have taught at all levels of proficiency in a wide range of contexts. I have also been involved in the design and publication of ELT teaching and teacher-support materials. I come from what I consider to be a privileged middle-class, White, Irish background. I studied English literature and Classics at university and completed several post-graduate teaching programmes (H. DipEd, RSA/DTEFLA and M. Ed). I am a native speaker of English, which I believe has been a major advantage in my career. However, I speak with a Dublin accent, which from time to time has engendered disparaging comments and ‘surprise’ on the part of others, particularly earlier in my career when attending conferences or seminars outside Ireland. Although I lived in non-English speaking countries for many years and have had contact with many other languages, I am not a fluent user of an additional language(s). I favour a meaning-based, communicative, task-based approach to language teaching using FonF (Focus on Form) and inductive approaches to language development, although I often take a more flexible, eclectic position in order to take account of the varied learning styles and preferences of my students. Until relatively recently (about ten years ago), I had considered an L2-only approach as best practice in EFL, but had never reflected greatly on the role of the L1 in language teaching and learning, either in general terms or in relation to different teaching contexts. As a CELTA trainer in the 90s and 00s, I promoted an ‘English-only’ approach with trainees. My views on this continue to evolve.

2.2 Generating data

The method of generating data was different for each of the three studies. The following sub-sections outline the procedures used for the collection of data in relation to each publication.

2.2.1 Data collection: Publication One

For the study which led to Publication One, a stimulated recall (SR) method of generating data was used. Mackey and Gass (2016, p. 87) describe SR as “a means by which a researcher, in an effort to explore a learner’s thought processes or strategies, can prompt the learner to recall and report thoughts that he or she had while performing a task or participating in an event.”

The study took place in a large secondary school in a small town in Northern Italy and involved two parallel Geography through English classes. Students were of mixed ability, mixed gender and were aged 14 to 15 years. For the purposes of the study, one of the groups (30 students) was used as a treatment and the other (29 students) as a control group. The SR activity was preceded by an in-class teaching intervention which took place the day before and which focused on using the emerging bilingual skills of the students as a language teaching and learning tool. The students in the control group completed a task in English. The students in the treatment group used their translation skills to complete the same task in Italian (the L1 for all of the students in the group). The intervention task is described in more detail in Publication One.

This second part of the study involved generating feedback on the task the following day. Using SR techniques, the participants focused on the task they had completed the previous day and provided a written report on their reactions to it. Mackey and Gass (2016) distinguish SR from other kinds of introspective verbal reporting in educational research, but identify it as a useful mechanism for exploring cognitive processes. Verbal ‘think-aloud’ techniques conducted concurrently with the ‘experiment’ were not considered practical or suitable for this study because of timetabling issues, lack of the required technological resources and issues around the use of the L1. Instead, students

were asked to recall their reactions during the task on the previous day. Mackey and Gass (2016) recommend several procedures when using this method of data collection to avoid pitfalls related to memory retrieval and to avoid ‘leading’ the learners towards writing what they think the researcher wants. Firstly, data should be collected as soon as possible after the event that is the focus of the recall to allow for short-term memory retrieval. As Mackey and Gass (2016, p. 88) put it, “[r]etrieval from long-term memory may result in recall interference ... because the event is not sharply focused in their memories”. They also recommend using a strong stimulus to activate memory. In the case of this study, the SR task took place the following day. It was not possible to do this earlier due to timetabling issues; the student’s completed dictation task from the previous day was returned to each student to stimulate the recall. To avoid ‘leading’ the participants, Mackey and Gass (2016, p. 88) recommend minimal training of the participants - enough for them to be able to carry out the procedure, but they “should not be cued into any aspects that are extra or unnecessary knowledge. ... Often simple instructions and a direct model will be enough in a stimulated recall procedure”. In the case of Publication One, the linguistic focus of the ‘experiment’ was unknown to the students, and they were not informed about the substance of the study except that the researchers:

would like to investigate the use of a CLIL teaching technique in the Geography class and to see if it helps students learn more effectively. The researchers have prepared a small number of exercises which the students will complete in class. It is hoped that this study will give researchers and teachers in this area some insights into the learning process in a CLIL classroom

(from the *plain language and informed consent form* given to parents and students who participated in the study.)

Students were not aware that there was a control and a treatment group or which one they belonged to. (Research Ethics Approval is covered in more detail in Section 2.5.)

The SR exercise consisted of two parts, a feedback questionnaire followed by a free writing exercise in response to a number of given headings. The feedback questionnaire was one regularly used by their teacher and so the students were used to the format and did not require any further instructions. This feedback sheet consisted of a short questionnaire with closed and open-ended questions. The closed questions comprised a

number of statements using Likert scale responses which focused on whether the students had liked /disliked the task; whether they had found it easy / difficult to do; and on whether they found it useful / not useful for [1] Geography content learning and [2] their English language development. The Likert scale questions were included because that is what the students were familiar with in feedback forms, but these responses were not used in the analysis. The students were able to write additional comments in boxes below the Likert scale statements and were also asked open-ended questions in which they identified what they liked and what they didn't like about the task. This was the normal feedback sheet used by their classroom teacher; the students were used to completing this and, therefore, I didn't make any changes to this element. Although the Likert scale responses to closed questions were not included in the data set for analysis, any additional follow-up comments written by students were. Students completed this part of the feedback sheet first. (See appendices A2 and A3 for samples of this feedback sheet.)

The second part of the feedback was the main source of data generated for the study. Lyle (2003, p. 863) describes SR techniques as involving “a series of structured, but relatively open-ended, questions posed to the subject as soon as possible after, or during, the [event]”. Mackey and Gass (2016) recommend that the recall procedure mechanism should be as unstructured as possible, but they also caution against a completely unstructured activity, which may not result in useful data. In this study, the students were given a few minutes to think about a number of headings which were written on the board and briefly explained to them. These headings were designed to provide a degree of structure and focus to the writing, but also to be as broad and undirected as possible in order to try to minimise researcher influence. The class teacher (named as co-author in Publication One) was there with me for the SR feedback and was able to field questions in Italian.

Both groups were given the following headings:

- useful/difficult/fun etc.? What did you think about the task?
- words/ideas you didn't understand in the dictation? What did you do?
- Did you notice anything about the English language (e.g. English grammar; pronunciation; words)?

The treatment group (who had completed the task in Italian) were given an additional heading:

- How did you feel about translating the sentences in the dictation – was this useful / difficult etc.

Before completing the feedback, it was explained to the students that we were interested in their views and opinions and that there were no ‘right’ or ‘wrong’ answers. We urged them to be as honest as possible because we wanted to learn from them. Students were then given an opportunity to write freely in response to these headings. The students were free to complete the feedback sheet and free writing in either Italian or in English. Students frequently wrote in a combination of both languages.

The completed narratives generated by the SR technique yielded rich qualitative data and reflect an immediacy and ease of recall. Many students remembered and commented on particular words from the dictation (e.g. ‘canopy’, ‘groundfrost’ ‘downpour’). Of course, students knew that the dictation lesson and feedback were both part of a research project. There was a certain novelty factor to the activity and to being part of a research project which seemed to appeal to them. [Italic font has been used to denote translated text in the quotations from Publication One]

F21: It’s great think that my work will be useful [sic] .

F24: I found the project interesting and also the topic. I really liked to do this because it was useful for study this language, that it’s important.

G10: I also liked this task because it was different from the normal ones.

G15: I liked the way we did this exercise because it was different from the normal exercises that we usually do.

The students were aged between fourteen and fifteen years and, perhaps because of their age, did not tend to write a great deal and were not always highly reflective in their responses. Some comments reflect the age and priorities of this age cohort:

G26: I like the task because there wasn’t the mark [grade]

F20 [what s/he didn’t like about the class]: my classmate talked all the time, and he is really annoying.

F28: [what s/he didn't like about the task] I must remain at school more time!

However, the level of reflection was often very impressive as the students tried to verbalise their thought processes and reactions during the task:

G15: *I like studying Geography in English better than studying in Italian because of the way we study and strengthen our English. However, I have problems learning English words which don't have an exact corresponding word in Italian. In yesterday's test, I found having to do two things at the same time difficult, i.e. putting the sentences into the right column at the same time as translating it into Italian. That's why I often made mistakes translating word for word and left the English sentence word order.* [trans]

F29: I wrote words that I didn't understand, but the general meaning of the sentences was clear. I only knew the meaning of some words in English but when I came home I looked up on the dictionary [sic].

Close reading of the narratives generated by the SR activity followed. This was done initially with the teacher-collaborator who spoke Italian, focusing in particular on the precise meanings and interpretations of the data written in Italian, which was then translated into English. The English versions of the texts were used for the data analysis.

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018) describe such qualitative experiments as design experiments. The experiment used in this study was not a 'true' experiment involving quantitative approaches to analysis, or using pre- and post- treatment tests to measure the effectiveness of an intervention. Each group was an intact class, timetabled at different times of the day, so participants were not randomly assigned to one or the other group. Intact classes also increased the 'real-life' naturalness of the experiment. I worked in close collaboration with the class teacher who was identified as the co-author in the publication. However, as I was not actually the teacher of either class or a member of staff in the school, action research was also not considered a suitable method for the study.

In the early stages of the research design, a comparative analysis of pre- and post-writing by the participants was considered. However, it very quickly became clear to me that this was not suitable for a number of reasons. Firstly, as Mackey and Gass

(2016, p. 58) explain, what they refer to as “forced elicitation” of a particular linguistic form (e.g. passive voice) is difficult to achieve in a ‘natural’ way. (i.e. not explicitly asking students to use it). In addition, if students do not use the form, it cannot be assumed that they cannot use it. In fact, there are several possibilities as to why students choose one particular form over another, making it difficult to interpret such data. It might be because they do not have the linguistic knowledge or because another form is easier for them to formulate or because the ‘new’ language is ‘sinking in’ as they acquire it. For this reason, comparing ‘before’ and ‘after’ texts in this way needs to be approached with caution. In addition, I appreciated that my Italian was not proficient enough for the required comparison between L1 and L2 usage of adverbial forms.

More importantly, I also recognised that I did not have the skillset to undertake a quantitative analysis of the language used by the participants in pre- and post- writing, which would focus on their use of adverbial phrases. I also realised I was far more interested in the students’ feedback and reflections on the task, to the processes of consciousness-raising and ‘noticing’ of a particular structure rather than a statistical analysis of students’ use of adverbial phrases before and after the intervention.

A mixed methods approach which combined a quantitative analysis of students’ use of adverbials before and after the bilingual instructional intervention and a qualitative focus on the accounts of their thought processes and reflections during the task would have been meaningful and worthwhile and is certainly something to be considered in the future. However, the approach taken at the time best suited my interests and skillset. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018) describe how mixed methods research needs researchers who are skilled in more than one method and, further, who have the additional skill involved in combining methods. According to Mackey and Gass (2016), most researchers lean towards quantitative or qualitative approaches and rarely have a balanced background in both types. Borge (2012, p. 15) explains that often a team of researchers is needed for mixed methods research in order to ensure appropriate expertise is brought to bear at each stage of the process. “[i]t is less clear to me that a mixture of methods is warranted when it comes to individual research projects or individual researchers. ... It is my experience that large amounts of time and effort are required in order to learn state-of-the-art research methods and to apply them properly, and this is the case for both qualitative and quantitative methods.” Therefore, the

original DCU Research Ethics Committee (REC) application was adjusted in advance of the study and permission granted to allow for the focus on participants' feedback and reflections on the task. I believe this was a sensible and worthwhile change which suited both my interests and skillset and which yielded rich qualitative data for analysis.

2.2.2 Data collection: Publication Two

Semi-structured interviews were chosen to gather data for the study leading to Publication Two. Twenty-four teachers volunteered to be interviewed. Purposive sampling using a pre-set criterion was used for recruitment: the participants had to have experience in two separate teaching contexts, one where students shared a language other than English and the other in a multilingual context, where students did not share a language other than English. A number of schools in Dublin were contacted directly by email and, with the permission of the Director of Studies or Principal of the school, recruitment posters were put on the school noticeboard asking for volunteers who met the criterion. One school invited me to speak at a weekly staff meeting to explain what the research involved. Participants who met the criterion and were interested contacted me directly to volunteer. Once interviews started, snowball sampling was facilitated, whereby an interviewee provided someone they knew who met the criterion with my contact details and, they in turn volunteered to participate in the study.

It was decided to use a semi-structured interview format, using open-ended questions. This type of interview allows for probing and follow-on questioning and for more flexibility than tightly structured interviews which use fixed questions in a set order, but, at the same time, the semi-structured nature of the questions provides a greater degree of focus and direction to the data collection than completely unstructured interviews. Each participant was interviewed separately, interviews lasted approximately one hour and were recorded.

The advantages of interviews relate to allowing the researcher to investigate phenomena that are not directly observable, such as self-reported perceptions and attitudes. For this reason, an ethnographic approach was not considered suitable for this study. I was less interested in observations of what teachers actually did in the classroom and more in what they believed about their practices and the motivations behind their classroom

behaviours and cognitions, which would not always be evident in observational research. In addition, for practical reasons and because the focus of the research was on individual teachers teaching in two separate contexts, it was not feasible for me to visit different contexts to observe directly what the same teacher did in Ireland and another teaching context in a different country such as China or Spain. I also decided against a case study approach because I was less concerned with a holistic exploration of the practices and beliefs of teachers in a particular school or institution and more interested in gaining insights into the beliefs and attitudes of a larger cross-section of people. As Gibson and Brown (2009) explain, usually the number of cases in a case study is not large. Braun and Clarke (2013) identify the semi-structured interview as very suitable for studies which seek to explore understandings and perceptions on the part of the participants. The semi-structured interview format gave me the opportunity to explore complex issues in-depth and for the interviewees to explain, clarify and ask questions during the interview.

The focus of the study was on an exploration of the beliefs, practices and cognitions of EFL teachers in relation to the use of the L1 of the learners in their teaching, with a particular emphasis on the teaching context as a factor in this. The interviews focused on a number of constructs using open-ended questions. Questions in Section A related to the professional background and language(s) used by the participants. Section B focused on two teaching contexts participants had taught in. First, participants were given time to select a particular teaching context in one and then the other context. They first described each context and then compared and contrasted the two. I was keen for participants to focus on one particular teaching situation they had experienced in each of the two contexts rather than a consideration of teaching in general in each context. I felt that this would facilitate tapping into more specific memories and concrete practices in relation to each context during the next section of the interview. Here, in Section C, participants were asked to hone in on each situated context and to describe their practices and approaches specifically in relation to L1 use in each one. This led naturally to Section D, which focused on their overall beliefs in relation to the use of L1 in teaching.

These interview questions were piloted on two EFL teachers (not included in the data for the study). Two important amendments were made to the interview format following on from the pilot. Firstly, amendments were made to Questions 7 and 9 about

the use the L1 in each context to include a focus on allowing the students to use the L1 in class and not just on participants' own use of the L1 (which had not been there in the original questions):

*Q 7 Are there times when you would use / **allow the students to use** the L1 in the classroom in China / France etc.? Why/why not? When? How?*

*Q 9 Are there times when you would use / **allow the students to use** the L1 in the classroom in Ireland? Why/why not? How?*

This was an important amendment because the distinction between students and teachers using the L1 came up frequently and it was important to capture this distinction in the questions. Secondly, it was decided to include a specific question on the role of teacher training in the participants' practices and beliefs, so question 13 was added to the list of questions in Section D to ensure that each participant would be asked about this issue:

13. Teacher training – what was the view on the use of L1 in the classroom? Did the teacher training affect / shape your views on this?

This was also an interesting direction of questioning and this focus raised important questions which ultimately contributed to the research design of the study leading to Publication Three.

In addition, as the interviews began to take place, issues relating to the classroom as a bilingual space and the extent to which the participants saw their learners as (emerging) bilinguals began to interest me in particular. I realised I did not have a specific question on this in the interview, which might result in a loss of potential data on this area of exploration. A final section was added to the interview format at this stage:

Section E. The classroom as a bilingual space?

14. How do you see your learners and your classroom? When you see your students and your classroom in front of you, do you see it as a language learning space and your students as language learners or are you more likely to see it as a bilingual or a multilingual space and your students as bilinguals or potential bilinguals?

As I had not posed this question in the initial two interviews, I returned to these interviewees to ask the additional question(s) for section E. Their responses were then added to their transcripts. Braun and Clarke (2013) recommend such reviewing and re-working of questions after the first few interviews. Creswell and Creswell (2018) also expect such shifts and changes as a natural part of qualitative research once the researcher enters the field. This amendment was an extremely fortuitous decision. Section E yielded extremely rich data which became a central focus of the analysis. (Please see Appendix B to Publication Two for the final list of questions used for the interviews.)

Of course there are drawbacks with the use of interviews too, not least issues relating to selective recall, self-delusion, perceptual distortions and memory loss (Mackey and Gass, 2016). Using multiple interviews was a means of addressing some of these issues as I was looking for patterns across the interviews. It is also important to be alive to the power dynamic in interviews (Braun and Clarke, 2013), whereby the interviewer is seen as an ‘expert’ practitioner, which might affect the responses of the participants. To try to offset this, at the beginning of each interview I described my professional background in EFL, which was usually broadly similar to their own, and my interest in the subject. I explained my role as researcher and tried to emphasise the exploratory nature of the research, that there were no right or wrong answers, that I had no ‘agenda’ or desire to prove anything. Creswell and Creswell (2018) also identify a number of limitations associated with the interview format. They include the fact that the responses are filtered through the views of the interviewees and that not all interviewees are equally articulate or perceptive. In addition, care has to be taken to avoid researcher bias coming through. As a former EFL teacher myself, I was keenly aware of my own experiences and beliefs in relation to the two contexts under discussion. I tried not to assume that I knew how the interviewees felt about the two contexts or the motivations behind their classroom beliefs and behaviours because ‘it had once been me’. I tried to step back and took pains to clarify and check the respondents’ responses and repeat back and/or summarise what they had said to ensure I was not making assumptions about what they meant. I understood clearly that it was impossible to completely remove my own background, experiences and biases from the interview process, but tried to be aware of these as much as I could.

The skill of the interviewer is an important area of consideration in semi-structured interviews. In order to establish rapport and trust with the interviewees as early as possible, Creswell and Creswell (2018) suggest choosing a familiar place for the interviews and using icebreaker questions at the start which help to put the interviewee at ease and allow them to talk about themselves. Mackey and Gass (2016) suggest a number of guidelines for establishing rapport and empathy which I tried to take on board: to be sensitive to age, gender and cultural background; to mirror the interviewees' responses by repeating them neutrally; to provide an opportunity for reflection and further input. Similarly, Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018) stress the importance of allowing participants to take their time and to answer questions in their own way and for the interviewer to be able to recall and refer to earlier statements made by participants and to be ready to clarify and confirm participants' meanings. Braun and Clarke (2013) emphasise the flexibility needed on the part of the interviewer in order to be able to go in unanticipated directions and be responsive to unexpected answers. I tried to 'go with the flow' of the participant. For example, if they seemed to want to talk about the shared-L1 context first, then I changed the order of the questions to facilitate that.

The following two extracts relating to the same question from two different interviews demonstrate my approach:

Extract from Agatha interview:

Interviewer: Are there times when you would use/allow students to use the L1 in the classroom in Greece?

yes there were. There have been a few times, especially when I wanted to teach them the grammar rule. So the rules are basically... they are formed with complicated English words sometimes because they are quite formal. So sometimes I had to explain the grammar rule to them in Greek. But as I said I tried to avoid that as much as I could em and it did work. I mean the students did accept my... my decision to explain to them in English

Interviewer: so it would really just be from what you're saying I think just to quickly translate or explain a rule that was quite difficult or a word or something

or a word yes. Most of the time it has been words

Interviewer: and it's kind of just more efficient in some ways ... is that what you mean?

yes and maybe quicker sometimes as well. So we did save time ... yeah we saved time but as I said I tried to avoid speaking Greek to them. I mean I wasn't chit chatting in Greek

Extract from Irene interview:

Interviewer: Are there times when you would use/allow students to use the L1 in the classroom in Thailand?

yeah I would I... my Thai wasn't great but sometimes I was able to understand when they said words... certain words and sometimes I would translate the word myself into Thai during the class for the sake of

Interviewer: so if you were teaching 'book' you might say it in Thai ... is that what you mean?

yeah I might for a concept check, it's just easier to just

Interviewer: so translating vocabulary items you would use it ... anything else?

I allowed them... if a student didn't understand something so if there was a level... sometimes there were level gaps cos it was done by age, I allowed the other students to explain in Thai what was happening

Interviewer: so if a student was struggling is that what you mean ... would you ask the other students to help or ...?

no usually it happened spontaneously like I think it's a natural thing you know if someone isn't getting it, you can easily help them if you have the language like that

Interviewer: so you were quite tolerant of that and flexible about that ... but it happened spontaneously you didn't actually invite it

no

Interviewer: were there other times ... you've mentioned vocabulary teaching you've mentioned to kind of to support a student that's struggling ... were there other times?

I never... I never openly encouraged using the L1 but if it happened spontaneously and it was in the context of something that was going on I would allow it to happen as long as it wasn't overtaking the class. However I would always try to maintain that English is the language of the lesson and that if Thai comes into, it's only briefly or for a specific purpose. So I would never say "speak Thai now"

(See full transcripts for sample interviews in Appendices B2 and B3.)

Braun and Clarke (2013) also highlight the importance of allowing participants to clarify or raise issues at the end of the interview to capture material which might not have come up during the interview itself. This sometimes generated very interesting data.

2.2.2.1 Transcription

The recorded interviews were transcribed to facilitate data analysis. Gibson and Brown (2009, p.107) define transcriptions as "a mode of representing a piece of data that has been gathered". Braun and Clarke (2013) stress that it is important to transcribe as soon as possible after the interview itself. Transcription is the process of rendering the data into a new form. I tried to ensure a full verbatim record of the interview (apart from where the texts were anonymised), but of course certain contextual features and non-verbal aspects of the interview were invariably lost. I did not want to use selective transcription or summary techniques to record the interviews, as I felt that these added what Cohen, Manion and Morrison. (2018, p. 646) describe as a further layer of "data interpretation and selection". The focus for me was on meaning, what was said and what was meant. However, it is important to be aware that transcription inevitably involves the researcher's interpretation of what is being said and what is being meant. The written transcription is itself a form of translation, an orthographic transcription of what was said, which is two steps removed from the actual interview (Braun and Clarke, 2013). The concept of the sentence for example does not often translate well into spoken English; real oral language is often 'messy' and includes 'em's and 'eh's, hesitations and stumbling over words as well as non-verbal language and behaviours. Some contextual meanings and nuances may be lost in the transcription process and some unintended meanings may be imposed. Adding punctuation involves some degree of creative licence according to Gibson and Brown (2009). Braun and Clarke

(2013, p. 163) give the example of the difference between ‘I hate it. You know I do’ and ‘I hate it you know. I do’ and suggest using punctuation as little as possible, although they concede that some punctuation often needs to be included for the sake of readability. I took these points on board and tried to be as sensitive as possible to the data in order to avoid mis-representing what was said as much as I could.

It is important to double check transcripts against the original recordings (Gibson and Brown, 2009). This was done with the transcripts used in the study leading to Publication Two on two separate occasions, once at the completion of each transcription which took place shortly after the interview itself and a second time at the end of the transcription process after all the interviews had been transcribed. Re-listening to the recordings against the transcripts for a second time became part of the process of familiarising myself with the data, but was also done to ensure that the transcriptions reflected what had been said as accurately as possible and because of the need for meticulousness in terms of the notation system used.

2.2.3 Data collection: Publication Three

A qualitative online survey was used to generate data for Publication Three. During interviews for the study leading to Publication Two (described above), I was fascinated to hear so many of the teachers explain that they did not remember whether there had been any focus on L1 use during their teacher training courses. I had been a CELTA tutor myself for many years twenty years earlier, and I found myself surprised by these responses, asking myself: ‘Surely it had been addressed on the CELTA course?’; ‘Had I focused on this area myself as a teacher trainer?’. However, I began to realise that I had not focused on this issue on the CELTA courses I had worked on, and I began to wonder if this was the case for CELTA courses in general; and if this were still the case, 20 years later.

Similarly to Publication Two, purposive sampling was used in this study. CELTA tutors were recruited through two online platforms: a Facebook forum for freelance CELTA trainers and the Cambridge English Teaching Qualification mailing list for CELTA practitioners. As Braun and Clarke (2013, p. 58) remind us, it is important to take a ‘beyond the usual suspects’ approach to sampling, to be aware that a certain type

of participant, and their views, experiences etc., tend to be over-represented in much research. They recommend reflecting on which groups it would be useful to include in the study and making an effort to give voice to under-represented, hard to reach or engage groups who might otherwise be omitted from the sample. Braun and Clarke (2013, p. 59) use the saying ‘The pond that you fish in determines the fish that you will catch’ to illustrate this. For this reason, recruitment for this study specifically mentioned NNESTs as a target group. Almost all of the participants in Publication 2 were native speakers of English and I wanted to make sure we had a good mix of NEST and NNEST respondents for Publication Three. I was aware that some very interesting data had been generated by the four NNEST teachers in the earlier study, but there had not really been enough data to see patterns and compare cohorts at that time. We tried to avoid any language that could be seen as discriminatory (e.g. the term NNEST itself, using instead: “We are interested in the views of CELTA trainers (a) for whom English is an L1 and (b) for whom English is an L2”).

A mixture of closed and open-ended questions was used in the survey, which Mackey and Gass (2016) recommend for qualitative surveys. Closed questions were used to establish the professional and linguistic profiles of the respondents. We wanted to ascertain their teaching and teacher training experiences in shared-L1 and multilingual contexts, whether respondents were NEST or NNEST trainers, what their L1(s) were, if the respondents spoke (an)other languages and to what level. It was assumed that CELTA trainers would be familiar with the CEFR for proficiency levels and CEFR wording was used to identify proficiency in the respondents’ additional language(s). Braun and Clarke (2013) highlight the importance of this type of questioning in qualitative surveys in order to obtain demographic information which can give the researcher a clear idea of who is taking part. A further closed question (Q. 13) was designed to establish respondents’ overall position in relation to the CELTA courses they worked on:

13. On the CELTA course(s) on which you teach, to what extent are the trainee teachers encouraged to use / discouraged from using the language learners' L1 in language teaching? Please tick your preferred answer.

Strongly discouraged _____

Discouraged _____

Tolerated _____

Encouraged _____

Strongly encouraged _____

This question was immediately succeeded by the open-ended follow-on question:

14. Please give details and examples of how this is conveyed to trainee teachers e.g. during sessions, feedback, tutorials, etc.

Although we were alive to the fact that the word 'tolerate' is a somewhat loaded term, Publication Two had shown me that many teachers were often flexible towards L1 use in their teaching in particular situations, and 'tolerate' was very typical of the kind of word they tended to use to describe their approach. We felt it was a better term than 'allow the L1' or 'feel neutral about the L1'; we also felt that the other categories of 'strongly encouraged / encouraged' and 'strongly discouraged / discouraged' were broad enough to include teachers who felt differently about using the L1 in class. The open-ended questions which immediately followed in the second half of the survey also allowed for further expansion on the views of the participants. Responses to question 13 lent itself to a useful bar chart display of the respondents' answers (see Figure 1, Publication Three), and were later used as a useful reference point in the analysis. In fact, comparisons between what respondents had ticked for this question and their qualitative responses became an interesting feature of the analysis.

Otherwise, qualitative data was generated through open-ended questions in the second section of the questionnaire. Braun and Clarke (2013) suggest grouping questions together into sections in this way. The move from closed questions was signalled clearly to the respondents, who were invited to provide longer and more detailed responses in relation to Section 2. These questions related to the use of the L1 on CELTA courses and the participants' beliefs about the role of the L1 in teaching more

generally. The survey was piloted on a small number of CELTA trainers, leading to minor changes to the wording, layout and order of the questions. (See Publication Three, Appendix One for the survey questions. See Appendices C2 and C3 for samples of completed surveys)

Anonymous Google Forms were used for the survey. The benefits were immediately obvious. After the laborious and time-consuming interview and transcription processes involved in the study leading to Publication Two, the qualitative survey was extremely easy and quick in terms of data generation and retrieval; anonymity and lack of traceability was ensured from the start, so there was a much reduced need to further anonymise the data. Braun and Clarke (2013) also explain that surveys usually provide access to a wider range of views than using interactive methods, giving the researcher a ‘wide-angle’ picture of a phenomenon which is very focused on the topic. They state that qualitative surveys are particularly well suited to exploring understandings, perceptions and practice-type research questions, which were the focus of this study.

However, although the survey generated responses from a much larger sample size, it is certainly true that the data generated by the qualitative survey was not as rich and deep as that generated by the interviews used in Publication Two. Braun and Clarke (2013) explain that data from qualitative surveys tends to be ‘thinner’ than interview data and this was certainly found to be the case in this study. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018) claim that survey responses are often completed quite hurriedly. There was in fact a great deal of variation in terms of the depth and detail included in the responses. Some individual responses were indeed very thin, but others yielded very rich data.

Another serious limitation to qualitative surveys is the lack of flexibility they provide. For example, I began to see a potential pattern which related to the fact many respondents seemed to be equating a learner’s L1 with an unfamiliar language in their replies to Question 15:

Q. 15. On the CELTA course/s on which you teach, are there times when you use a language other than English with the trainee teachers? e.g. during sessions, feedback, tutorials, etc. If so, please give details and examples

My reflective notes on this were:

Interesting note: although the Q refers to a language other than English and does not specify the L1 - often foreign language lesson seems to be equated with the participants' L1; some respondents did not distinguish between the participants' L1 and a foreign language lesson (in an unfamiliar language). Is this a monolingual perspective? Any language other than English grouped together regardless of whether it is the L1 of the participants. Check to see if any NEST / NNEST or monolingual /bilingual trainer distinction here?

However, the survey question which elicited this reflective note referred to 'a language other than English' and did not actually distinguish between the L1 and other languages. Therefore, although many of the responses to this question suggested that this might be an interesting focus, it was not really possible to pursue that line of analysis further. In hindsight, the questions could have been more precise in distinguishing between the L1 and an unfamiliar language, but, unfortunately, I did not foresee this potentially interesting line of enquiry when designing the survey, and it was too late to make changes once the survey was launched. Being unable to ask for clarification about particular responses or to respond to an entry with probing or follow-on questions is another limitation to surveys.

2.3 Data analysis

As described earlier, thematic analyses of the data were used for all three studies. (see rationale for this approach above). According to Braun and Clarke (2006), qualitative analytic approaches are very diverse, complex and nuanced and fall broadly into two types: those tied to or stemming from a particular theoretical or epistemological position (e.g. conversation analysis; IPA (interpretative phenomenological analysis); grounded theory; discourse analysis; narrative analysis), which are often quite prescriptive in how the methodology is applied, and those which are not wedded to one or other pre-existing theoretical framework. For Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 2013), thematic analysis falls firmly into this second type. Its theoretical freedom provides a flexible and useful research tool which can provide a rich and detailed, yet complex account of data. "[T]hematic analysis can be a method that works both to reflect reality and to unpick or

unravel the surface of ‘reality’” (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 81). Other advantages of thematic analysis posited by Nowell *et al.* (2017) include its usefulness in managing a large data set which examines the perspectives of different participants as well as its value in highlighting similarities and differences across the data and in generating unanticipated insights.

However, St Pierre and Jackson (2014, p. 716) argue against the fragmentation of data into code-able elements, whereby “words textualized in interview transcripts and field notes ... can be broken apart and decontextualized by coding”. They caution against looking for patterns where they might not exist, suggesting “[i]f you think you have to find a theme, you probably will”. Cohen, Manion and Morrison. (2018) also see disadvantages to presenting data according to themes following a coding process. The resulting decontextualized data can mean that the wholeness, coherence and integrity of each respondent is lost. Gibson and Brown (2009, p. 129) describe how themes can be “a poor substitute for the lived experiences to which they refer”. The generalized categories can “bracket out” the details of particular experiences, so that the particularities of cases can be lost. However, Gibson and Brown (2009) do not dismiss thematic analysis and see much value in the process of analysing data according to commonalities, relationships and differences across a data set. Braun and Clarke (2013, p. 223, emphasis in original) explain that “[p]attern-based analysis rests on the presumption that ideas which recur *across* a dataset capture something psychologically or socially meaningful”. After coding, the researcher looks for larger patterns in the dataset relating to the research question(s) and tries to interrogate and interpret these patterns in order to “tell a story” about the topic under investigation (Braun and Clarke 2013, p. 254). When using thematic analysis, the focus is on issues that arise across a large dataset rather than a complete picture of each individual respondent. This approach seemed most appropriate to the research focus underpinning the three studies in my PhD, which aimed to explore a particular topic from a variety of perspectives.

Text segmentation as a data analysis tool was used more extensively with the larger data sets used in Publication Two and Three. In Publication One, the texts used were short and so it was easier to work with the intact data and less necessary to extract segments from a larger context as part of the coding process, although this was done to some degree. The use of NVivo software in Publications Two and Three was helpful in this

regard because of the ease with which it allowed me to return to the full context behind a piece of coded data at any time.

For Publications Two and Three, the Thematic Analysis Method (TA) as described by Braun and Clarke (2006) was used. For Publication One, thematic analysis procedures using the guidelines for qualitative data analysis articulated by Creswell (2014) were followed. Braun and Clarke provide a more prescriptive, systematic approach to coding and to the identification of themes, which was useful when working with the large datasets used in both of these studies, particularly that generated by the interviews in Publication Two.

2.3.1 Data analysis: Publication One

For Publication One, the six steps of qualitative analysis identified by Creswell (2014) were followed: Step 1: Organise and prepare data for analysis; Step 2: Read or look at all the data; Step 3: Start coding all of the data; Step 4: Use the coding process to generate a description of the setting or people as well as categories or themes for analysis; Step 5: Advance how the description and themes will be represented in the qualitative narrative; Step 6: An interpretation of the findings or results (Creswell, 2014, pp. 197 - 201)

Step 1: *Organise and prepare the data for analysis.* This involves transcribing interviews, scanning documents, cataloguing visual material etc. For Publication One, the handwritten feedback sheets and SR texts were translated into English where required, and transferred to type-written forms. All the texts were read together with the teacher-collaborator and he provided translations and explained the precise meanings in Italian etc. to me in this initial reading stage.

Step 2: *Read or look at all the data.* The initial reading was done with the teacher-collaborator who worked with me on this study. There was some discussion of initial impressions as we read and translated the texts together. For example, we were surprised at the Geography terms that students knew in English only, and did not know in Italian. [Note Gerry was not involved in the later stages of analysis or in writing the paper for publication.]

Following this, I read and re-read the texts in English in order to familiarise myself with the data at a deep level. During this stage, I began to make notes and record thoughts that occurred as I read: e.g. more of the Treatment group wrote in Italian than the Control Group; the same words (especially ‘groundfrost’ ‘canopy’ ‘layer’ and ‘downpour’) were coming up frequently; the treatment group found the task much more difficult than the control group but often mentioned that it was challenging and useful; comments students made about the real-world skill of interpreting.

Step 3: *Start coding all of the data.* Creswell (2014, pp. 197 - 8) defines coding as “organizing the data by bracketing chunks (or text or image segments) and writing a word representing a category in the margins”. In Publication One, my approach was completely exploratory and so I took an inductive approach to coding, taking a bottom-up approach, allowing the data itself to generate the codes. Creswell and Creswell (2018) identify three types of code when working with qualitative data: expected codes (based on past literature and common sense), surprising or unanticipated codes and unusual codes which may be of conceptual interest to readers. All three types were found in the data.

I coded qualitative data from the control group and treatment group separately and by hand. I coded the control group first, as I thought this would be helpful in identifying what was different about the treatment group’s reactions to the intervention.

The initial codes for Group F (control group) included:

easy; difficult; similar root to Italian word; pronunciation; Geography terms; not thinking about grammar; English improved; spelling; guess meaning; improved; enjoyed; boring; fun; words didn’t know; noticing; not noticing

The initial codes for Group G (treatment group) included:

simultaneous translation; difficult; cool; clarifies what you understand; conscious of using English word order; check meaning in dictionary; guess the meaning; creative translation; roundabout translation; words didn’t know; repetition; speed; annoying; fun; English improved; couldn’t do it; a way to test yourself; adapted; useful; challenging; interpreter; pronunciation; noticed the structure; didn’t like; liked; enjoyed; Geography terms; time; improved; real world; loved it; on the spot translation; didn’t notice anything; confusing

These codes were then grouped together to form broader codes which were identified as:

(A) Difficult; challenging / easy; (B) didn't like/ Fun/enjoyed/good experience; (c) Useful; real world (D) words/concepts they didn't know; (E) translation; (F) noticing / not noticing (Grammar; spelling; pronunciation).

At this point, particular students (G7; G17; F11; F25 etc.) were put against these codes. For example

Noticed Pronunciation Control group: *F26; F25; F24; F22; F19; F18; F17; F16; F11; F10; F2*

Noticed Pronunciation Treatment group: *G6; G7; G9; G11; F14; G17; G19; G22; G25*

and then the relevant excerpts from the data were added. See Figure 1 for results for Group F and Figure 2 for results for Group G,

Figure 1: Noticed pronunciation. Group F (control group)

Noticed Pronunciation Control group: [translated text is *in italics*]

F26; F25; F24; F22; F19; F18; F17; F16; F11; F10; F2 commented on learning / noticing pronunciation [plus F20 who complimented the teacher on his pronunciation]

F2: *Yes because we learnt new words and how to pronounce them*[trans]

F10 the grammar and the pronounced are difficult because there are some words I don't know and I needed a vocabulary [sic DICTIONARY] to understand them

F11: Sometimes I have difficult meaning of the new words and *I get confused when the pronunciation of the words is sometimes the same but it is written in a different way*[trans]. I think study geography help me know the new words and speak more rapidly.

F16: I noticed that the dictation had words that I don't know like groundfrost and canopy. I also noticed that a few words were pronounced in a different way that they wrote [sic]and it was difficult in some part of the dictation

F17: It was very interesting the way that G. pronounced some words. I didn't know how some words are pronounced in English.

F18: The pronunciation was for the most part clear. I didn't understand a few words in the dictation because of the pronunciation but anyway the most part is clear.

F19: I noticed that there were some words that I don't know what are in Italian and some words that I didn't know in English and in Italian but the pronunciation helped me to write these words.

F22: I noticed that a few words have a different pronunciation from I think such as nocturnal and I didn't know any words like canopy or groundfrost in the dictation, but I understood the sentences in general.

F24: I don't have some problems about the sentences, but I have in the words that I don't know and how pronounce these words!

F25: During the dictation G said some words that I didn't know or pronounced them in a different way I'd do

F26: Learning English studying geography is more easy and more fun. Because while I listened the lesson I already learn the position of word in a sentence and sometimes the pronunciation.

Also: F20: *G. has a lovely pronunciation and I could understand almost everything.* [trans].

Figure 2: Noticed pronunciation. Group G (treatment group)

Noticed Pronunciation Treatment group [translated text *in italics*]: **G6; G7; G9; G11; F14; G17; G19; G22; G25 commented on learning / noticing pronunciation [plus G2 who complimented the teacher and researcher on their accents]**

G6: *Translating from English into Italian was not very easy. I realised that I didn't know how to say a lot of the words (for example canopy and groundfrost and other words that I can't remember now)[...] This exercise helped us with pronunciation and anyway if I'd written the words in English, it would have been difficult even if I'd known the Italian translation because I often hear these words in English but I don't know how to write them.* [trans]

G7: I can also, with this task, find out the geography in the world and listen the correct pronunciation of English [sic]

G9: *Repeating the sentences more than once made it easier to understand the context but there were some words which were difficult - for example canopy, and other words which were hard to understand because they were pronounced quickly [...] The real problem was some words within the sentences* [trans]

G11: I don't know the right translation for the word 'root' in Italian because I know that is 'tetto' in Italian, but I remembered there was a sentence: "Plants usually have very short roots". What does root mean in the sentence? Roots are of the house. I've just realised that I've just had a mistake: yesterday I confused the word 'root' with the word 'roof'! I think English is a funny

language because sometimes only one letter of an English word changes, but not only that, the meaning of the word completely changes!

G14: *A few times I didn't understand the pronunciation and had to wait for the teacher to repeat the sentence.*

G17: Pronunciation is ok, is only difficult the 'r' or 'ea', the rest isn't too difficult.

G19: *In my opinion, this project was very useful to improve both my English and geography but also pronunciation and new words (e.g. canopy, drought, roots, a shortage of moisture, groundfrost and other words that I can't remember now. At the first dictation, I put 'really' instead of 'rarely' [trans]*

G22: The pronunciation is different than mine and sometimes I can't understand a word that I know only for the pronunciation.

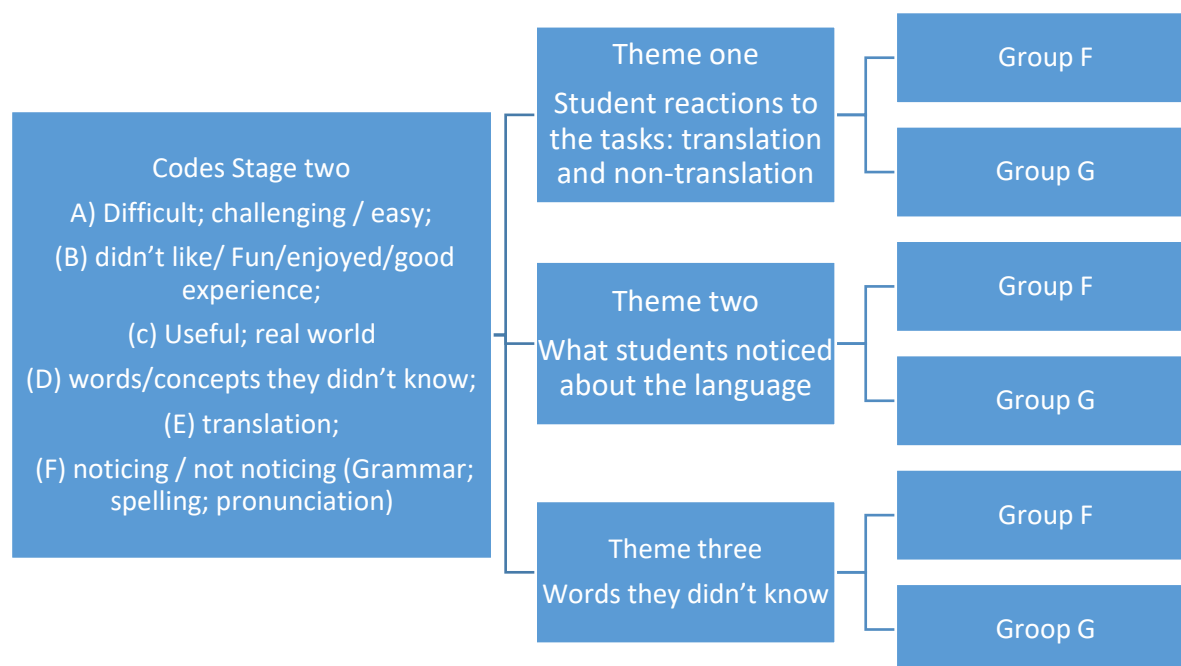
G25: *Sometimes there was a word in English and I translated it badly into Italian, maybe because the sound and the pronunciation resembled an Italian word, but a word which doesn't have the same meaning. Not only did it not have the same meaning, but it wasn't even similar. [trans]*

Also G2: Very thanks for your work. I'd like talk English such as Jerry or Fiona. I love their accent.

Step 4: Generate a description and themes. Here, the coding process is used to generate a detailed description of the setting, events or people, which Creswell (2014) suggests is particularly useful in case studies, ethnographic and narrative research projects, as well as categories or themes for analysis. Creswell suggests using the coding process to identify a small number of themes. These themes “appear as the major findings in qualitative studies and are often used as headings in the findings section” (Creswell 2014, pp. 199 – 200). They should be supported by diverse quotations and specific evidence and should display multiple perspectives from individuals. Creswell explains that additional layers of complex analysis are often added to the analysis during this step. This is often embedded within a specific qualitative design, such as narrative research analysis or ethnographic research. “For example, researchers interconnect themes into a story line (as in narratives) or develop them into a theoretical model (as in grounded theory). Themes are analysed for each individual case and across different cases (as in case studies) or shaped into a general description (as in phenomenology). Sophisticated qualitative studies go beyond description and theme identification and form complex theme connections.” (Creswell and Creswell, 2018, pp. 194- 195).

In the case of the quasi-experiment used in Publication One, coding was done separately for the Control and Treatment groups. The codes identified above were formed into the following themes: [1] Student reactions to the translation task; [2] What students noticed about the language; and [3] Words they didn't know. Then, the themes identified in the Treatment Group (Group G) were compared and contrasted with those of the Control Group (Group F). See Figure 3 below.

Figure 3: Thematic map Publication One



I worked broadly within a constructivist paradigm, although I did some counting of data in terms of quantifying the frequency of codes across the dataset, particularly to establish differences in emphasis across the two groups. The data yielded itself to this very effectively and this approach helped me to interpret the data. (See Section 2.3.2.8 for discussion of quantification of qualitative findings.)

Step 5: Representing the description and themes. Here decisions are made about how to advance the representation of the description and themes. According to Creswell (2014), the most popular approach is to use a narrative passage to convey the findings of the analysis, providing detailed discussion of several themes or interconnecting themes, often using tables, figures and visuals as adjuncts to this discussion.

For Publication One, the themes identified in step 4 became the headings for the results section of the publication. Thick descriptions of the themes and findings were employed using examples from the texts to support the narrative.

Step 6: Interpretation of findings or results. [Interestingly in the fifth edition of Creswell's book (Creswell and Creswell, 2018, pp. 198 - 199), this has been adapted so that it no longer appears as a final step in the 6-step analysis, but is presented as a heading in its own right, following on from the 5-step process described above]. Creswell (2014, p. 200) explains that the interpretation of qualitative research involves a focus on "what are the lessons learned?" These lessons can relate to, but are not limited to, the researcher's personal interpretations, meanings derived from a comparison of findings with information gleaned from the literature or theories, suggestions for new questions that need to be asked or interpretations which focus on action agendas for reform and change. "Interpretation in qualitative research can take many forms; be adapted for different types of designs, and be flexible to convey personal research-based and action meanings" (Creswell and Creswell 2018, p. 199; Creswell 2014, pp. 200 – 201).

Qualitative data analysis involves multiple layers of analysis. The suggested steps in the process as proposed by Creswell (2014) and Creswell and Creswell (2018) are not intended to form a linear or hierarchical approach; instead, the various steps are seen as interrelated and not always visited in the order presented. Creswell and Creswell (2018) describe how the process begins inductively, building categories from the bottom up by organising the data into increasingly more abstract units of information until a comprehensive set of themes is established. However, deductive thinking also comes into play as the research moves forward and researchers look back at their data from the themes to determine if more evidence can support each theme or whether they need to gather additional evidence from the data. This description closely reflects the processes involved in the analysis of the data leading to Publication One.

2.3.2 Data analysis: Publications Two and Three

For the studies leading to Publications Two and Three, thematic analysis (TA) procedures as articulated by Braun and Clarke (2006; 2013) were adhered to. Although

very similar to the six steps of Creswell (2014), Braun and Clarke prescribe a more systematic, multi-phase approach to the coding of the data and the identification of themes. They distinguish between TA and other analytic methods which seek to describe patterns across qualitative data (Braun and Clarke, 2013). They define TA as “a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data” (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 79), and propose it as a method for data analysis which does not prescribe particular methods of data collection or theoretical positions and frameworks. Although widely used in qualitative research, “it was not ‘branded’ as a specific method until recently” (Braun and Clarke 2013, p. 175). They explain how they felt compelled to provide a ‘recipe’ for people in how to undertake and describe thematic analysis as a named approach in a way that is theoretically and methodologically sound because, often, such descriptions of ‘how’ the analysis was done is often missing in research reports (Braun and Clarke 2006, p. 79). They describe common explanations used in the reporting of thematic data analysis methods such as ‘data were subjected to qualitative analysis for commonly recurring themes’ or simply ‘themes emerged from the data’, without further detail in terms of the processes involved in the analysis. In Publication One, I described the analysis of data in the following way: “Researchers then conducted a close reading of the feedback in order to group similar responses and to identify recurrent themes”, without providing further detail. Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 78) provide very detailed guidelines in terms of “what it is and how to do it” when undertaking TA, which I found very useful when working with larger datasets. This in turn led to greater detail of the data analysis processes in the reporting of the research in both Publications Two and Three.

Braun and Clarke (2006) identify six phases in their model. Similarly to Creswell and Creswell (2018), they stress the recursive, back-and-forth nature of the various phases, whereby moving through the stages is not seen as a linear process of simply moving from one phase to the next. The phases are presented as guidelines rather than rules.

2.3.2.1 Phase 1: Reading and re-reading

This phase continued throughout the data analysis process and involved transcribing the oral data, re-listening to the recordings and reading and re-reading the data many times.

Preparing full profiles of the participants and making comments in a reflection notebook were part of this process.

Here are examples of notes from my reflection notebook for Publication Two:

Context: a huge factor

The group: Inclusion / exclusion; Group dynamic / classroom atmosphere; context a huge factor; relationship with students

Bilingual space: do teachers speak other languages / does teacher hide their own language abilities and knowledge of students' L1?; are students seen as emerging bilinguals or language learners? never thought of it like that before; is there a focus on language learning / bilingual skills / intercultural communication???; affirmation of students; natural use of language (self-conscious; common language); promoting / accepting bilingual practices (Students working on their own; brainstorming ideas; want to check a word they've heard); translation as the lazy option.

English only / bilingual practices: Teacher imposing the English only rule (broken record; changing times smart phones Facebook etc.; I'm not a dragon / draconian classroom atmosphere

Beliefs of teachers: contradictory / fixed / fluid; strength of views; degree of flexibility; preparation for this aspect to teaching; (have the teacher trainers taught in a monolingual context? Have other teachers given you advice?); idea of ' hadn't thought too much about it before'

Here are examples from the reflection notebook used during Publication Three:

Even trainers who have positive view of L1 use and feel it is useful often answer NO or NEVER when asked about using it with the trainees. To explore maybe?

Some mention trainees using L1 when trainer is not in the room – hidden/ guilt/ illicit ???

Interesting to look at views of bilingual trainers (either NNESTs or NESTs) on language learning - if they express it.

Distinguish between knowing the L1 – useful for predicting errors etc.- and actually using it or allowing it to be used

Thought: several respondents talk about giving an insight into learning process etc. and the mindset of the learners. Can this be linked to multilingual competence and skills development

for learners??? Have they thought about it the other way round – for the learner to build on their L1/L2 etc. knowledge in order to gain insights into language learning and different mindsets???

To explore: respondents who say they only use English with trainees – are these NNESTs? Do NESTs who speak the L1 feel the same way?

Interesting and to explore further: one non-native speaker said I had never thought about whether it was useful to have knowledge of the L1 of the students.

2.3.2.2 Phase 2: Generating initial codes

According to Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 88), codes identify “a feature of the data ... that appears interesting to the analyst”, and refer to the most basic element of meaning in the raw data. Nowell *et al.* (2017, p. 6) explain that “a good code captures the qualitative richness of the phenomenon”. For both Publications Two and Three, I worked systematically through the entire data set, labelling and indexing sections of texts within each data item, on a line by line basis. I found it easiest to work with hard copies of the data, leaving wide margins for hand-written codes. Braun and Clarke (2013) suggest keeping the wording of the codes close to the data during this initial coding stage. Below are short examples of coding for Publications Two and Three.

Figure 4: Examples of data extract with codes applied for Publication Two

Extract from Magda interview	Coded for
<p>Interviewer: what about discussing a language point with a partner in Polish</p> <p>Between the students? I discouraged it. I discouraged it ... it only happened when a stronger student was sitting beside a weaker student and for example the weaker student couldn't get it despite my attempts to explain everything in English ... especially abstract vocabulary or some you know Past Perfect, Past Simple and they couldn't get it because we don't have it in Polish, the difference</p>	<p><i>Discouraged Ss speaking to each other in Polish</i></p> <p><i>Maybe when stronger students helping weaker student</i></p> <p><i>Weaker student didn't get it</i></p> <p><i>Despite my attempts to explain it in English</i></p> <p><i>Abstract vocabulary</i></p> <p><i>Past perfect / past simple distinction</i></p> <p><i>We don't have that distinction in Polish</i></p>

Figure 5 provides an example of coding during Publication Three.

Figure 5: Examples of data extract with codes applied for Publication Three

Extract from Respondent 14 survey	Coded for
<p>Q 15. On the CELTA course/s on which you teach, are there times when you use a language other than English with the trainee teachers? e.g. during sessions, feedback, tutorials, etc. If so, please give details and examples</p> <p>Very rarely as a group, because I rarely have a group with the same L1 and whose L1 I speak well enough to use easily. I do though occasionally use expressions that I know to at least acknowledge their language, e.g. when I work in Egypt I'll use 'yalla beena', which means 'let's go/hurry up' or 'inshallah' but I don't speak Arabic. Or on my current course in Cairo, there's a Cuban trainee and we've had a couple of conversations in Spanish as we both speak Spanish and she's in the minority here and I see it as an acknowledgement of her L1. It would seem silly not to.</p>	<p><i>Shared-L1 context</i></p> <p><i>T. knowledge of L1.</i></p> <p><i>Speaks Spanish but not Arabic</i></p> <p><i>Using expressions from Arabic.</i></p> <p><i>Acknowledge their language (at least).</i></p> <p><i>Exclusion/ inclusion</i></p> <p><i>Cuban trainee in Cairo "she's in the minority here"</i></p> <p><i>Group / one to one communication</i></p> <p><i>Silly not to</i></p>

Although this line by line approach to coding was extremely time consuming, I felt strongly that this would help reduce bias in that it facilitated the identification of unexpected codes and avoided an emphasis on looking for particular pre-conceived codes in the data.

Because the dataset used in Publication Two was extremely large, when I had finished coding each transcript, I then grouped the margin notes together. (e.g. *Level*; *Teenagers*; *Policy of the school*; *stronger students helping weaker students etc.*) so that I had a manageable list of codes at the end of each individual data item (approximately 100 codes for each interview transcript).

2.3.2.3 Phase 3: Searching for themes

This phase begins when all data has been initially coded and collated and there is a long list of the different codes that have been identified across the data set. This phase re-focuses the analysis at a broader level and involves sorting the codes into groupings in order to identify how different codes might combine to form potential themes. Nowell *et al.* (2017, p. 8) describe how a theme brings “components or fragments of ideas and experiences” which link substantial portions of the data together. I used mind-maps, diagrams, index cards and different coloured highlighter pens to work with the codes which had been identified in Phase 2. I then grouped, re-grouped and further re-grouped the codes into topics, concepts and patterns and eventually into broad themes.

Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 82, emphasis in original) define a theme as “captur[ing] something important about the data in relation to the research question and represent[ing] some level of *patterned* response or meaning within the data set”. They take issue with the notion of themes ‘emerging’ from the data in qualitative analysis. They explain that a researcher does not ‘discover’ pre-existing themes in the data; in fact, two coders might identify completely different yet equally valid themes in the same data set. They compare how a researcher makes choices about the raw data and clusters codes together into themes to how a sculptor crafts a piece of marble into a particular shape. Another sculptor might work differently with the same material. Both sculptures are valid representations of the piece of marble. They contrast that with the work of an archaeologist who digs and ‘discovers’ something which already exists, hidden below the surface (Braun and Clarke, 2013, p. 224). In TA, the researcher should not see herself as discovering themes which are hidden in the data, but instead as interpreting the data and representing the themes so that they tell “a convincing and well-organized story about the data and topic” (Braun and Clarke, 2013, p. 287).

Themes are identified according to frequency in the data and perceived significance on the part of the researcher in relation to the research objectives. According to Braun and Clarke, (2013, p. 223), “it’s about meanings rather than numbers”. Therefore, key themes are not necessarily derived from the most prevalent codes across the data set, but are determined by the researcher in a number of ways. Themes can be identified using an inductive (bottom-up) approach, where the themes are strongly linked to the data

itself and not driven by the researcher's theoretical interests. This involves coding the data without trying to fit it into a pre-existing coding frame or researcher's analytic preconceptions. This form of TA is data driven. A second approach is a theoretical, top down approach, where the researcher uses the data to explore particular theoretical ideas, or apply these to the analysis being conducted. Bottom-up and top-down approaches are often combined in thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2013, p. 178). An inductive, bottom-up approach was the main method used in the exploratory studies leading to Publications Two and Three. However, a key theme in the analysis for Publication Two involved a more top-down approach, where the overall beliefs of individual teachers regarding L1 use in multilingual and monolingual teaching contexts was applied to the three positions (Virtual, Maximal and Optimal) described in Macaro's framework (2009).

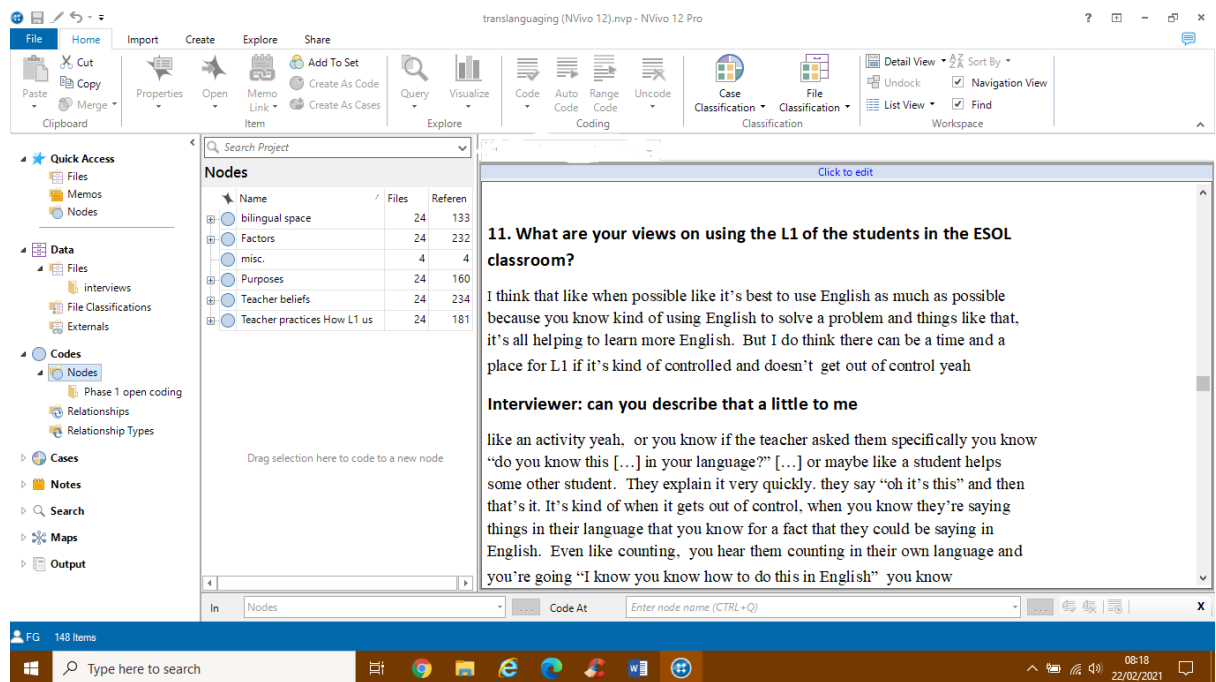
Based on these broad themes which I had identified following manual coding and grouping together of codes, I used NVivo software to create 'parent' themes (or nodes as they are termed in NVivo), setting up node names and brief descriptions for each theme.

These were the themes identified for Publication Two:

1. Factors [*factors which influence teachers' view of whether to use / allow L1 use in the classroom*]
2. Purposes [*Why teachers use / allow L1 to be used; what reasons they have for using the L1*]
3. Teacher practices / How L1 used or not used [*what teachers do in the classroom; ways they use L1/ discourage L1 etc.; activities and tasks*]
4. Teacher beliefs [*what teachers believe about language learning and language teaching; what they consider best practice; what they believe about students*]
5. Bilingual space [*students as bilinguals; transferable skills; translation; definition of bilingual; multilingualism*]

I then uploaded the transcripts onto NVivo and re-read them, this time coding every line or group of lines in each transcript against the five broad themes which had been identified. Figure 6 is a screenshot of NVivo during this phase.

Figure 6: Screenshot of QSR NVivo 2018, coding Rose interview against themes for Publication Two

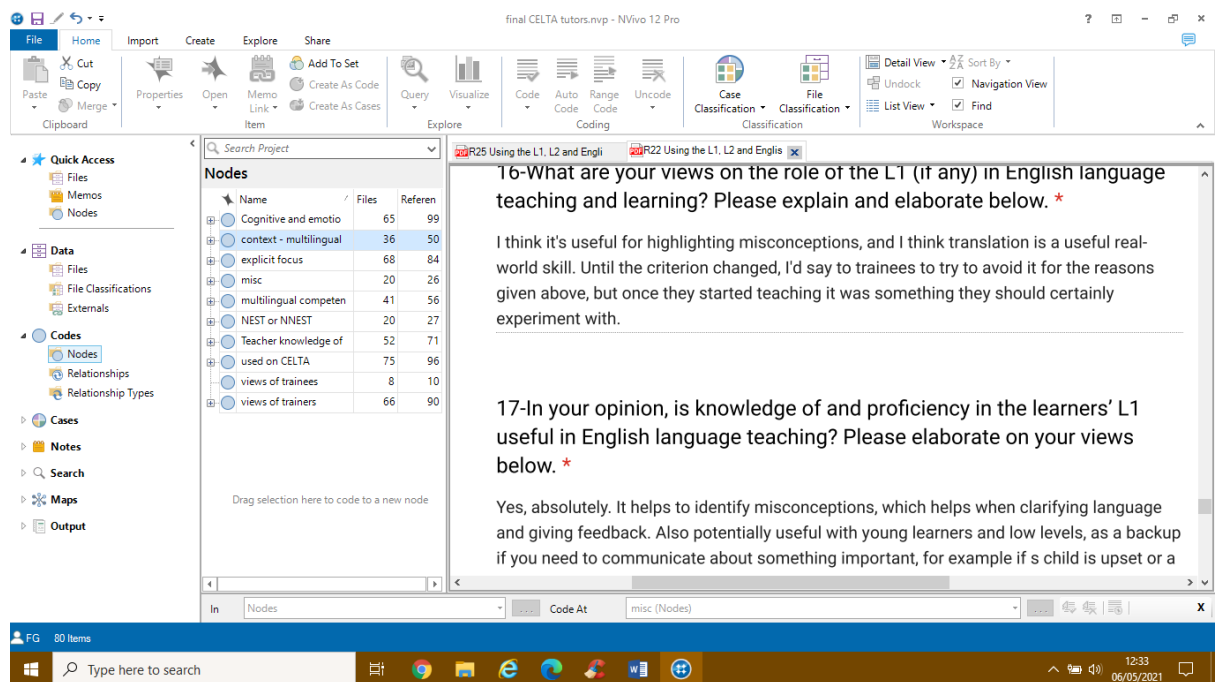


A similar approach was taken for Publication Three. The main themes identified were:

1. Cognitive and emotional development of the learner
2. Context - multilingual or shared L1
3. Explicit focus
4. Multilingual competence; bilingual skills
5. NEST or NNEST
6. Teacher knowledge of L1
7. Used on CELTA
8. Views of trainees
9. Views of trainers

Again, once the main themes had been created as parent nodes on the NVivo platform, I uploaded the completed surveys. These were then re-read, coding the data in each survey against the nine broad themes which had been identified. Figure 7 is a screenshot of NVivo during this phase.

Figure 7: Screenshot of QSR NVivo 2018, coding Respondent R22 against themes for Publication Three



2.3.2.4 Phase 4: Reviewing themes

There are two levels involved in the review and refinement of themes during Phase 4. The first entails reviewing the themes at the level of the data extracts which had been coded against the themes during Phase 3. For this stage of the analysis process, the larger 'parent' themes were broken down into sub-categories. In some cases, the sub-categories themselves were further re-coded into sub-groupings. A further broad theme was also created under the heading Misc. for data which did not fit easily into any of the sub-categories but related to the broad themes.

See Figure 8 for an example of how this was done on NVivo during analysis for Publication Two.

Figure 8: QSR NVivo 2018, screenshot example of coded data extracts according to Theme: Factors; sub-category: Age

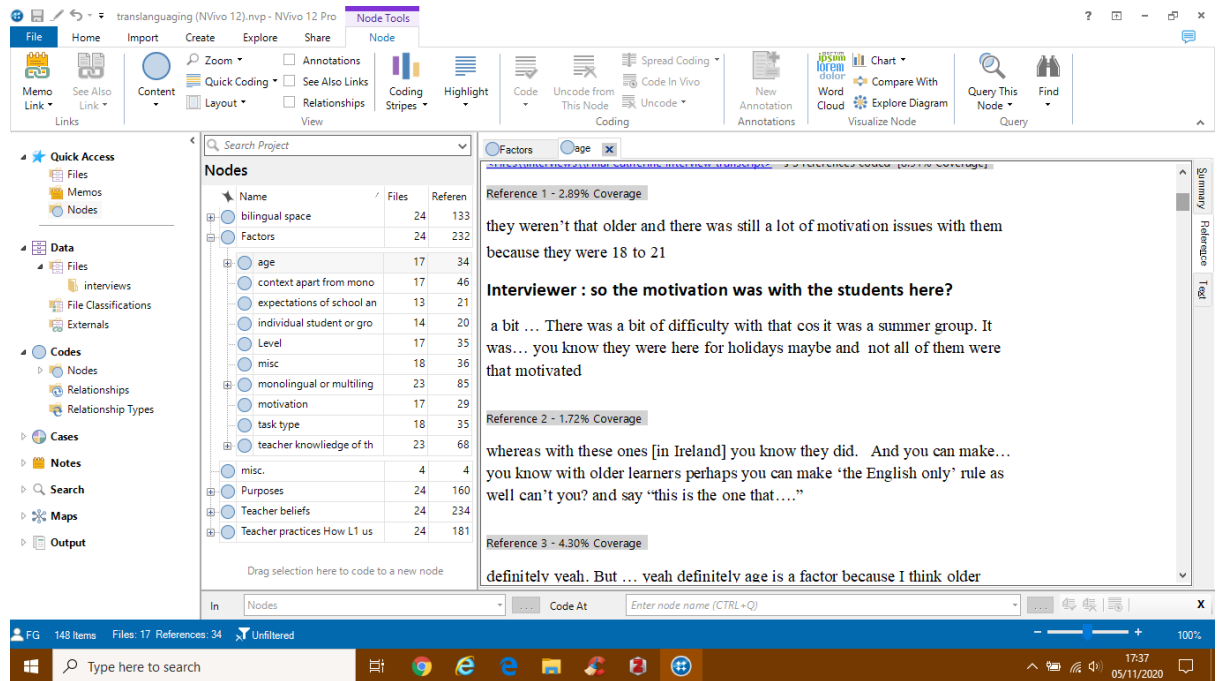


Table 4 provides the completed thematic map for Publication Two.

Table 4: Themes and sub-categories: Publication Two

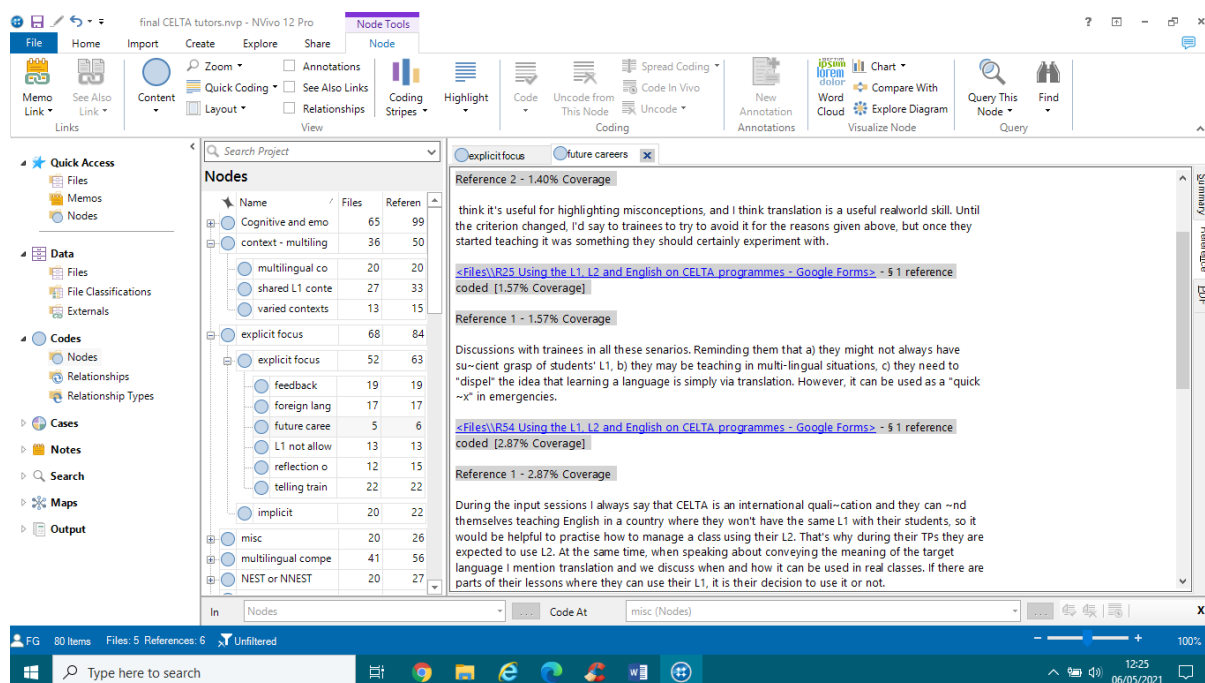
Theme 1: Factors Factors which influence teachers' view of whether to use / allow L1 use in the classroom	Theme 2: Purposes Why teachers use / allow L1 to be used; what reasons they have for using the L1	Theme 3: Teacher practices How L1 used or not used What teachers do in the classroom; ways they use L1/ discourage
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ <i>teacher knowledge of the L1</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ couldn't use the L1 ○ exclusion ○ letting students know you have the L1 ○ liked using it ○ multilingual context ○ students feeling about teacher having the L1 ○ useful or not ○ what are students talking about in the L1 ○ would use it if I could ➤ <i>task type</i> ➤ <i>motivation</i> ➤ <i>monolingual or multilingual group</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ common frame of reference 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ <i>translation</i> ➤ <i>students as bilinguals</i> ➤ <i>speed and efficiency</i> ➤ <i>misc.</i> ➤ <i>explanations and teaching</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ a ha moment ○ a last resort ○ a quick explanation ○ abstract and difficult language ○ easier ○ English first then the L1 ○ incidental language ○ students explaining to 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ <i>dancing drawing etc.</i> ➤ <i>encouragement</i> ➤ <i>planned or ad hoc</i> ➤ <i>resources</i> ➤ <i>sequencing initiation amount of L1 use and by whom</i> ➤ <i>strategies and activities using L1</i> ➤ <i>Teacher beliefs</i>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ dynamic of multilingual class ○ easier more difficult ○ is mono or multi context a factor for teachers ○ manners courtesy ○ motivation ○ natural to use the L1 with peers ○ speaking in the L1 ➤ <i>misc.</i> ➤ <i>Level</i> ➤ <i>individual student or group of students</i> ➤ <i>expectations of school and students</i> ➤ <i>context apart from monolingual or not</i> ➤ <i>age</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ adult ○ misc. ○ motivation ○ speaking English with peers <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ embarrassment ▪ speak English ▪ speak English ▪ spiral out of control ▪ ways to manage it ○ teenager ○ young children ➤ <i>misc.</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ another student ○ vocabulary or grammar ➤ <i>concrete the idea</i> ➤ <i>classroom management</i> ➤ <i>classroom atmosphere</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ bilingual space ○ encouragement ○ immersion in English ○ jokes ○ natural ○ release ○ self-conscious ○ support or crutch ○ Teacher attitude ○ teacher role to create a good atmosphere ○ teacher using the L1 ○ trust or out of control ○ we're here to learn English ➤ <i>clarification and checking</i> ➤ <i>awareness raising</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ all languages ○ comparing ○ limitations of translation ○ noticing ○ students teaching the teacher ○ talking about language through English 	
<p>Theme 4: Teacher beliefs What teachers believe about language learning and language teaching; what they consider best practice; what they believe about students</p>	<p>Theme 5: Bilingual space students as bilinguals; transferable skills; translation; definition of bilingual; multilingualism</p>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Best practice <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ can't do it for all languages ○ exposure to English; native speaker is best ○ it works; no need for L1 ○ maximise L2 use; provide opportunities to speak and use English ○ use of L1 as lesser option ➤ guilt and discomfort using L1 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ discomfort ➤ failure ➤ lack of engagement ➤ shouldn't do it or allow it 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Language' and language learning ➤ Classroom <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ 2 or many languages; ○ acknowledgement permission to speak L1 monolingual space ○ communication competences affirmation ○ functional role school subject to learn educational 	

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ misc ➤ own language learning experiences ➤ role of teacher <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ facilitate learning ○ provides English speaking environment ○ they've come all this way; they've paid ➤ Students using L1 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ motivation and relevance ○ natural and inevitable ○ slippery slope ○ teacher as policeman of L1 ➤ teacher training and reflection <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ CELTA DELTA ○ formulating thoughts on it ○ growing confidence and experience ○ journals and workshops ○ other teachers ➤ zealot or flexible <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ contradictory views ○ hadn't thought of it before ○ L1 as a possible tool ○ might have a different answer tomorrow ○ monolingual or multilingual context ○ strong views 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> value <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ group dynamics Inclusion exclusion ○ pretending not to understand or speak L1 ➤ Learners as bilingual <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ affirmation acknowledgement of L1 ○ focus of lesson ○ identity persona ○ language learners primarily ○ level ○ multilingual ➤ Misc ➤ Practices <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Bilingual practices ○ Monolingual practices ➤ Teacher <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ exclusion inclusion ○ misc ○ monolingual or bilingual teacher ○ my job my role Response to Q 	
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(See Appendix B to Publication Three for a list of themes and sub-themes used in the analysis of that data.) Figure 9 provides an example of how coded extracts were reviewed against themes during this phase of analysis for Publication Three:

Figure 9. QSR NVivo 2018, screenshot example of coded data extracts according to Theme: Explicit focus; sub-category: Future careers



The second level of reviewing themes involves a similar process to level 1, but this time applied to the full data items and not just the extracts. The complete interview transcripts (for Publication two) and survey responses (for Publication Three) were re-read in light of the themes which had been identified in order to ensure that the themes accurately reflected the data (and to code anything which had been missed in earlier readings).

2.3.2.1 Using NVivo data analysis software

I used NVivo data analysis software for the coding, refinement and review of themes in the studies leading to Publications Two and Three. I found it to be an invaluable tool for storing, managing and organising the large datasets, particularly the twenty-four interviews used for Publication Two. Although all of the functions provided by NVivo can be carried out by hand, NVivo has the advantage of speed. I found it particularly useful for locating coded items in surrounding material in order to see the extract in

context easily; coding text directly into pre-identified themes; displaying all the coded data for a particular theme; presenting all the themes associated with particular data items; and arranging and visualising codes and nodes into hierarchies and clusters. The ease and speed with which it performed these mechanical functions was extremely helpful, particularly in avoiding many of the frustrations and difficulties related to data overload and retrieval which according to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018) are frequently encountered problems when dealing with large datasets.

However, it is important to stress that the mechanical and organisational support provided by NVivo only goes so far. The software itself does not analyse data, or assign extracts to particular codes, or decide on themes; I did this. I did not use NVivo for complex interpretation or interrogation of the data or for identifying findings. As Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018) explain, only a human can handle the making of meaning, interpreting data, and processing the outcomes of coding. No software is capable of “the intellectual and conceptualizing processes required to transform data” or make any kind of judgement about the analysis (Novell *et al.*, 2017, p. 9). For this reason, Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018) recommend using the active voice and ‘I’ when describing how software such as NVivo was used in order to demonstrate how it is the researcher who is driving the analysis.

2.3.2.6 Phase 5: Defining and naming themes

During Phase 5, a detailed description and analysis of each theme is prepared. The purpose of these ‘thick’ descriptions is to identify the scope and content of each theme and portray the ‘essence’ of what each theme is about and why it is significant and interesting. Braun and Clarke (2013) suggest naming the themes with ‘punchy’ titles, but I found it more useful to use plain titles which would clearly identify the focus of each theme.

Below are examples of thick descriptions of a theme from Publications Two and from Publication Three. [To avoid repetition, I have selected themes from the data which explored issues which are not covered in depth in the publications themselves].

Below is the description for the theme named ‘*Factors*’ for Publication Two, which looked at the factors which affected teachers’ decisions in relation to using or allowing the students to use the L1 in class [Note: this description is included here in its original

form, intended as a ‘summary draft to self’; this is reflected in the writing style of the description].

FACTORS

Several factors were found to influence teachers’ views on the use of the L1 in the language classroom. These included the policy of the school; expectations of the students themselves; the type of class (secondary school; business etc.). Key to be discussed: age, especially teenagers; level; their own beliefs regarding best practice; their knowledge of the L1; whether teaching in a monolingual or multilingual context.

The level of students’ English. The majority of respondents felt that it was sometimes warranted with very low levels with a very low understanding of what was happening. Several teachers mentioned a cut-off point of Pre Intermediate. It was felt that beyond this level, students did not need the help or support of the teacher using the L1. One or two teachers mentioned that after teaching in a multilingual context, they no longer felt that they would need to use the L1 with lower levels. However, most teachers, even teachers with strong views against using the L1 in class, felt that especially in monolingual contexts, using the L1 a little in the early weeks of a course could be helpful and productive. [more advanced learners: although the majority of respondents felt that more advanced learners did not need the support of the L1 as an aid to understanding and comprehension in class or as an emotional crutch, one or two teachers felt that there were uses at any level]

Another factor which teachers mentioned frequently was the age of the learner. Most respondents felt that very young children might need the support of the L1 more than older learners. They referred to the fact that children could not think in the abstract, short attention spans etc. Several mentioned that native speakers of the L1 were often employed to teach grammar in the school where they had worked and that they were supposed to do songs and activities with the children through English. One teacher mentioned the high level of English which some of the children had (in an immersion type school in Asia – post office; restaurant in class). The need for a support crutch for young children was often mentioned. One age group which almost every teacher referred to was teenage learners. Many teachers mentioned the difficulty of getting teenage learners to use English in class in both monolingual and multilingual settings. It was very common to have monolingual groups even in private language schools in contexts such as Ireland where the norm is usually multilingual groups, especially during the summer months. Self-consciousness regarding speaking English to their peers; lack of motivation / who sent them, relevance to their lives, a subject on the curriculum etc.; immaturity. Frequent mention of the teacher being like a broken record: Speak English speak

English speak English – which many teachers felt was not the most productive use of their time. It was felt to be inevitable, natural for the learners to switch into the L1 during certain parts of the lesson and the teachers identified several strategies to manage this (English for certain fluency type activities – clear boundaries when they could not use English; recognise the need to change the focus or the dynamic of the class etc.). At the same time, many teachers were very conscious of the idea of the slippery slope – had to be strict because the L1 would take over.

The focus of the activity was another factor mentioned frequently by teachers. If students were discussing a grammar point or the answers to a reading comprehension etc., some teachers were flexible about using the L1 at these times. Many teachers mentioned it depended what they were talking about (what they did at the weekend or something about the lesson). However, all teachers were adamant that the L1 should not be used during tasks where the focus was on the development of fluency and practising English.

However, the main factor identified by teachers was the context itself: whether the group was a monolingual or multilingual group exerted a major influence for many teachers on when and how the L1 might be used in class. Most teachers felt it was best practice for students to use the L2 as much as possible in class and almost all described how much easier this was to achieve in a multilingual context, where the only common language was the language of instruction. Students were forced to use English in a way they weren't in the monolingual context. They also described the different dynamic of the group, where students from different linguistic, cultural and social backgrounds were together and students often were very interested in each other's backgrounds etc. It was often felt that this was not at all the same when students were learning in their home countries in a monolingual setting. When the students shared a common language, teachers often identified useful points of comparison and contrast which could be utilised in class and several advantages and purposes were mentioned by the teachers (more details in another section). This did not depend too much on whether the teacher him or herself spoke the L1. Many teachers felt that they had an awareness of false friends etc. etc. even if they did not speak the language. Related to this, the extent to which the teacher was a fluent speaker of the L1. The majority of teachers interviewed did not have mastery of the L1 of the students and indeed many/most???? of them did not speak any language apart from English well. This was perhaps the most commonly expressed factor (apart from best practice not to use the L1 – immersion was best etc. etc.). Several teachers said that they could not use the L1 because they did not have it, they were not able to and a sizeable number said that they would use it if they had it. However, this related to context in the following way: teachers could not be expected to be familiar with all the languages spoken by students in a multilingual context and this was frequently mentioned as the reason why they did not allow the L1 to be used in the multilingual

context. It would not be fair to all the students and many students would be excluded or isolated. Teachers in this context often did not let on to the students which language(s) they might be fluent in, even when they spoke the language of some of the students.

This theme of inclusion and exclusion was a common thread and manifested itself in several ways in the interviews. First, as described above, teachers did not think it was fair or courteous that any student be excluded from full participation in the class because other students were speaking their L1 together or because the teacher was able to refer to the L1 of some students but not others. This was often articulated as the main difference between the two contexts and the reason why teachers tended to use the L1 much less frequently in multilingual contexts. This sense of exclusion is also a reason why several teachers mentioned that they did not like it when the L1 was used in monolingual contexts also. They spoke about feeling on the outside; wondering if the students were laughing at them; etc., particularly in the early days of their time in a particular monolingual context because they were unable to speak or understand the L1 of the students.

However, the majority of teachers did use or allow the L1 to be used when they taught in a monolingual context (and sometimes in multilingual contexts too) for a variety of reasons and purposes.

The following is the description of one of the themes from Publication Three. The theme was named *Used on CELTA* and explored the extent to which trainers used the L1 with the trainees on the course [Note: as in the earlier example, this description was written in draft form].

Used on CELTA theme:

Overwhelming response to Q do you use the L1 with trainee teachers on the CELTA course is No or Never. Sometimes NO or No! for emphasis.

Some teachers explained that this never came up as an issue; it was what the trainees expected. Some explained that this 'rule' was established on the first day or during the interviews. One mentioned that it was part of his/her role to model English for the trainees, that the trainer him/herself would never use the L1. Some mentioned that they did not speak the L1 of the trainees; some mentioned that the participants spoke a range of languages and that English was the shared L1.

Many mentioned the foreign language lesson as an exception – to re-create the experience of learning a foreign language and particularly to demonstrate that the use of the L1 was not necessary in teaching. Some mentioned using words from ‘foreign’ languages to demonstrate various aspects of L1 use (TTT; concept checking etc.).

A small number said rarely or in exceptional cases. One described how one of the trainees asked for permission to speak in Russian – she had a personal problem at home which she wanted to explain to the tutor. One or two others mentioned switching to the L1 extremely rarely in exceptional cases

A tiny number said yes for emotional support, jokes, phatic purposes when they sometimes used the L1. One said if a trainee speaks to them in Spanish they answer in Spanish. One mentioned demonstrating how plurilingual skills could be used when called for as a valuable tool in TESOL (no real time to exploit this on the CELTA). A small number mentioned showing respect for the L1 of the trainees

Only a small percentage use the L1 with trainees. Reasons given for using the L1 with trainees can be broadly divided into 4 categories:

Language awareness issues / learner errors etc. Some tutors described comparing languages (no real L1 / foreign language distinction usually made); predicting errors; highlighting features of the L1 vs English mentioned. Pron issues. False friends. Etc. One respondent described getting trainees in groups to discuss issues in L1 (in multilingual groups s/he tries to get shared-L1 small groups going)

Teaching techniques: how to use English rather than L1 for concept checking; how NOT to over-rely on the L1; excessive drilling etc. Again sometimes unfamiliar language / L1 distinction not made and ANY language not English used for this purpose.

Acknowledgement / respect for L1 of trainees (or sometimes of one or two trainees on a course) – this mentioned by three respondents. One respondent mentioned that one trainee from Cuba on a course was in a minority and so the tutor sometimes spoke to her in Spanish “it would be silly not to”; one mentioned using Arabic terms she knew to show respect for the L1 but she did not speak Arabic. (NEST/NNEST??)

On a one-to-one / pastoral care basis. A small number mentioned reverting to L1 when a trainee was emotional or in need of pastoral type care. Using the L1 seems to be initiated by the trainee and the tutor responds in kind (one mentioned that the trainee asked for permission to speak Russian first; others that when the trainee gets emotional and switches to the L1, the tutor responds in the L1). For jokes and phatic purposes mentioned. Also when strong advice is

needed or when behavioural/ attitude problems emerge with a trainee, communication in the L1 is deemed preferable by one or two respondents. *‘it is clearly better to switch to the L1’*

Preferable to use the L1 sometimes???

Feedback sometimes conducted in English: *“When discussing lessons in coaching sessions, if it's easier to communicate that in another language”.*

Another mentioned some concepts easier to grasp in the L1: *“only on rare occasions when there's a more comprehensive term for some concept in the trainees' L1 (Russian) we use this terms to help them better grasp the concept (again, very rarely); another instance would be giving examples of some vocabulary items that would be difficult to convey (or to pronounce) - again, this happens extremely rarely”.*

Trainees generally are advised / told not to use their L1 on the CELTA course. This is told explicitly on day 1 or during the interview in some cases or just assumed as the norm. In general this is not seen as a problem / not an issue and very little more is said about it. Some mentioned that not an issue because of the mix of languages among the trainees.

A few mentioned the slippery slope (no one used this term though) if trainees allowed or encouraged to use the L1. *“Otherwise, they tend to switch to Russian, and the English environment in the classroom is 'gone'.* This respondent explained that that was why only the tutor could use the L1 (rarely and for comparative purposes).

One mentioned trainees slipping into the L1 when the tutors are not in the room; another mentioned that some NNEST tutors sometimes use the L1 in shared-L1 contexts (this was not seen as a problem but as a resource) and that there seemed to be a certain guilt around it – but that it seemed normal to the respondent in shared-L1 contexts. Several distinguished between shared-L1 and multilingual contexts but mostly this was mentioned because it was not an issue in multilingual contexts. One mentioned allowing trainees to give Ls feedback by nodding (not speaking in the L1) if they heard the student translate a word correctly. One mentioned fears of trainees that they would be penalised for using L1 during TPs.

“Occasionally, the tutor may nicely suggest: 'Try to use English in class', but this is rarely necessary. Sometimes trainees are even afraid of using L1 during teaching practice, and if it accidentally happens, they are worried that they will be penalized for that.”

A small number actively encouraged shared-L1 groups to use the L1 (small L1 groups even in multilingual contexts) to discuss certain pedagogic and linguistic issues. A few had no problem if trainees used the L1 among themselves. But this is not the norm and rarely mentioned. As above, one mentioned that in shared-L1 contexts with NNEST tutors L1 use happened among tutor and trainees and seemed ok (although she mentioned there appeared to be some guilt

around it)/ distinguished between courses in the UK with multilingual TP students and monolingual trainees

2.3.2.7 Phase 6: Producing the report

The final phase of TA involves the final analysis and write-up of the report. Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 93) describe this as telling “the complicated story of your data in a way which convinces the reader of the merit and validity of your analysis”. The report should provide a concise, logical, non-repetitive and interesting account of the story the data tells. Evidence of the themes within the data should be embedded within the analytic narrative, using extracts from across the dataset. These extracts should be carefully chosen to show the breadth and depth of the theme.

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018, p. 648) explain that “writing is thinking” in which the researcher is “sifting, sorting, reviewing and reflecting on the data”. Writing involves a process of thinking through the ideas and is an integral part of the analysis process. During this phase, connections between themes and concepts are explored and worked through. As Gibson and Brown (2009, p. 194) explain, any “misunderstandings or lack of clarity quickly show through”. Two approaches are suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 83): a thematic description of the entire data set can be provided so that the reader gets a sense of all of the predominant or important themes, or there can be an in-depth focus of one particular theme or group of themes within the data. In fact, one of the most difficult aspects of the writing for both Publication Three and particularly for Publication Two related to adhering to the word-count requirements for journal publications. This led to a tortuous paring down of my data and findings to the required length and involved making difficult decisions about which themes to focus on and sometimes which sub-categories of these themes to leave out or barely touch on in the report. I tried to be alert to the personal bias at play in what was selected for inclusion or omitted from the report and to focus on what would be novel and / or of interest to the readership, but knew that inevitably my own research interests, opinions, experiences and values drove these decisions. Part of this phase also involves linking back the theoretical literature which informed the study, whereby findings and results are compared and contrasted with the broader literature.

2.3.2.8 Quantification in qualitative research

Another consideration in writing the report is the role of quantification in reporting the findings and results of qualitative research. According to Mackey and Gass (2016), some qualitative researchers eschew quantification and others are interested in patterns of occurrence and do not exclude the use of numbers and statistics which are more usually associated with quantitative research. They argue that quantification of some kind provides a simple and concise way of reporting general findings and feel that numerical descriptions “can make it readily apparent why researchers have drawn particular inferences and how well their theories reflect the data” (Mackey and Gass, 2016, p. 234). Maxwell (2009, p. 245) claims that “[m]any of the conclusions of qualitative studies have an implicit quantitative component. Any claim that a particular phenomenon is typical, rare, or prevalent in the setting or population studied is an inherently quantitative claim and requires some quantitative support.” Pring (2015, p. 73) also suggests that “[t]here are features of what it is to be a person which enable generalizations to be made and ‘quantities’ to be added or subtracted”, but cautions against the extension of quantification to certain aspects of personal and social reality, explaining that “[s]urveys which tot up similar responses to the same question might in fact give a distorted picture of how the different people really felt about or understood a situation” (Pring, 2015, p.70). Braun and Clarke argue firmly against the use of numbers to describe themes as a general practice (2013, p. 261) and discuss alternative ways of representing prevalence in TA that does not provide a quantified measure, such as ‘a common theme ...’ or ‘the majority of participants ...’. They describe how presenting actual numbers of respondents against a theme does not take into account participants who may not have mentioned or given their views on something during open-ended interviews or free writing, where participants are free to raise issues (or not) and different issues are raised by different participants. In addition, whether something is insightful or important is “not necessarily determined by whether large numbers of people said it” (Braun and Clarke 2013, p. 261). However, although they generally discourage the use of frequency counts in the reporting of analysis, they acknowledge that indicating the level of frequency in relation to patterns in qualitative data can sometimes be useful (and may sometimes be a requirement by an editor or supervisor).

In some ways, this issue reflects the “warring philosophical traditions” (Pring, 2015, p. 59) between quantitative and qualitative paradigms in educational research. Pring rejects what he sees as “a false dualism”, not in terms of the philosophical distinction between the paradigms, but in the “either/or” positions taken by many researchers in relation to them (Pring, 2015, p. 67). Likewise, Gibson and Brown (2009, p. 9) feel that discussions around quantification in qualitative data illustrate the over-simplicity of the quantitative *versus* qualitative distinction:

It is common for quantitative research to produce some qualitative data (i.e. things that can’t be numerically coded, like descriptions of experiences), and for qualitative research to generate data that can be described numerically and analysed statistically ... the difference is often not actually in the data itself, but in the uses to which it is put. (Gibson and Brown, 2009: 9).

For Publications Two and Three, I felt precise quantification of exactly how many participants had been coded against a particular item was not usually necessary or useful. To illustrate the amount of evidence supporting a particular theme or sub-theme in the data, I tended to use expressions such as: ‘A recurring theme ...’, ‘Many of the respondents ...’, ‘A number of ...’, ‘A large number of ...’, ‘Almost all ...’ as suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006). In relation to Publication One, as I mentioned earlier, quantification of the results played a greater role in the data analysis in that study. I felt that, in some cases, the comparison between the control and treatment groups was enhanced by a degree of frequency counting in order to demonstrate the difference in patterns of occurrence between the two groups. In addition, for both Publication One and Two, some decisions about numerical quantification in the publication of results were made during the peer-review process following submission to the journals. Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 83) suggest that “more debate is needed about how and why we might represent the prevalence of themes in the data”.

2.4. Issues of dependability, credibility and trustworthiness

It is important to conduct qualitative research in a rigorous and methodical manner. Throughout this PhD process, certain procedures and strategies were employed to ensure the trustworthiness, credibility and dependability of the findings and of the approaches taken. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018) explain that issues of concern in

terms of reliability and validity in quantitative approaches such as random sampling, alpha coefficients of reliability and the control of variables to ensure the transferability of findings are not as relevant in qualitative approaches, where it is accepted that different versions of the same reality can co-exist. Rather than generalizability, qualitative researchers are concerned with a particular phenomenon or situation. Many scholars (e.g. Mackey and Gass, 2016; Nowell *et al.*, 2017; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2018) recommend providing rich and detailed descriptions of the context and participants involved in the research, which allows others to judge the extent to which the findings could be applied to their own site so that they can judge the transferability of findings for themselves. This was done for the three studies.

2.4.1 Audit trail

Rather than validity and reliability, terms such as dependability, trustworthiness, authenticity and credibility are often used to discuss validity and reliability in qualitative research. An important way to ensure trustworthiness and credibility is by maintaining a clearly documented and traceable audit trail, whereby the researcher can demonstrate their rationale for decisions made and steps taken, how conclusions and interpretations were reached and how the findings are clearly derived from the data (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2018). A comprehensive audit trail was kept for each of the three studies in the PhD, comprising records of raw data, field notes, coding, transcripts, thematic maps etc. Novell *et al.* (2017) highlight how using software such as NVivo can support the credibility of the TA process by providing a clear electronic trail of the coding process, and this software was used in Publications Two and Three. In addition, I provided rich, thick descriptions of the themes in the final reports in order to enhance the authenticity, trustworthiness and plausibility of the research findings. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018, p. 668) stress that the themes should be verified by the data. Many extracts from the data across a wide spread of participants and respondents were included as a way of verifying themes. As suggested by Nowell *et al.* (2017), a mixture of quotations was included in the final report, comprising longer quotations which might give a flavour of the responses and shorter extracts to illustrate themes. I made every effort not to omit or ignore data which seemed discrepant or

which ran counter to themes, as recommended by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018) and Creswell and Creswell (2018).

2.4.2 Reflexivity

Reflection memos are another important element of an audit trail (Nowell *et al.*, 2017). Creswell and Creswell (2018, p. 184) describe these as notes which “might include observations about the process of data collection, hunches about what you are learning” etc. These can give a reflective account of the research process and demonstrate critical engagement with the research, particularly in relation to the researcher’s own values, interests and insights. Peer debriefing was an important technique I used in this regard. This involved using my supervisor and research collaborators to review and ask questions about the study and the research process, as a way to reflect on and interrogate decisions I made and how my role in the study and my personal background, culture and experiences shaped my interpretations of the data. Seeing this from different perspectives was useful. As Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018, p. 303) explain, researchers are not neutral but are part of the social world they are researching and “bring their own biographies and values to the research situation”. It is impossible to fully stand outside what we focus on and how we understand, interpret and explain. The “researcher identity memo” is another technique I used which involved writing down “the different aspects of your experience that are potentially relevant to your study” (Maxwell, 2009, p. 225) I was keenly aware of my own personal stance (described earlier in Section 2.1.4) and strived to reflect on and acknowledge my personal bias and values and how these shaped the direction of the study and the interpretations of the data at all stages of the research process. (e.g. my desire to focus on NNEST trainers; looking for evidence to support certain positions, for example teachers / trainers seeing their own monolingualism as a deficit; favourable / unfavourable impressions about the participants during interviews, to name but a few). I also recognise that there are undoubtedly many areas where I lack self-awareness in relation to my unconscious biases.

2.4.3 Triangulation

Triangulation is often put forward as a validity testing strategy in qualitative research and as a means to ensure the reliability of findings. Mackey and Gass (2016, p. 233) define triangulation as “using multiple research techniques and multiple sources of data in order to explore the issues from all feasible perspectives”. Maxwell (2009) suggests that this strategy reduces the risk of chance associations and of systematic biases due to a specific method, allowing for a better assessment of the generality of the explanations that one develops. Traditionally, triangulation made use of both quantitative and qualitative approaches to examine a phenomenon (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2018) and has been associated with the aim of getting as close to ‘the truth’ as possible (Braun and Clarke, 2013). However, this form of triangulation makes sense only if there is an assumption that “a single knowable truth” exists out there, which is problematic for many qualitative researchers (Braun and Clarke, 2013, p. 286). Mixed methods approaches to triangulation have been extended to incorporate several different types, including researcher triangulation, instrument triangulation, theoretical triangulation, data triangulation among others. (Mackey and Gass, 2016; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2018; Braun and Clarke, 2013).

Another view of triangulation is to see it as a way to get a richer, fuller story rather than a more accurate one. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018) argue that triangulation techniques attempt to explain more fully the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than one standpoint. According to Braun and Clarke (2013, p. 286), in this form, “[t]riangulation becomes a way of capturing multiple ‘voices’ or ‘truths’ that relate to the topic, rather than being understood as [a] way to access the one right result”. This is the approach to triangulation which I took in this research project. Two forms of triangulation were used across the three studies to examine the issue of L1 use in the EFL classroom: data was collected from three different sources and three different data collection methods were used (as described earlier). It was hoped that this allowed for a more complex, in-depth understanding of the issue, without a desire to use this technique to replicate findings.

Similarly, replication of findings should not be expected through investigator triangulation in thematic analysis coding. As Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018, p. 270) point out, two researchers studying a single setting might come up with very

different findings, “but both sets of findings might be reliable”. Braun and Clarke (2013) eschew the calculation of inter-rater reliability scores for the coding of data, given the fundamentally subjective and interpretative nature of coding, claiming that it is inherently wrong to assume that one researcher will corroborate the coding of another. However, others such as Creswell and Creswell (2018) see value in this, particularly as a way to check for consistency in coding across a dataset.

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018) suggest doing an independent blind parallel coding exercise early in the coding process, whereby a second researcher is given the research objectives and the raw data but no codes and is asked to code the data, after which the two sets are reviewed for consistency and discrepancies. This was done with 15 of the questionnaires for Publication Three with my researcher-collaborator. Discussion about what codes and categories were being identified followed. I found this useful as a way to think deeply about my own coding, see alternative wording or approaches, and justify to myself why I was coding as I did.

Both Creswell and Creswell (2018) and Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018) recommend taking a similar approach to cross-check the clarity of the themes. Here, a second researcher is given the themes and the raw (uncoded) data and is asked to assign the raw data to the broad categories, which are then cross-checked against the coding done by the first researcher. For Publication Two, my supervisor independently coded three of the twenty-four interviews against the parent themes which had been identified during Phase 3 of the TA process and then compared this with how I had coded the same interviews on NVivo. Partly because of a suggestion made during the peer-review process for Publication Two, I decided to use NVivo to run an inter-rater reliability (IRR) test for the coding done for Publication Three. An NVivo interrater comparison test based on 10 of the 77 questionnaires was conducted with my collaborator on this study, resulting in an IRR weighted average Kappa⁶ score of 0.83, whereby “a Kappa of >.80 indicates a very good level of agreement” (Braun and Clarke, 2013, p. 279). (See Appendix C6 for the full NVivo IRR test result.)

⁶ *Kappa*: An index with a range of 0 to 1 that measures agreement when both coders apply or do not apply a code. A positive Kappa indicates that observers agree more than they would by chance. A score of 0.8 or higher is considered a high level of agreement, whereas above 0.6 is considered substantial agreement. (qdatraining, 2013).

In both cases, there was a strong degree of similarity and consistency found in the coding comparisons. Creswell and Creswell (2018, p. 202) state that it is recommended “that the consistency of the coding be in agreement at least 80% of the time for good qualitative reliability”. I agree with Braun and Clarke (2013) that such calculations are problematic and do not necessarily enhance the validity of the research, given that more than one interpretation of the data is possible and different ways of coding the same data are equally valid. However, I found the coding comparison exercises very worthwhile. Although it is impossible to eliminate researcher bias and subjectivity from the coding process, comparing how others coded the same data led to fertile discussions and encouraged me to reflect deeply on the way my own experiences and values influenced my own coding (e.g. seeing the bilingual space theme as a positive phenomenon; deciding whether a teacher’s reflection on their changing practices over the years should be coded under Beliefs or Practices, or both).

2.4.4 External checking

Creswell and Creswell (2018) also mention other useful ways for providing external checks on the research process. These include peer debriefings (which I described in Section 2.4.2) as well as submission to journals where an objective assessment of the entire design and course of the research is provided through the blind peer review process. The revisions to the three articles which were requested during the peer-review process (for example in relation to the quantification of data as touched upon in Section 2.3.2.8) were constructive and often thought-provoking. This feedback was an invaluable part of my engagement with the PhD by Publication format. Both of these measures provided me with additional external perspectives on my research.

Member checking is another measure which is sometimes mentioned in relation to external checking in qualitative research (Mackey and Gass, 2016; Creswell and Creswell, 2018). Member checking involves asking participants to look at the findings to see if they feel they are accurate and is seen as a way to confirm ‘a fit’ between the participants’ and the researcher’s interpretations. However, this was not done for any of the studies. As Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018) point out, there is more than one possible interpretation of the data and set of findings. The participants’ interpretation of the data is not the only valid one and the “interpretative activity” undertaken by the

researcher may identify different ‘truths’ about the data (Braun and Clarke, 2013, p. 285). I also understood clearly that the data collection had captured the views of the participants at a particular moment in time, on one particular day. As Sally, one of the participants in Publication Two said:

Sally: I wonder what I’d say if you asked me again in a week or a month or a year, and I wonder if you repeated it, if you could get your hands on the same people, what they would say, because I think even having this conversation is going to change things now. And I’m going to start thinking about what I’m doing and wondering more and remembering the conversation

2.4.5 Checklist for good thematic analysis

Braun and Clarke (2013, p. 287; 2006, p. 96) provide a 15-point checklist for good thematic analysis which I tried to adhere to throughout. See Table 5.

Table 5: A 15-point checklist of criteria for good thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006)

Process	Criteria
Transcription	1. The data have been transcribed to an appropriate level of detail, and the transcripts have been checked against the tapes for ‘accuracy’.
Coding	2. Each data item has been given equal attention in the coding process. 3. Themes have not been generated from a few vivid examples (an anecdotal approach), but instead the coding process has been thorough, inclusive and comprehensive. 4. All relevant extracts for all each theme have been collated. 5. Themes have been checked against each other and back to the original data set. 6. Themes are internally coherent, consistent, and distinctive.

Analysis	<p>7. Data have been analysed -interpreted, made sense of - rather than just paraphrased or described</p> <p>8. Analysis and data match each other - the extracts illustrate the analytic claims.</p>
	<p>9. Analysis tells a convincing and well-organized story about the data and topic.</p> <p>10. A good balance between analytic narrative and illustrative extracts is provided.</p>
Overall	<p>11. Enough time has been allocated to complete all phases of the analysis adequately, without rushing a phase or giving it a once-over-lightly.</p>
Written Report	<p>12. The assumptions about, and specific approach to, thematic analysis are clearly explicated.</p> <p>13. There is a good fit between what you claim you do, and what you show you have done i.e. described method and reported analysis are consistent.</p> <p>14. The language and concepts used in the report are consistent with the epistemological position of the analysis.</p> <p>15. The researcher is positioned as active in the research process; themes do not just emerge</p>

Braun and Clarke (2013, p. 293) explain that these guidelines should not be viewed as “absolute yardsticks” by which to judge the quality of a piece of research, but that “like all aspects of qualitative research, they require active interpretation and application appropriate to the study in hand”.

2.5. Ethical issues

Braun and Clarke (2013, p. 62) identify four principles of ethical research. These are:
[1] the principle of respect, which is concerned with issues around privacy,

confidentiality, consent, deception etc.; [2] the principle of competence, which relates to being an ethical researcher through an awareness of professional ethics, standards of ethical decision-making etc., [3] the principle of responsibility, which relates to issues around potential risk to and the rights of the participants; and [4] the principle of integrity, which includes standards of honesty and accuracy, particularly in relation to the mis-representation of data and issues around plagiarism and voice. In my research, ethical issues were regarded as of the utmost importance throughout and were addressed in every aspect of the design, collection and analysis of the data.

Ethical issues were addressed and approval was granted via the DCU Research Ethics Committee (REC) for each of the three studies. Plain language statements and informed consent forms were approved by REC before being issued to the participants.

Participants were made aware of the identity and relevant background details of the researchers in advance for each study, and time and opportunities were provided to all participants to ask questions and/or raise any issues with the researchers before and during the study. Publication One involved participants of school-going age and so particular care was taken here. Both the principal of the school and the parents of the children were involved in granting permission and consent as well as the children themselves. We were particularly alive to the power dynamics of the principal – teacher – student – parent relationships and it was made clear to the students and their parents that there was no obligation to participate and that there would be no penalties of any kind for non-participation. For Publication Two, the Directors of Studies of several schools in Dublin were involved in granting permission for recruitment posters etc. The administrator of the Cambridge English Teaching Qualification mailing list for CELTA practitioners granted permission for the use of the platform for recruitment of volunteers. No pressure of any kind was exerted on volunteers to participate and participants were aware that they could withdraw consent (up to the submission of the anonymous feedback form and google survey in the case of Publications One and Three respectively). In the case of the classroom intervention used in Publication One, we were conscious of the fact that this would take place during regular class time (as a normal part of teaching) and we had a strategy prepared in the event that some students might not have given consent for their feedback forms to be used. However, this scenario did not arise as all students who attended on the day had given consent.

Students involved in Publication One were issued with a non-identifying code and number which they used on the feedback forms. I was not aware of the identity of the writer of individual feedback forms. Similarly, I was not aware of the identity of respondents for Publication Three. For the face-to-face interviews in Publication Two, participants were assured of anonymity and I was very alive to the trust placed in me by the participants. Original feedback forms and recordings of interviews have been stored in a secure location with encrypted password-protected access only and will be destroyed safely according to DCU protocols once the PhD examination process is complete. Extreme care was taken to anonymise the data for publication so that all names or other identifying information were removed. At all times, care was taken to avoid questions or directions which might cause offence, discrimination or upset to participants and control was given to them in relation to what they said or wrote. They were aware that they were not obliged in any way to answer any questions which they did not wish to. The final published articles were shared with the school (Publication One), the individual participants (Publication Two) and on the Facebook and CELTA platforms (Publication Three).

Great care was devoted to academic rigour at all times, both in relation to the trustworthiness of the research procedures and to the conventions of academic writing, citing and referencing.

Chapter Three: Publication One

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents Publication One: Gallagher, F. and Colohan, G. 2017. “T(w)o and fro: using the L1 as a language teaching and learning tool in the CLIL classroom”. *The Language Learning Journal*, 45(4), pp. 485-498, [first published online 2014]

The Language Learning Journal (LLJ), which is the official journal for The Association for Language Learning, was chosen for this publication. Among the key areas of interest listed on its website are: *Pedagogical practices in classrooms and less formal settings; Foreign language learning/teaching in all phases, from early learners to higher and adult education; Classroom practice in all its aspects; Classroom-based research; Multilingualism and multiculturalism*’ (The Language Learning Journal: aims and scope, no date). The interest in foreign language teaching and learning, classroom-based research and multilingualism aligned with that of the study, which focused on a particular bilingual pedagogic intervention which was explored in a secondary-level CLIL classroom. In addition, the readership, aims and scope of the journal seemed very suitable, particularly as the findings were felt to be of interest to educators of all foreign languages and not only EFL. As described under its Aims and Scope section on the website, LLJ:

provides a forum for scholarly contributions on current aspects of foreign language and teaching. LLJ is an international, peer-reviewed journal that is intended for an international readership, including foreign language teachers, language teacher educators, researchers and policy makers. Contributions, in English, tend to assume a certain range of target languages. These are usually, but not exclusively, the languages of mainland Europe and ‘Community Languages’; other languages, including English as a foreign language, may also be appropriate, where the discussion is sufficiently generalisable.

(The Language Learning Journal: aims and scope, no date).

LLJ is published by Taylor and Francis and is ranked 85 out of 819 journals on Scimago Journal Rankings (SJR) for Language and Linguistics journals in 2020 (SJR, no date). This indicates the high quality and reputation of the journal, which was another important consideration in the selection process. To date, this article has been cited a total of 31 times (Google Scholar, no date).

In line with the DCU requirements for a PhD by publication, Publication One is presented as the ‘final accepted manuscript’ for the LLJ submission. Pagination is in sequence with the rest of the thesis, but formatting and referencing within the publication follow the requirements of the journal. Although included in Table 2, Chapter One, the abstract for this publication is also included here for convenience and ease of reading.

3.2 Publication One

T(w)o and fro: using the L1 as a language teaching tool in the CLIL classroom

The Language Learning Journal, 45(4), pp. 485-498 (first published online 2014)

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Abstract

This article describes a small in-class study which sought to explore the effectiveness (or not) of using the emerging bilingual skills of the students as a teaching and learning tool in a Geography through English CLIL classroom in Northern Italy. In particular, the study sought to examine whether and to what extent the use of codeswitching / translanguaging between the native language and the language of instruction during content-related tasks might prove a useful technique for highlighting particular grammatical points in the CLIL vehicular language. Findings support the view that there is a place for the focused, planned and targeted use of the L1 during meaning-focused lessons in the language immersion classroom and that bilingual instructional techniques, such as the ‘twisted dictation’ used in the study, can be an effective means of both drawing students’ attention to particular linguistic forms and of developing an enriched bilingual vocabulary. The authors suggest that the use of the L1 as a language teaching and learning tool is not limited to the CLIL or immersion classroom, but could be adapted for use in other language learning contexts.

Keywords: translanguaging; CLIL; bilingual education; focus-on-form; SLA

Background

Re-thinking the monolingual principle

In recent years, the ‘monolingual principle’ (Howatt 1984: 135) in language teaching has been challenged (Cenoz and Gorter 2013; Cummins 2007, 2009a; Cook 2001). This is the belief that the target language should be used exclusively in the language classroom and all references to and use of the L1 should be prohibited during L2¹ lessons. Even in two-way bilingual educational contexts, the notion of what Cummins (2005: 588) has termed ‘the two solitudes’, whereby each language is dealt with separately and at different times, is well established. Creese and Blackledge refer to this compartmentalisation of languages in immersion contexts as ‘separate bilingualism’ (2010:105). Despite the lack of clear evidence to support the belief that monolingual instructional strategies are always preferable and that the target language should be used exclusively in the language classroom, the monolingual principle has been highly influential in language teaching pedagogy and has come to be considered as a basic principle (Auerbach 1993; Cook 2001; Cummins 2007, 2009a).

There are many reasons why this assumption has begun to be challenged. Firstly, the key role played by the L1 in the acquisition of the L2 among learners from a migrant background, particularly in relation to the academic language of school, has been identified. The cross-linguistic transfer of skills from one language to the other, particularly in relation to phonological awareness (Grosjean 2010; Shatz And Wilkinson 2010) print awareness (Lindholm-Leary and Howard 2008; Riches and Genesee 2006) and metacognitive and metalinguistic strategies (Bialystok and Peets 2010; Conboy 2010; Cummins 2001) has been established. This cross-language transfer of linguistic knowledge, skills and abilities from the L1 to the L2 has been referred to as an ‘underlying language proficiency’ (Cummins 2007: 23). Although the phonology, morphology, syntax and lexis in each language may differ, learners can draw on the cognitive base underpinning their knowledge of language use and practices, what Riches and Genesee (2006: 80) view as their ‘bilingual reservoir of literacy abilities and strategies’, and can apply this cross-linguistic proficiency to any language, even linguistically distant languages (Cummins 2009b, García 2009; Riches and Genesee 2006). This clearly has implications for second language learning in general.

‘(L)earning efficiencies can be achieved if teachers explicitly draw students’ attention to similarities and differences between their languages’ (Cummins 2007: 233).

Secondly, the question has been posed as to whether the focus in relation to L2 acquisition should be on how monolinguals acquire their L1 or on how bilinguals acquire their language(s) (Butzkamm 2003; Cook 2001). Separate languages are not compartmentalised in the minds of bilingual speakers, but can interact in highly complex ways (Conboy 2010 ; Creese and Blackledge 2010; Grosjean 2010; Hornberger and Link 2012). Neurolinguistic studies have shown how both languages remain active, even when only one is being used by a bilingual speaker and both can be easily accessed (García 2009; Hoshino and Thierry 2011; Lewis, Jones and Baker 2012). Codeswitching¹, long considered to represent language deficit and to be a messy, lazy type of language use is now understood to be not only a normal, everyday discourse practice, but also a highly sophisticated use of language by fluent bilingual speakers, framed by a deep awareness and mastery of both languages in use (García 2009; Grosjean 2010; Hughes et al. 2006; Lin and Li 2012). It is common from a very early stage and used in increasingly sophisticated ways as bilinguals become more proficient in both languages. Shifting between languages is what bilinguals do – it is an integral part of their bi/multilingual discourse practices (Deuchar, Muysken and Wang 2007; Lewis, Jones and Baker 2012; Reyes & Ervin-Tripp 2010).

Finally, despite the ban on the use of the L1 in classroom contexts, it has been long acknowledged that the reality is that many highly skilled and effective language teachers (and their students) do in fact often use the L1 for varying and various reasons, even when discouraged to do so by educationalists, policy makers, and administrators (Baker 2011; Duff and Polio 1990; Lin and Li 2012). They do this often with feelings of guilt, unprofessionalism and subterfuge (Butzkamm 2003; Canagarajah 2011; Copland and Neokleous 2011). Cook (2001: 410) argues that it is important to give teachers ‘absolution for using the L1’, encouraging methods which make positive use of the L1 in the language classroom, rather than seeing it as a regrettable fact of life which must be endured.

The L1 in the language classroom?

For reasons such as the above, many researchers have begun to question the notion of the monolingual principle and have begun to investigate ways in which the L1 could be used as a teaching and learning tool in the language classroom (Cook 2001; de la Colina and del Pilar García Mayo 2009; Lewis, Jones and Baker 2012). Baker (2011: 291) contends that the strict application of the monolingual principle in language learning contexts belongs to the 20th century, ‘while the 21st century will see the deliberate and systematic use of both languages in the classroom’. García (2009: 53) advocates the development of language skills which promote ‘dynamic bilingualism’ to reflect and prepare students for the multiple language practices of the globalised world of the 21st century, involving skills such as interpreting, translating and bilingual information design. This is not to say that scholars have begun to advocate the extensive use of the L1 and a return to grammar translation pedagogic practices in class. The predominant and extensive use of the L2 in class to maximise meaningful input and communicative interaction and practice in the target language remains a central tenet of effective modern language teaching (Crichton 2009; Cummins 2007; Ellis 2005; Turnbull 2001). However, many language educationalists have begun to see the absolute ban on any use of the L1 in the language class as a squandering of resources and a missed opportunity to use all the intellectual, cognitive and linguistic resources available to the teacher and student (Butzkamm 2003; Canagarajah 2011; Hornberger and Link 2012). New approaches to the use of the L1 in the language classroom involve using the L1, not in a random way, but in a targeted, focused and systematic way for teaching and learning purposes (Butzkamm 2003; Coyle, Hood and Marsh 2010; Cummins 2007; García 2009).

Translanguaging

This strategic and judicious use of the L1 during lessons in language learning contexts is often referred to as translanguaging, defined by Baker (2011: 288) as ‘the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, understandings and knowledge through the use of two languages’. The term, originally coined in the Welsh bilingual education context as a pedagogic technique involving the deliberate alternation between languages for input and output purposes (Lewis, Jones and Baker 2012), has been expanded to include the ‘*multiple discourse practices* in which bilinguals engage in

order to *make sense of their bilingual worlds*' (García 2009: 45 [italics in original]). It includes codeswitching and translation but is not limited to these (García and Sylvan 2011). García (2009: 298) advocates an approach in bilingual settings which involves 'flexible multiplicity' practices which include: responsible codeswitching both ways; preview/view/review; translanguaging; co-languaging; and cross-linguistic contrastive analysis. Others have also identified ways in which this shifting between languages, so typical of the discourses of bilinguals, can be done in both the language and the language immersion classroom (Butzkamm 2003; Cook 2001; Cummins 2007; Lucas & Katz 1994).

'Noticing' and Focus-on-Form in immersion contexts

Translanguaging and other bilingual instructional techniques are thought to have the potential to be a very effective way to facilitate conscious 'noticing' (Schmidt 2001: 17) of language on the part of the learner (Cummins 2007, 2009b; García 2009; Reyes and Ervin-Tripp 2010). The need for a clear and explicit focus on grammatical forms within a meaning-oriented approach in order to promote accurate use of the L2 has been identified as a key area for language immersion education (Doughty 2003; Lyster and Mori 2008; Met 2008; Snow, Met and Genesee 1989), including CLIL (Content-Language Integrated Learning), (Coyle, Hood and Marsh 2010; de Graaff et al. 2007; Mearns 2012). It has been often acknowledged that while comprehension skills and fluency on the part of the learners are often highly developed in many language immersion contexts because of the exposure to high levels of meaningful content and enhanced opportunities for communicative interaction, achieving high levels of grammatical accuracy in the target language is not always as successfully realised (Fortune, Tedick and Walker 2008; Nassaji and Fotos 2011; Robinson 2003; Swain 1998).

The approach known as FonF (Focus on Form) and first proposed by Long (1991) may be particularly useful in this regard. This approach involves providing students with overt opportunities 'to notice' formal aspects of language in meaningful, communicative contexts where the main attention of the students has been primarily on meaning (Doughty 2001, 2003; Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen 2002; Robinson 2003;

Schmidt 2001). The importance of consciousness-raising tasks which draw students' attention to particular linguistic features of the L2 and facilitate a conscious 'noticing' of language on the part of the learner has been emphasised in this regard (Doughty 2003; Robinson 2003; Schmidt 2001; Swain 1998). Nassaji and Fotos (2011) suggest that these consciousness-raising tasks can focus either explicitly or implicitly on a linguistic point and can be preceded or followed by formal instruction:

[I]t is now recognised that it is essential to make the target language structure obvious to the learner, whether through formal instruction or through manipulation of communicative input, in ways that call attention to target forms and allow learners to process them, or a combination of these methods (Nassaji and Fotos 2011: 88).

Lyster and Mori (2008: 134) advocate a 'counterbalanced' approach in the immersion classroom, whereby the focus of an activity shifts to either form or meaning and is made explicit to the students. According to their counterbalance hypothesis, this shift in attentional focus requires increased effort on the part of the learners and is a particularly effective means of dealing with persistent interlanguage errors.

Deep learning: the bilingual lexicon

The dual processing and reprocessing of content knowledge in two languages can deepen and enhance learning (Coyle, Hood and Marsh 2010; Cummins 2009a; Dalton-Puffer 2011). Translanguaging has been identified as a means of providing opportunities for deep learning of concepts in immersion education contexts (Baker 2011; Lewis, Jones and Baker 2012; Maillat and Serra 2009). Students have to fully understand and have fully digested content before they can discuss it in one language and write about it in another for example. Translanguaging techniques may also be a useful means of promoting the development of an enriched bilingual vocabulary in language immersion contexts (Coyle, Hood and Marsh 2010; Lewis, Jones and Baker 2012). Bilinguals operate within a single conceptual system with two lexicons. Each lexicon may have different words and meanings in it depending on individual experiences (Conboy 2010). According to Bedore, Peña and Boerger (2010) and Cummins (2009 b), bilingual students need exposure to words in both languages in order to develop strategies that allow them to acquire multiple words for the same

concepts and to be able to transfer this knowledge across languages., The lexicon of each system is informed and enriched by knowledge of the other, leading to greater depth and breadth of word knowledge and concept mapping resources (Bedore, Peña and Boerger 2010; Conboy 2010, Coyle, Hood and Marsh 2010) .

CLIL (Content-Language-Integrated Learning)

CLIL has been defined as ‘language sensitive content teaching’ (Wolff 2012: 108) and as ‘an educational approach where curricular content is taught through the medium of a foreign language, typically to students participating in some form of mainstream education at the primary, secondary or tertiary level’ (Dalton-Puffer 2011: 183). The ‘CLIL vehicular language’ (Coyle, Hood and Marsh 2010: 1) is both the medium and the object of learning. According to Coyle (2009), CLIL goes beyond task-based and topic-based approaches to language teaching in that it does not involve the re-teaching of already learned concepts in a different language and because of the high level of authenticity of purpose achieved through CLIL practices. It has been described as ‘a foreign language enrichment measure packaged into content teaching’ (Dalton-Puffer 2011: 184). Although there is no one CLIL model, CLIL techniques and approaches have become very influential in relation to language learning and teaching, particularly in the European context (Coyle 2009; Dalton-Puffer 2011; Ruiz de Zarobe 2013). Similarly to other immersion contexts, the need to focus on form and the possibility of using bilingual instructional strategies in the classroom have been identified as relevant in CLIL contexts also (Coyle, Hood and Marsh 2010; Deller and Price 2007; Ricci Garotti 2007).

The study

Many scholars have called for further research on the flexible use of languages and bilingual practices in the immersion classroom (Canagarajah 2011; Creese and Blackledge 2010; García 2009; Lewis, Jones and Baker 2012) and for form-focussed experimental research in CLIL lessons (Dalton-Puffer 2011). Lin and Li (2012) point out that most research on the use of the L1 in relation to L2 learning has been done by

sociolinguists or discourse analysts and they advocate the need for teachers themselves to become involved in this research.

The project described below seeks to make a small contribution to addressing this gap in our knowledge. It involved a small-scale in-class experiment which sought to explore the reactions of students to codeswitching during classroom tasks and the effectiveness (or not) of using the emerging bilingual skills of the students as a language teaching and learning tool in the CLIL classroom. In particular, it sought to examine whether and to what extent the use of codeswitching/translanguaging between the native language and the language of instruction during content-related tasks might prove a useful technique for drawing students' attention to particular grammatical points in the CLIL vehicular language.

The study took place in May 2012 in a large secondary school (Liceo Linguistico) in a small town in Northern Italy (student population: 1070). This school has a strong CLIL tradition and a variety of CLIL options are available to the students, including Geography and Maths through English, History through Spanish or French, and Art History through German. The students involved in the study had chosen to follow a 3-year bilingual stream offered as an option in the school to students with a level of English equivalent to A2 or higher. The bilingual stream includes a Geography through English programme from Year 1 with further CLIL subject options in Year 2 and 3. The study involved two parallel Geography through English classes towards the end of Year 1 of the programme. The students were of mixed ability, mixed gender and were aged 14 to 15 years. Ethical approval was granted from the Dublin City University Research Ethics Committee and informed consent gained from the principal, parents, and students involved in the study. For the purposes of the study, one of the groups was used as a treatment and the other as a control group. The treatment group was labelled 'Group G' and consisted of 30 students and the control group was labelled 'Group F' and had 29 students. Comparisons were then made between the responses of the two cohorts of students following an in-class intervention described below. Individual students in each group were assigned a number to ensure their anonymity (e.g. G2, G22; F5; F20 etc.).

Procedure

The study consisted of two parts: a ‘twisted dictation’ task followed by feedback from students. Both groups were taught a unit of work ‘Climates of the World’ by the same teacher and using the same materials. This unit of work focused on the climate of two geographical areas: the hot desert and tropical rainforest regions of the world. The language of instruction was English, which was not the first language for any of the students. The study itself involved a review of this unit of work through a chart completion dictation exercise. After studying this unit of work for several weeks, the students were given a blank chart to complete. This chart contained two columns, one with the heading ‘Tropical Rainforests’ and the other with the heading ‘Hot Deserts’. The teacher dictated a range of sentences to the students.

The sentences all contained adverbs of frequency and/or place because the position of these had been identified by both the Geography [through English] and English language teachers in the school as a problematic language area for many Italian students of English. The position of adverbials of frequency and place similar in meaning to, for example, “sometimes” / “usually” and “in this region” / “in these areas” would typically be quite different in Italian sentences. The vocabulary in the sentences was taken from the course material used by the students during the study of this unit of work. The following are examples of the sentences:

It rarely rains.

It is always hot and humid.

Sunlight rarely reaches the ground because of the dense vegetation.

Plants are usually low-growing in order to avoid water loss by strong winds.

There are sometimes sudden downpours although it is usually dry.

Animals in this region sometimes store water in their body for several days, allowing them to travel long distances.

There are usually different layers of vegetation in this region.

There are always sub-tropical high pressure systems in these areas.

Before and during the dictation, the teacher made no attempt to review or draw students' attention to English word order or to the position of adverbial phrases in English sentences. The teacher dictated the sentences in English, which was the language of instruction for the unit of work. The sentences were dictated at random and were not in any particular order. The sentences were dictated at normal speaking speed and were repeated twice. The students first decided which geographical location each sentence related to and then wrote the sentences in the correct column. The students in Group F (the control group) completed the chart in English. The students in Group G (the treatment group) translated the sentences and completed the chart in Italian (the L1 for all of the students in the group). We refer to this exercise as a 'twisted dictation'.

Following the dictation exercise, both groups of students were given the completed chart in English by way of feedback. Feedback related to topic content and not to the linguistic features of the sentences.

The following day, both groups of students were asked to complete a feedback sheet in class based on their reactions to the previous day's dictation task. The feedback sheet consisted of a short questionnaire with closed and open-ended questions followed by a free writing exercise in response to a number of given headings. The students were free to complete the feedback sheet in either Italian or in English. The questionnaire comprised a number of questions which focused on whether the students had liked / disliked the task; whether they had found it easy / difficult to do; and on whether they found it useful / not useful for [1] Geography content learning and [2] their English language development. The students were also asked to identify what they liked about the task and what they didn't like about the task. Students completed this part of the feedback sheet first.

For the second part of the feedback, the students were given a few minutes to think about a number of headings which were written on the board and briefly explained to the students. Students were then given an opportunity to write freely in response to these headings. Both groups were given the following headings:

- useful/difficult/fun etc.? What did you think about the task?
- words/ideas you didn't understand in the dictation? What did you do?
- Did you notice anything about the English language (e.g. English grammar; pronunciation; words)?

[As before, no particular language point was mentioned by the teacher when setting up this part of the exercise]

Group G (the treatment group who had translated the sentences into Italian) were given an additional heading:

- How did you feel about translating the sentences in the dictation – was this useful / difficult etc.

Students' writing in response to these headings varied in length (average length was 60 to 80 words). Students wrote in English, Italian or a combination of both languages. It is worth repeating that the students were 14 to 15 year-old secondary school students and their comments should be seen in this context. Researchers then conducted a close reading of the feedback in order to group similar responses and to identify recurrent themes.

Results

Student reactions to the translation task

Fifteen of the thirty students in Group G (the Translation Group) wrote that they enjoyed the on-the-spot translation element of the task. One student (G24) wrote: "It was my first job as an interpreter". Half the students in this group mentioned that they found translating the sentences in this way difficult and/or challenging to do. Of these 15 students, 12 added a further comment that although difficult, the task was worthwhile.

What students noticed about language: Group G (translation group)

Of the 30 students in Group G, 18 students commented on noticing aspects to the language. Nine students said they noticed the pronunciation of the words (e.g. the difference between the words ‘roof’ and ‘root’ and the words ‘really’ and ‘rarely’). Nine different students said they had noticed aspects to the word order and organisation of words in English as compared to Italian.

As mentioned earlier, the position of adverbials in English and Italian sentences can be very different. For example, in sentences such as the following, the position of adverbials similar in meaning to the ones in bold would typically be quite different in Italian:

- Ground frost can **sometimes** occur **at night**.
- Animals **in this region usually** live in the main canopy where there is most light.
- There are **usually** different layers of vegetation **in this region**
- There are **always** sub-tropical high pressure systems **in these areas**.

. A review of the translated sentences which the students in this group had written as part of the ‘twisted dictation’ task demonstrated that, in general, the students had not changed the position of these adverbials when they had translated the sentences. This was probably due to the fact that the students had been asked to translate on the spot and were not given time to re-write or perfect their sentences. The sentences they wrote, therefore, contained Italian adverbials (e.g. ‘*sempre*’ and ‘*a volte*’) which, while not incorrect, did not follow normal Italian syntax.

The comments of the students in Group G reflect this:

G1: The exercise helped me to reflect on the fact that translating some sentences into Italian I wasn’t writing some words in the right place because in English sentence maybe they were at the beginning of the sentence while in Italian they wouldn’t be there

G5: I found [...] quite confusing because the structure of English is different from one in Italian and we had to rearrange it on the spot

G18: I was doubtful as to how to lay out certain sentences in Italian because they had different word order in English [translated from Italian]

G21: ... isn't easy to translate from english into italian [sic], because the grammar between these two languages isn't the same (for example where I have put "sometimes", "always" and other ...)

What students noticed about language: Group F (non-translation group)

The comments of the 29 students in Group F were quite different in focus. Eleven students commented on noticing the pronunciation of the words during the dictation (e.g. 'camel' 'desert' 'nocturnal'). One student wrote that the dictation exercise had helped with learning the spelling of 'canopy' which she had noticed when she checked her answer afterwards. Three students commented that the exercise helped them with English grammar/structure. However, unlike many of the comments from Group G, the comments in relation to this tended to be quite vague: one student mentioned that it had helped with word order without giving examples and the other two students did not specify how the exercise had helped with English grammar beyond saying that it had. Seven students in this group pointed out that they did not think about language/grammar when doing the task. The following comments illustrate this:

F 9: I had thinked in English without ask myself "What is it's grammar?" "What does it mean?" I had thinked in English, not in Italian so I didn't thinked to the question like that [sic]

F 20: I wrote and that's all. I didn't think about how to say it. It would have just distracted me and I would have written things that didn't make sense [translated from Italian]

F 14: the teacher was saying about the tropical forest but I thinked nothing about the grammatical structure [sic]

Words they didn't know in the L1

Many students from both groups wrote that there were words they had not understood in the dictation. Students in Group G (the Translation Group) were particularly conscious of words/concepts which they had learned in English but could not translate to their L1. 23 of the 30 students in this group commented that there were words that they knew in English (the L2) but were not able to translate into Italian (the L1). The most frequent words which students mentioned in relation to this were the Geography specific English words *canopy*; *ground frost*; *sudden downpours*. The following comments give an insight into how the students experienced this:

G16: there are English words that I don't know how to translate except in a roundabout way. For example, 'canopy' means the upper part of the forest but how do you say it in Italian? [translated from Italian]

G 3: some words were clear to me in English but when I had to translate them weren't so clear in Italian so I had to leave a blank space or put in a word with a similar meaning

G12: I don't know a lot of words in Italian that I know in English because I learned them in English so I don't know the word in Italian – but I know the meaning of this word

G20: there are some words that I know in English but in reality can't translate into Italian like canopy, groundfrost, downpours. Maybe because there isn't a corresponding word. This confused me a bit but it made me want to check the meaning in a dictionary. That's why I think it was useful [translated from Italian].

The above comment also describes a re-processing of meaning as the student translated the words. Examples of what other students wrote in relation to this are:

G22: In my opinion, translating is useful because it helps you to know what you really understand.

G16: I like the idea of this type of test because it's also a way to test yourself

G18: The exercise was useful because it allowed us to determine our level of Geography [translated from Italian]

G7: I think it is usefull [sic] to translate the words from english to Italian [sic] because it help me to remember the meanings of words.

Students in the non-translation group did not refer to not knowing the word in Italian for concepts they had learned in the L1.

Summary of results

The results of the study can be summarised as follows. Firstly, the students in Group G, the translation group, tended to find the task more challenging and more difficult than students in Group F because of the translation element, although a significant number of these students went on to say that they had also found the task worthwhile and motivating. Secondly, many students in Group G seemed to have a very positive awareness of themselves as bilinguals while they were doing this task. Thirdly, most students in Group G seemed to be very conscious of Geography terminology that they were familiar with in English (the L2) but not in Italian (the L1). Students in Group F did not refer to words they understood in English but not in Italian. Fourthly, both groups seemed to be very conscious of the pronunciation of words in English while completing the dictation. Finally, students in Group G seem to have been more conscious of language structure as they translated. In particular, they commented on the differences between English and Italian syntax and word order; students in Group F, on the other hand, tended not to think consciously about the grammar/structure of English during the task and focused on the content of the sentences only.

Discussion of results

Cummins states emphatically that re-thinking the 2 solitudes approach is ‘not intended to encourage regression to predominant use of translation nor to dilute the centrality of promoting L2 communicative interaction in both oral and written modes in L2 classrooms’ (Cummins 2007:237). He advocates a *judicious* use of L1 as a cognitive tool in a targeted and systematic way *within* a meaning-focused, task-based approach with extensive exposure to and meaningful practice in the target language. The conclusions reached and discussed below are intended to be seen very much within this approach.

Three key conclusions were drawn from the results of this experiment. The discussion of these is framed within the limitations of this small-scale study involving one school and two CLIL Geography lessons and should be interpreted in that context.

Firstly, the study found that the use of codeswitching or translanguaging, when done in a targeted way can be a very useful language teaching and learning tool, particularly as a technique to develop a way of ‘noticing’ and raising awareness of certain features of the language of instruction. In the case of the study described above, the sentences used in the ‘twisted dictation’ were designed to highlight the position of adverbials of frequency and place in English sentences. While translating, many students became acutely aware of the differences between Italian and English in relation to this. They began to consciously compare the word order of the two languages. It is significant that so many of the adolescent students in the translation group were able to articulate this raised awareness, whereas no student in the non-translation group described this. As discussed earlier, this noticing is a very important first step in a Focus on Form (FonF) approach, and could be followed by a more explicit focus on a particular linguistic form. This study did not involve a follow-on exercise which might have involved an explicit focus on the position of adverbials. Further research which would include such a follow- on language focus could potentially yield further insights into the effectiveness of this type of translanguaging task. Furthermore, other linguistic features of the target language could also be highlighted through codeswitching exercises such as the one described above.

Secondly, in general students appear to have very positive feelings about using their bilingual skills in the classroom. They seem to see this on-the-spot translation as reflecting a real-life skill of interpreting. They found this difficult and challenging to do, but overall they also found it useful and motivating. This may relate to the novelty factor involved in doing something in class which they perceived as new or different, but it is worth considering codeswitching during tasks as a way of furthering a positive self-image of language students as bilingual beings and promoting bilingualism as a goal in itself. This could be particularly useful for contexts where there are students from migrant backgrounds in the classroom and where subtractive bilingualism can occur (Banks 2009; Cummins 2009b; Freeman 2004; Nieto 2004).

The third finding relates to the technical-type words from the Geography syllabus which students knew in English (the language of instruction) but appeared not to know in their first language. These were words which relate to Geographic concepts such as *a canopy of trees* or *ground frost* which students had learnt in their CLIL class. They were not always familiar with words to describe these concepts in their L1. Such translanguaging tasks as the one described above could be used as a way of developing an enriched dual language lexicon for concepts learned in one language, promoting a deeper processing of meaning through the re-processing of content from one language to another.

Conclusion

These findings support the view outlined by many researchers (Baker 2011; Creese and Blackledge 2010; Cummins 2007; García 2009) that there is a place for the focused, planned and targeted use of the L1 through bilingual instructional techniques such as translanguaging and codeswitching in the immersion classroom, particularly as a means of both drawing students' attention to particular linguistic forms and of developing an enriched bilingual vocabulary.

Given our increasingly multilingual classrooms, the link between various models of language immersion (Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter 2013; Fortune and Tedick 2008; Gallagher and Leahy 2014; Hornberger and Skilton-Sylvester 2003) and other language learning contexts (Coyle, Hood and Marsh 2010; Dalton-Puffer 2011; García and Sylvan 2011) has been highlighted more and more frequently. Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010: 159) state: 'It is now becoming clear that there is commonality of teaching approaches, strategies and tasks which emphasise scaffolded learning and in particular language as a *learning tool* across first, second, new and other language contexts' [italics in original]. The use of the L1 as a language teaching tool may be one such approach. The 'twisted dictation' technique described in this study is by no means limited to the CLIL or even the immersion classroom, but could be adapted for use in other language learning contexts.

¹The expression L2 is used throughout to denote any language that is not the first language of learners. It is acknowledged that for some learners this might be a third, fourth, etc. language.

²The term ‘codeswitching’ is used here as an umbrella term to describe switching between languages in the same stretch of discourse. ‘Code-switching is the alternate use of two languages, that is, the speaker makes a complete shift to another language for a word, phrase, or sentence and then reverts back to the base language’ (Grosjean 2010: 51/52); García and Sylvan (2011: 389) define codeswitching as ‘shift between two languages in context’.

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Chapter Four: Publication Two

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents Publication Two: Gallagher F. (2020) ‘Considered in context: EFL teachers’ views on the classroom as a bilingual space and codeswitching in shared-L1 and in multilingual contexts’. *System*, 91 (online).

System was selected as the journal for Publication Two. This journal is among the six highest ranking journals which Borg (2011a) identifies as of particular relevance to research on language teacher education, which, as he explains, often emanates from the field of TESOL. (The journals in alphabetical order are: *Applied Linguistics*, *Foreign Language Annals*, *Language Teaching Research*, *The Modern Language Journal*, *System* and *TESOL Quarterly*.) As Borg himself frequently publishes on issues pertaining to Language Teaching Cognition (LTC) in *System*, this seemed an obvious choice for Publication Two as the focus of this research was on the beliefs, attitudes and practices of EFL teachers in relation to the use of the L1 in the classroom. Similarly to Publication One, the findings were felt to be of interest to educators of all foreign languages, not only EFL, which aligned with the readership, aims and scope of this journal. *System*:

is devoted to the applications of educational technology and applied linguistics to problems of foreign language teaching and learning. Attention is paid to the learning and teaching of all languages (e.g. English) as second or foreign languages in all countries. *System* requires articles to have a sound theoretical base and a visible practical application for a broad readership. Review articles are considered for publication if they deal with critical issues in language learning and teaching with significant implications for practice and research.

(*System*: aims and scope, no date, boldface text in original)

System is published by Elsevier. It is ranked 30 out of 819 journals on Scimago Journal Rankings (SJR) for Language and Linguistics journals in 2020 (SJR, no date), making it one of the leading publications in the field.

Publication Two is presented as the ‘final accepted manuscript’ for the System submission. Pagination is in sequence with the rest of the thesis, but formatting and referencing within the publication follow the requirements of the journal. Although included in Table 2, Chapter One, the abstract for this publication is also included here for convenience and ease of reading.

4.2 Publication Two

Considered in context: EFL teachers' views on the classroom as a bilingual space and codeswitching in shared-L1 and in multilingual contexts

System, 91 (2020, online)

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Abstract

This paper describes a qualitative research study which explores the views and practices of EFL teachers in relation to codeswitching and the use of the L1 in the classroom and the extent to which their particular teaching context plays a role in this. Interviews took place with twenty-four teachers who teach or have taught English in both (1) multilingual contexts in which the learners typically do not share a common L1 and (2) contexts in which the learners typically share an L1 other than English. Themes relating to the nature of the teaching and learning space in each context, the extent to which the teachers view the teaching environment as a bi/multilingual setting, and the role of the particular context in their overall approach and practices are examined. Findings point to the largely flexible, fluid and mixed views of EFL teachers in relation to the use of the L1 in the classroom and to the need for a more explicit focus on this area in teacher development and training. It is suggested that taking a bilingual stance may offer potential as a means for teachers to reflect on and critically examine their practices and beliefs in relation to this topic.

Keywords: codeswitching; language learning; EFL teachers; bilingual space; multilingual; L1 use; teaching context; TESOL

1. Introduction

The ability to navigate the increasingly complex linguistic spaces of the modern world is an important skill for the twenty-first century. In recent years, this has led to a significant paradigm shift away from the predominantly monolingual orientation in language teaching among researchers in the field of second language acquisition (Shin, 2018; Lee & Lo, 2017; May, 2014; García, 2009). The bilingual ability to use linguistic and non-linguistic modes of communication and knowledge to communicate effectively in multicultural and multilingual contexts has become an increasingly important goal of language teaching and learning (Freeman 2020; Cook 2016; Scott 2016). However, this multilingual turn is not always reflected in teacher education, resources and classroom practices in many mainstream EFL contexts (Anderson, 2018; Turnbull, 2018; Cook 2016; Leung, 2014).

This paper takes a bilingual lens to focus on the views of twenty-four EFL teachers working in language schools in various parts of the world. It explores the importance of the particular teaching context in relation to their beliefs, attitudes and approaches around the use of the L1 in the classroom and the extent to which they adapt their practices in this area depending on whether they teach in shared-L1 or multilingual contexts. Teachers' beliefs and cognitions have been identified as a key factor in classroom behaviours and approaches (Kumaravadivelu, 2012; Borg, 2011; McMillan & Turnbull, 2009) and critical reflection on these as an important element of any teacher development programme or training (Song, 2015; Ellis & Shintani; 2014). It is hoped that this study will make a contribution to our understanding of these beliefs in relation to the mono- and bilingual practices of language teachers in the EFL classroom and perhaps inform future professional development programmes and initiatives in this area.

2. Background

2.1 Codeswitching

Long considered a lazy, inferior form of communication, bilingual codeswitching is now understood as a very sophisticated use of language, demonstrating an extremely high level of sensitivity to and awareness of syntactical and lexical forms in both languages (Grosjean, 2010; Reyes & Ervin-Tripp, 2010; Turnbull & Dailey-O’Cain, 2009). Codeswitching is “the alternate use of two languages, that is, the speaker makes a complete shift to another language for a word, phrase, or sentence and then reverts back to the base language” (Grosjean, 2010, pp. 51-52); it is used here as an umbrella term to describe switching between languages in the same stretch of discourse.

Codeswitching across languages when communicating with others who share their languages is normal bilingual practice (Hornberger & Link, 2012; Lin & Li, 2012; García, 2009; Levine, 2009). Many studies have demonstrated that contrary to what was once believed, bilinguals do not compartmentalise languages separately in the brain (Kharkhurin & Li, 2015; Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012; Hoshino & Thierry, 2011). They do not switch their various languages on and off at any one time; instead, both languages are active in the bilingual brain regardless of which language is being used at a particular time (Shin, 2018; García, 2009; Schmitt, 2008). Many scholars stress the fluid and intertwined nature of bilingual language use and see the languages of bi/multilinguals as one entity, a linguistic resource that can be drawn on and employed at will for a range of purposes (García, Johnson & Selzer, 2017; Hornberger & Link, 2012; Lin & Li, 2012). Thus, bilinguals have access to an additional linguistic resource which is not available to monolinguals, who can only employ monolingual linguistic switches, such as switches in register, style or tone, in their communication

(Blackledge, Creese & Takhi, 2014; Block, 2014; García & Li, 2014). The ability to switch between and across languages in order to navigate meaning in the increasingly complex linguistic spaces of the modern world is a highly skilled and valuable competence (Shin, 2018; Kramsch, 2014; Makoni & Pennycook, 2012). Pejorative terms such as ‘Spanglish’ ‘Tex-Mex’ or ‘Franglais’ have been replaced by terms such as ‘translingual practices’ (Canagarajah, 2014), ‘flexible bilingualism’ (Creese & Blackledge, 2010) and ‘translanguaging’ (García, 2009) to describe some of the many sophisticated discursive practices and competences of fluent bi/multilinguals. These terms differ somewhat in terms of context and linguistic focus but all have in common the emphasis on fluidity between languages and the multiple modes and discourses used by bilinguals to make meaning. García describes the ‘*multiple discourse practices* in which bilinguals engage’ (García 2009: 45 [italics in original]). Her description of translanguaging refers to the entire language repertoire of bilinguals, which is seen as an integrated communication system in the brain, and includes practices such as codeswitching and translation but is not limited to these (García & Sylvan 2011).

2.2 The monolingual bias in language teaching

However, despite this change in our understanding of how bilinguals use and store their languages, second language teaching has remained largely monolingual in orientation (Dailey-O’Cain and Liebscher, 2015; García and Li, 2014; May 2014; Canagarajah and Liyanage, 2012; McMillan & Turnbull, 2009). Even in two-way bilingual programmes, the two languages are usually taught and used at separate times and in separate lessons (Fuller, 2018; Lee & Lo, 2017; Baker, 2011). Cummins (2007, p.223) describes this approach as “the two solitudes”; Creese and Blackledge ((2010, p.105) refer to this compartmentalisation of languages in immersion contexts as

“separate bilingualism”. In the field of TESOL, the “monolingual principle” (Howatt, 1984, p.135), the belief that the target language should be used exclusively in the language classroom and all references to and use of the L1 should be proscribed during L2¹ lessons, became almost axiomatic over the course of the twentieth century, to the extent that until very recently the use of the L1 was largely ignored in most ELT learning materials and teaching manuals, except in terms of how to avoid it (Ellis & Shintani, 2014; Leung, 2014; Cummins, 2009; Cook, 2001).

The monolingual principle has been challenged in recent years (Cook, 2016; May, 2014; Cenoz & Gorter, 2013; Cummins, 2007). It has become clear that the strongly-held belief that references to the learners’ L1 were a hindrance to effective language learning and to be avoided at all costs has little foundation in research (Shin, 2018; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; McMillan & Turnbull, 2009; Cummins, 2007; Cook, 2001) and does not tally with the realities of how bilinguals learn (Conboy, 2010; Turnbull & Dailey-O’Cain, 2009; Butzkamm, 2003). On the contrary, there has been compelling evidence to support the view that cross-linguistic transfer of underlying linguistic knowledge and skills from the L1 plays a key role in the development of the L2 among learners, particularly in relation to the academic language used in school (Saville-Troike & Barto, 2017; Gearon, Miller & Kostogriz, 2009; Cummins, 2007), even in cases where languages do not share many lexical or structural similarities (Shatz & Wilkinson, 2010; García, 2009; Riches & Genesee, 2006). In addition, there has been a growing awareness that instructional assumptions that rely on the strict separation of languages are based on how monolinguals acquire their L1 and are not necessarily the most appropriate model for how people acquire second language(s), particularly in situations where they acquire their additional language(s) later in life (Ortega, 2018; Cook, 2016; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011; Conboy, 2010).

This paradigm shift has profound implications for the language classroom. Increasingly, researchers in the field of second-language acquisition (SLA) argue for the systematic use of the L1 to support and enhance L2 learning and to highlight linguistic features of the target language (Baker, 2011; Turnbull & Dailey-O’Cain, 2009; Butzkamm, 2003) as well as for opportunities to practise bilingual skills such as translation and interpreting (Anderson, 2018; Pintado Gutierrez, 2018; Cenoz & Gorter, 2013; Hornberger & Link, 2012). Cook (2001, p.410) argues that it is important to give teachers “absolution for using the L1”, encouraging methods which make positive use of the L1 in the language classroom. The judicious and systematic use of the L1 as part of a teaching approach which maximises exposure to the target language and opportunities for practice is now recognised as a valid teaching tool and a potential resource in the classroom (Cook, 2016; Swain & Lapkin, 2013; Levine, 2009). Others advocate for the embracing of the multilingual turn in language teaching in order to encourage bi- and multilingual practices as the norm in the classroom and promote the development of multilingual competences and communities of practice (Anderson, 2018; Block, 2014; Li, 2014; Canagarajah & Liyanage, 2012). Such a multilingual space which celebrates and gives voice to all available languages in the classroom can be achieved even where the teacher herself does not know the language(s) of the learners (Wang, 2019; García et al. 2017). For example, García et al. (ibid) suggest grouping students who share the same L1 together on occasion and allowing them to use their L1 or any language combination to complete a task, after which the students work together to prepare an oral summary of what has been said in English for the teacher.

Until now, the multilingual turn in the field of applied linguistics does not appear to have led to significant changes in mainstream policy making, materials design

and teaching practices in TESOL (Vallejo & Dooly, 2019; Cook, 2016; Leung, 2014; Ortega, 2014; Cooke and Simpson, 2012). This is particularly the case in foreign language teaching contexts (Turnbull, 2018; Kramsch, 2014; Cenoz & Gorter, 2013). May (2014, p.20) describes the ongoing monolingual bias in mainstream SLA and TESOL as a “research impasse” and has called for interdisciplinary approaches which would explore “the potential synergies among SLA, TESOL and research in bilingualism and bilingual education” (ibid.) more fully.

2.3 Teachers’ views and practices on using the L1 in the language classroom

Research suggests that considerable variation exists among English language teachers regarding their views on the role of the L1 in the language classroom (Wach & Monroy, 2019; Ellis & Shintani, 2014; Turnbull & Dailey-O’Cain, 2009; Duff and Polio, 1990). Macaro (2009) describes three distinct approaches to the use of the L1 in the language classroom which he labels ‘virtual’, ‘maximal’ and ‘optimal’ positions (p.36). He explains that teachers who hold *the virtual position* believe that the L1 has no value in the classroom and should be avoided at all costs. Target language exclusivity which aims to provide a language-immersion experience for learners is the goal. Teachers who hold *the maximal position* believe that although exclusive use of the target language is undoubtedly best practice, the use of the L1 cannot be excluded completely and is sometimes inevitable because of the nature of the L2 language classroom. According to Macaro (2014), *the optimal position* is a minority-held view which sees recognisable value in using the L1 to enhance learning at certain times. While alive to the dangers of an unprincipled, random approach, teachers who hold this position believe that a degree of codeswitching used in broadly communicative classrooms can enhance second language acquisition.

Macaro (2014) favours the optimal position and argues for a theoretical framework which would allow teachers to make informed choices regarding if, when and how the L1 might be used to facilitate and enhance learning. García et al. (2017) go further and advocate for teachers to adopt a bilingual ‘stance’ in their teaching whereby language learners are viewed as emergent or developing bilinguals.

2.4 Teachers’ belief systems and values in language teaching

Research also suggests that teachers’ beliefs and values have an enormous effect on their classroom practices and approaches (Song, 2015; Kumaravadivelu, 2012; Borg, 2011; McMillan & Turnbull, 2009). These beliefs are often unconsciously held and are shaped by individual factors such as the personal experiences and prior learning encounters of teachers and are hugely influenced by contextual factors. Richards (1996) describes a range of conscious and unconscious maxims or belief systems which guide teachers’ behaviours and decision-making in the classroom; these vary according to context and develop with experience. There are often mismatches and disparities between the stated beliefs of teachers and their actual teaching practices (Oranje and Smith, 2018; Horii, 2015; Song, 2015; Thornbury, 2011). Because of this, teachers often display apparently contradictory classroom behaviours which may be the result of tensions between their complex and sometimes competing sets of beliefs (Oranje & Smith, 2018; Birello, 2012). A particular teaching practice may be at odds with one set of beliefs but consistent with another (Phipps & Borg, 2009). Interestingly, many scholars have identified such a disconnect between language teachers’ beliefs and practices in relation to the use of the L1 (Cook, 2016; Ellis & Shintani, 2014; Kirkpatrick, 2014; Creese & Blackledge, 2010).

2.5 The importance of context

Related to this is the role of context as an important factor in pedagogic decision-making for language teachers (Thornbury, 2011; Creese & Leung, 2010; Cooke & Simpson, 2008). Some teaching and learning contexts are multilingual where students do not share a common L1; other lessons take place in contexts where most students share an L1. Some teachers are themselves effective users of the students' L1; other teachers are monolingual. The use of and role of the L1 in these different situations may be an important consideration in teachers' options and choices (Macaro, 2014; Walker, 2014; Edstrom, 2009). Many researchers encourage teachers to take an eclectic approach and to select tasks and make pedagogic decisions appropriate for their local situation (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011; Larsen-Freeman, 2011). Kumaravadivelu (2012, p.10) advocates "principled pragmatism", a post-method perspective underpinned by a set of basic principles, whereby teachers adjust their teaching practice to the local context. However, Cook (2016, p.292) and others have identified a "mainstream EFL teaching style" which underpins the most popular published ELT materials and the approach taken on teacher training programmes such as the CELTA (Kramsch, 2014; Leung, 2014; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). It is unclear to what extent this training prepares EFL teachers for the realities of teaching in different contexts (King, 2016).

Critical reflection on and examination of their own practices and beliefs has been identified as an important element of professional development for teachers (Song, 2015; Borg, 2011). McMillan and Turnbull (2009) suggest that teachers articulate and discuss their professional practices with others as a strategy for evaluating the use of the L1 in the language classroom. Ellis and Shintani (2014, p. 247) concur and suggest that

“[p]erhaps the best way forward for now is to encourage teachers to reflect on their own practices [...] and develop a critical perspective on their own use of the L1”.

3. The Study

The study is based on the thematic analysis of twenty-four semi-structured interviews with EFL teachers in Dublin, Ireland. The twenty-four participants were EFL teachers who teach / have taught in (1) multilingual contexts in Ireland in which the learners do not share a common L1 **and** (2) contexts in non-English speaking countries, where the learners typically share a common language other than English. It is very common for teachers to have experience of teaching in both multilingual and shared-L1 contexts and this was the criterion for participation in the study. All of the teachers had completed the CELTA or equivalent. Eleven had completed the DELTA or were currently studying for it. English was a second language for four of the participants. Please see Appendix A for more detailed information on the participants. Ethical approval was gained from Dublin City University Research Ethics Committee. The project commenced in September 2014.

The overall aim of the study was to explore the practices and beliefs of teachers in relation to the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom. In particular, it sought to examine the attitudes of EFL teachers regarding the use of the learners' L1 in their classrooms, to compare and contrast practices of teachers in shared-L1 and multilingual contexts, and to investigate to what extent teachers who teach in both contexts adapt their pedagogic style to each context. The research questions are:

1. To what extent and in what ways do EFL teachers use or allow the learners to use their L1 in their classes?
2. What are the attitudes and beliefs of EFL teachers regarding the use of the L1 and the emerging bi-/multilingual skills of learners in the language classroom?
3. To what extent and in what ways do these practices and beliefs vary depending on whether the teaching takes place in shared-L1 or multilingual contexts?

The interviews consisted of five sets of open-ended questions which focused on the following constructs: their own teaching and language learning backgrounds; their practices and approaches in a particular multilingual context they had taught in; their practices and approaches in a particular shared-L1 context they had taught in; their overall views and beliefs in relation to the use of the L1 in language teaching; and their perceptions of the classroom as a bilingual space. See Appendix B for the interview template. Each interview lasted approximately one hour.

Following transcription of the interviews, the data was qualitatively coded and analysed using Thematic Analysis procedures (Braun & Clarke, 2006) in order to identify key issues and recurring themes. First, the interviews were read closely, manually tagging each item in order to generate initial descriptive codes for the data. These were then arranged together to identify broad patterns, issues and groupings across the data set. Using NVivo software, the entire data set was then systematically collated and categorised according to these codes. (Three of the twenty-four interviews were coded independently by hand by a colleague and then cross-checked with those of the researcher to ensure intercoder agreement). These codes were then subdivided and refined as suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006). The full transcripts were then re-read to ensure the codes accurately reflected what the respondents had articulated in the interviews. The data within each code was then reviewed and analysed in order to

identify overarching themes in the data in relation to the research questions. The 15-point checklist of criteria for good thematic analysis posited by Braun & Clarke (2013: 287) was adhered to in order to ensure the trustworthiness and dependability of the research. In addition, there was regular debriefing with a colleague, outlining the stages and processes undertaken in the analysis of the data as recommended by Creswell & Creswell for qualitative research (2018).

Themes relating to the nature of the teaching and learning space in each context, the extent to which teachers viewed this space in monolingual or bi/multilingual terms, and the role of context in their overall approach to the use of the L1 are presented below. Due to constraints of space, other important themes which were identified in the data (including other factors which influenced their choices and decision-making; planned and ad hoc classroom practices and procedures; issues relating to the inclusion and exclusion of others in both contexts; and their own experiences of and beliefs about language learning) are not addressed here.

To protect the anonymity of the respondents, their names have been changed and any information in the data which might identify the participants or particular schools has been removed. It is important to note that the terms ‘multilingual context’ and ‘shared-L1 context’ are used below to designate the two contexts. For ease of reading, the term L1 is used here although it is understood that the shared language may not be the L1 for all the students. During the interviews, participants often used ‘here’, ‘in Ireland’ and ‘multilingual’ to describe contexts where the students did not share a common language other than English; and often used ‘there’, ‘in [name of country other than Ireland]’ and ‘monolingual’ to describe contexts where the students shared a common language other than English.

4. Results

All the teachers believed that maximising the use of the target language was important and constituted best practice in language teaching and learning in both multilingual and shared-L1 teaching contexts. They felt that providing exposure to English and affording opportunities to use it were crucial parts of their role and that superior learning outcomes accrued when the students learned through the target language. However, despite these views the majority of teachers (20 participants) described a degree of flexibility in their attitudes and approaches to the use of the L1 in their teaching and used or allowed the L1 to be used sometimes, particularly in shared-L1 contexts. Only four participants were opposed to ever using or allowing the students to use the L1 in class. Whether they were teaching in a shared-L1 or a multilingual context emerged as an important factor for the participants in their approaches to the use of the L1.

4.1 The Nature of the Teaching and Learning Space in Each Context

The participants felt strongly that total immersion was the best way to learn a language. Nineteen of the teachers described trying to create this immersion experience in the classroom insofar as they could by creating an English-only monolingual space for the students: instructions and other classroom interactions through English; posters, notices and signs in English; English-only rules and ‘penalties’. However, almost all described how much easier this was to achieve in multilingual contexts, where the only common language was the target language. Students were ‘forced’ to use English in a way they were not in shared-L1 contexts.

The group dynamic of the multilingual context featured strongly in the discourse of teachers around using the L1. Teachers described the different dynamic of the group when learners from different linguistic, cultural and social backgrounds were together. A recurring response was that they did not have to be as strict about using and insisting on English-only in multilingual contexts; English was the language of communication:

Paul: I was teaching a Beginners class and they had very minimal English and there was a woman from Spain I remember in her 50s and there was a girl from Saudi Arabia who was 18 and they became the best of friends and I don't know how they communicated at all because they were you know laughing away and all that kind of thing so, it's something about the environment [...] it happens kind of automatically.

It was often felt that this was not at all the same when students were learning in their home countries in a shared-L1 setting:

Frank: a negative part of teaching in a monolingual class would be there wouldn't - it's more difficult to create an energy in the classroom you know, people are generally studying before work or school, after work or school, and they know each other, so there's not this excitement of meeting new people and it's different backgrounds and different cultures and stuff, so it can be more difficult to create energy in the classroom

They commented on how much more difficult it was to maintain an English-only policy outside English-speaking countries, in contexts where students shared the same L1:

Niall (*comparing the English-only policy in the two contexts*):

I mean when they're in the building they're supposed to speak English and [the

Director] will say “no, no, English” you know if you hear them on the stairs. So it’s a kind of a culture of it, whereas you know we couldn’t have that context in Kurdistan. I mean in the beginning we had plans to, and we had a section of a building that was for us, and we thought ‘right once they go through those doors they’re in the British Isles’ you know. But we couldn’t do it. They just wouldn’t do it, and so we gave up

However, teachers were very aware that for many students in this context, the classroom was the only place where they were in contact with English and they encouraged students to maximise their use of English in class. Several teachers expressed surprise to realise that they focussed more on English-only practices and procedures in the multilingual classroom even though in theory they felt this policy should be more valuable in non-English speaking countries. Extensive exposure to English was a given outside the classroom in Ireland, but not in the other context. They struggled somewhat to articulate their own practices and beliefs in relation to this:

Interviewer: How do you feel about using the L1 at these times? You mentioned that you feel it’s totally appropriate in the Kurdish context but that here you’d feel a little bit differently about it, or did I misunderstand you?

Niall: no no you didn’t. But I’m just kind of curious as to why I’d feel that actually, because in a way [exclusive use of English] is more helpful for them over in Kurdistan because they’re going out of the classroom into a Kurdish environment, so in a way I was polluting their only opportunity to [laughter] do you know what I mean. So it seems a bit reversed, but there were other motivations that I’ve mentioned

Interviewer: and it felt instinctive from what you’re saying?

Niall: instinctive yes yes. It just felt much more natural. [...] whereas they're here to learn English in an English environment and I'm here to facilitate that

They also accepted that in shared-L1 contexts, using English could seem contrived and strange for the students, that it was intuitive and indeed inevitable that speakers of the same language would speak to each other in their L1. They mentioned students being self-conscious about their accent and feeling embarrassed and uncomfortable doing some things through English in front of their peers. Teachers commented on students helping each other out by translating words for each other and joking and bantering in the L1, switching back and forth between languages in the classroom. Most teachers expressed a degree of flexibility with this.

They all differentiated between off-task talk among students while doing an exercise and engaging in communicative activities where the focus was on speaking practice and fluency development such as problem solving tasks and roleplays in shared-L1 contexts. Several teachers described insisting on English for some things (e.g. fluency-focused activities) and having a more flexible attitude towards the L1 for other things (e.g. jokes and bantering). A number of teachers felt that making this differentiation clear to students was a very effective way of motivating the students to speak in English at certain times and for certain activity types. They felt students respected this; they saw the point.

Several teachers mentioned that they found themselves focussing on the English-only rule too much in shared-L1 contexts, that it was sometimes more effective to just get on with the focus of the class:

Alan: Like with the Chinese group, it was a constant encouragement. But I think there comes a point where you realise that you are making too much of an issue

out of it, at which point it becomes difficult. So as a teacher, it affects the teaching because as a teacher you're almost program- you're always focusing on that as opposed to just letting it go and trying to bring them back to doing something in English

Many expressed a dislike of being the 'L1 policeman'. Teachers felt this most strongly with teenagers. The image of being 'like a (broken) record' was used frequently, where teachers were constantly reminding their students to speak English:

Emma: You'd say "you're here, just try" but you can't- I'm not a monster
[laughter]

Jane: I mean there was no point in saying "speak English, speak English, speak English". There was no point [...] I would have sounded like a record

However, at the same time many teachers also described how the use of the L1 might spread excessively if students were allowed to use it in class:

Irene: I think obviously in a monolingual class you have to be stricter about how much you can let them get away with because it could slip into a majority L1 lesson. So you have to be more - you've to be firmer about getting back into English

Rose: and I would only do [a translation exercise] with a class that I could trust wouldn't speak in Spanish to each other, because we have a lot of classes where every chance they get, they just revert into Spanish. I would only do it with a class that I could trust that if I turned to this, they wouldn't just start chatting in Spanish

4.2 Looking at their Teaching Environment through a Bilingual Lens

When asked about the extent to which they saw their classroom and their students in terms of their bilingualism, a large number of teachers were very struck by the question and commented that they had never thought about their teaching in this way before and had not really considered their students as bilinguals:

Irene: I've never really thought about it in that sense before to be honest. I think because you're focused on your role as the teacher, you're focused on developing their English skills, so I've never really thought about it

Margaret: you don't forget about their L1 [...] I mean I don't erase their L1 from my mind

Interviewer: but it's not really relevant beyond

Margaret: I guess. I just never really thought about that before

Alan: [pause] that's an interesting question. Do I see them as language learners or as bilinguals? [long pause] I'm not sure how to answer that

A large majority of teachers did not see the classroom as a bilingual space. They saw their role as providing a space which facilitated the learning of the target language and not in terms of bi/multilingualism:

Sally: I see it as me definitely trying to facilitate their learning of English. Maybe what I said earlier on contradicts that if I'm saying I do allow them to use a bit of L1, but I certainly don't see it as a multilingual space. No I don't, nor did I in Malaysia or anywhere else. I still see it as English, an English classroom, facilitating learning English [...] I have to say I never entered the

classroom thinking “this is a bilingual room”, but they were. They definitely were

Interviewer: but that wasn’t how you saw it?

Sally: No, and it never occurred to me until you asked me.

Several teachers said they saw their students as bilingual only when they were highly proficient English-users. Others saw their students as emerging bilinguals or future bilinguals, who would be able to use English in addition to their L1 in the future. Teachers tended to distinguish between shared-L1 and multilingual contexts hugely here:

Interviewer: do you see the classroom as a sort of multilingual space?

Arthur: no I don’t. No I see it like- because they’re all living together. They’re living with host families. No I just see it that we’re all just here speaking English

Interviewer: and what about in Spain?

Arthur: yeah that’s interesting you’ve put that to me because I hadn’t considered that before [pause] I see it very much as a second language in Spain. I didn’t when I first arrived [...] I was surprised at everyone breaking into Spanish every few minutes [laughter] or Catalan, and at the breaks I was like “why are you not speaking English together?”

Related to this is the extent to which the teacher was a fluent speaker of the L1. In shared-L1 contexts, teachers themselves sometimes codeswitched, using the L1 for jokes, explanations and for classroom management purposes. However, the majority of teachers interviewed did not have mastery of the students’ L1 in shared-L1 contexts and indeed many of the participants did not speak any second language well. Several

teachers spoke of the exclusion and discomfort they sometimes felt when they couldn't understand what the students were saying in their L1. The four participants for whom English was an L2 tended to see the students as future bilinguals and see themselves as an example of a fluent L2 user:

Agatha: So I did see them as language learners but I also saw them as basically in the future as people who are going to use both languages [...] they quite enjoyed it as well, most of the students, especially the Greek students because they could see a teacher from Greece speaking in a different accent and they were quite interested in that so that's what I tried to do basically

In general, teachers approached their own bi/multilingual skills differently in multilingual contexts. Teachers who spoke the language(s) of some of the students in this context often did not reveal this to the students, pretending that they did not understand. This was partly because they did not want to exclude students whose language they did not know.

While most teachers valued the cultural exchange element of teaching in multilingual environments, in general they tended to see this more in terms of non-linguistic communication and intercultural skill development, and less in terms of multilingual competences or tapping into their bi/multilingual skills:

Margaret: I find actually the main difference is more because of the culture than the actual language. It's tied together of course but when you have a multilingual group, obviously you have a multicultural group and that means a couple of things. It means they're very interested in each other and in learning about each other's culture and it also means a variety of learning styles and interaction styles

A very small number of teachers saw the multilingual classroom as a place where students could be encouraged to develop their bi/multilingual competences. They mentioned that some students spoke several languages and could understand a reference to another L1 or explain with reference to another L1. One teacher in particular noticed the multilingualism of the students and viewed their ability to communicate across languages as a personal skill, apparent even among beginner English students communicating in mixed languages:

Interviewer: do you see them as bilinguals?

Ana: Yeah, sure, of course. And most of the time multilingual, because they don't only speak English right, it's like a boiling pot of language. So I had really interesting experiences with the junior centre because I'd have students who could speak French in the class, like French speakers who would try to break the rules and instead of speaking English they would speak French to another girl who actually was an Italian and who could understand the French, and they could somehow communicate without speaking each other's language. So you know many times I would just be you know like flabbergasted, like shocked at their ability and I would many times forget that I should actually be interrupting the interaction [...] even though they were here to study English I felt that it was a rich experience for them to be able to communicate with someone from another language like that, in an English school, in an English class, breaking the rules

4.3 The Role of Context in the Overall Approach of Teachers

Overall, teachers had mixed and fluid views on the use of the L1. Almost all the teachers felt their approach and beliefs were influenced by the teaching context and that

managing L1 use was easier in multilingual than in shared-L1 contexts. Several teachers were very conscious that some of their views were contradictory and not fully thought-through:

Arthur: the only thing I want to add is that I'll probably change my opinion in another few months [laughs]

Interviewer : I take that on board, you're not rigid in your view

Arthur: no no I'm not

Teachers often articulated feelings of guilt and discomfort when they themselves used the L1 in class or when their students used it, particularly in shared-L1 contexts. Several teachers felt that this constituted a failure on their part, that they had not been able to explain or check something effectively or that the learners were bored and that they had not engaged or motivated them sufficiently for them to want to use English:

Jane: my challenge was and I saw it as a challenge that it was up to me to have enough activities that they were so engrossed in the materials that it wouldn't occur to them to speak in Spanish. So you know if I felt if I left the classroom and I felt towards the end they were speaking Spanish that it was my fault because they- because my classes weren't entertaining or demanding enough so that they weren't totally engrossed in it

Others felt that they were breaking an unwritten rule of some kind:

Martin: if they didn't get it in English first of all then I'd probably give in I suppose and help them a little bit in German

Interviewer: so a kind of efficiency. It's interesting you use the term 'give in', is that how you felt, that you were kind of giving in?

Martin: well I don't know. I suppose it's drummed into us here that like you know 'try not to use their L1 if you can. Everything should be through English', so yeah I suppose it was. I did feel a little bit guilty I suppose that I was kind of breaking a rule or something, that I shouldn't do that

Others considered it a more explicit prohibition:

Paul: I felt I shouldn't be doing it and I knew I would probably get into trouble with my boss

Although a small number had very strong views on the use of the L1 (generally against it), most teachers took a more flexible approach. Several teachers felt that there was a useful role for the L1 in language teaching, particularly in shared-L1 but also to some extent in multilingual contexts, especially for classroom management purposes and as a means of highlighting particular linguistic features of English, and indeed of 'language' in general. It is interesting to view the approaches of the teachers in terms of Macaro's (2009) *virtual*, *maximal* and *optimal* positions described earlier. As Table 1 demonstrates, very few held an inflexible virtual position. When described, it was more common in multilingual contexts. Much more common was the maximal view especially in shared-L1 contexts but also in monolingual contexts. Several articulated the optimal view, more typically for shared-L1 contexts. Most expressed fluid, changing and even 'contradictory' views, which they were often aware of. [*Table 1*]

Table 1 Teachers' Overall Beliefs in relation to the Use of the L1 in Shared-L1 and Multilingual EFL Contexts

Teacher name	Virtual position in shared-L1 contexts	Virtual position in multilingual contexts	Maximal position in shared-L1 contexts	Maximal position in multilingual contexts	Optimal position in shared-L1 contexts	Optimal position in multilingual contexts
Sarah	X	X				
Magda	X	X	X		X	
Denise		X	X		X	
Jane			X	X	X	X
Agatha	X	X	X			
Martyna			X	X		
Paul		X	X	X	X	
Irene			X	X	X	X
Martin			X	X	X	X
Ana					X	X
Linda			X	X	X	X
Mary			X	X	X	
Margaret	X	X				
Niall			X	X	X	X
Rose				X	X	X
Emma			X	X	X	X
Nora			X	X	X	X
Sally			X	X	X	X
Peter			X	X	X	X
Alan			X	X	X	X
Arthur		X	X	X	X	
Frank	X	X	X			
Tina	X	X				
Amy		X	X		X	X

Most teachers stated that they did not recall the use of the L1 being discussed in depth during their initial-service training, but they had taken away the impression that the L1 was to be discouraged and avoided across all TESOL contexts. Tensions sometimes existed between what teachers considered best practice and what seemed natural and instinctive to them or what their own language learning experiences had been. Personal values relating to inclusiveness and good manners tended to exert considerable influence over their views, particularly in multilingual contexts. Several teachers said they had welcomed the opportunity to speak about and reflect on this issue during the interview for this study:

Sally: I mean nobody really asks you ever what you think about these things and you don't even know what you think, and you're kind of forming your thoughts as you speak which is probably not what you want. You probably want more fully formed thoughts [laughter] [...] I wonder what I'd say if you asked me again in a week or a month or a year, and I wonder if you repeated it, if you could get your hands on the same people, what they would say, because I think even having this conversation is going to change things now. And I'm going to start thinking about what I'm doing and wondering more and remembering the conversation

5. Discussion

A number of important conclusions can be drawn from these findings. The discussion of these is framed within the limitations of this small-scale study involving twenty-four EFL teachers.

Firstly, the study confirms what many scholars (e.g. Kumaravadivelu, 2012; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011; Larsen-Freeman, 2011) have found regarding the strong influence exerted by the teaching context on the decision-making and pedagogic choices of language teachers. In this study, whether the teaching takes place in a shared-L1 or in a multilingual context has been identified as an important consideration for EFL teachers. The particular learning environment, group dynamic, linguistic resources and teaching challenges are very different in each context and call for different approaches to the use of the L1 in the classroom. In general, teachers tend to have stronger views against using the L1 in multilingual contexts and to be more tolerant and flexible of this phenomenon in shared-L1 contexts. To a large extent, they rely on what feels instinctive and natural to them, particularly in shared-L1 contexts. Beyond a general belief that an English-only approach facilitates a superior form of language learning, most teachers do not appear to have a strong theoretical basis on which to draw, which would inform and guide their decision-making and practices in relation to this.

Similarly to the findings of other scholars (e.g. Ellis & Shintani, 2014; Macaro 2014, 2009; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009), this study points to considerable variation among teachers in relation to their practices and beliefs about the role of the L1 in language teaching. Indeed, this study finds that individual teachers seem to hold flexible, fluid and even contradictory views on this. Although it is in fact not uncommon for teachers to hold seemingly contradictory views on certain pedagogic practices (Oranje & Smith, 2018; Phipps & Borg, 2009), it seems clear that many teachers have not given much thought to or reflected critically on the issue of using the L1 in the EFL classroom. As Kumaravadivelu (2012) has pointed out, researchers often find teachers are not conscious of their beliefs until directly asked about them by interviewers. This study suggests that an explicit focus on codeswitching and L1 use in

the language classroom on the part of teachers and an opportunity for critical reflection of their assumptions, beliefs and practices in this regard would be beneficial for teachers. Such critical reflection could perhaps involve discussions with colleagues and with students on the topic as well as using reflection journals, peer observations, self-questioning techniques etc., which would allow teachers to become more confident about their teaching choices and feel less guilty in their approach to the use of the L1. As Song (2015) and Richards (1996) have suggested, such awareness raising and critical reflection are key factors in teacher education and development programmes.

Finally, many of the frustrations and challenges articulated by teachers about minimising L1 use, particularly in shared-L1 contexts, may relate to difficulties around implementing strictly monolingual practices with learners who are developing and using their bilingual skills. Teachers themselves do not seem to perceive this in terms of monolingual or bilingual practices or spaces, however, and appear unused to thinking about their teaching environment and their learners in these terms. Taking a bilingual stance as advocated by García et al. (2017) might be a useful perspective for teachers in this regard, perhaps allowing them to celebrate the emerging bilingual skills of the learners and to view codeswitching as a valuable linguistic resource to be exploited and practised in a targeted and judicious way in the language classroom within a broadly communicative, meaning-based approach. Such a pedagogic stance could also facilitate a space in which to foster multilingual competence in both shared-L1 and multilingual contexts, even when teachers do not know the language(s) of the learners.

6. Conclusion

The above conclusions raise a number of important implications for TESOL educators and practitioners. The prevailing monolingual orientation in foreign language teacher

education, which continues to see codeswitching and other bilingual practices as a hindrance and a distraction from effective language learning needs to be revisited. As Cummins (2007: 233) suggests: “learning efficiencies can be achieved if teachers explicitly draw students’ attention to similarities and differences between their languages”. The application of critical reflection strategies and tools in relation to the use of the L1 in their everyday teaching practice across various contexts could provide a useful starting point for teachers. An explicit focus on developing such skills and applying them to monolingual classroom practices could become a useful part of future teacher training and development programmes. Furthermore, building on approaches to the use of the L1 in class, such as those advocated by Turnbull (2018), Cook (2016) and Cenoz and Gorter (2013), which frame the EFL classroom as a bi/multilingual space would allow for the exploration of long-held assumptions about how learners acquire, store and use their additional languages. The design of pedagogic approaches and teaching materials which encourage learners to build on their underlying knowledge about language(s) and to develop their bi/multilingual competences as described by Canagarajah (2014) would be useful supports for such a multilingual turn in the classroom.

It is also important that these resources and pedagogic frameworks would move beyond the one-size-fits-all approach which appears to be prevalent in many initial teacher education programmes (Cook, 2016; King, 2016) and cater more effectively for the varied teaching and learning contexts in which English language teachers find themselves. Teachers need to be supported more effectively in making informed choices so that they can adapt their practices regarding the use of the L1 in English language classrooms to suit their particular teaching context.

¹The expression L2 is used throughout to denote any language that is not the first language of learners. It is acknowledged that for some learners this might be a third, fourth, etc. language.

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Appendix A: Participant profiles

Name	Has DELTA qualification	initial training before teaching	speaks other languages	L1	No of years' experience in multilingual context	No of years' experience in shared-L1 context	could speak L1 of students in shared L1 context
Sarah	Yes	No	No	English	12	7	No
Magda	Yes	Yes	Yes	Polish	10	5	Yes
Denise	Yes	Yes	No	English	23	2	No
Jane	---	No	Yes	English	6	4	Yes
Agatha	No	No	Yes	Greek	3	5	Yes
Martyna	Yes	Yes	Yes	Polish	3	3	No
Paul	Yes	Yes	Yes	English	7	10	Yes
Irene	No	Yes	No	English	1	1	No
Martin	Yes	Yes	Yes	English	3	1	No
Ana	No	No	Yes	Portuguese	1	9	Yes
Linda	No	Yes	Yes	English	7	7	Yes
Mary	Yes	Yes	Yes	English	8	16	Yes
Margaret	No	Yes	Yes	English	5	1	No
Niall	No	Yes	No	English	2	1	No
Rose	No	Yes	Yes	English	2	3	Yes
Emma	No	No	No	English	4	2	No

Nora	Yes	No	Yes	English	2	3	No
Sally	Yes	Yes	No	English	9	7	No
Peter	No	No	No	English	2	2	No
Alan	No	Yes	No	English	6	1	No
Arthur	Yes	---	Yes	English	8	7	Yes
Frank	No	Yes	Yes	English	2	3	Yes
Tina	Yes	Yes	No	English	21	2	No
Amy	---	Yes	No	English	11	1	No

Appendix B: Interview template

A. Background

1. Tell me a little bit about your background as an ESOL/EFL teacher. (How long an ESOL teacher? Where? Which teacher training course taken? etc.)
2. Do you speak any languages other than English? What level?

B. Teaching contexts

3. Describe your teaching context in (Spain / China etc.).
4. Do you speak (Spanish / Chinese etc.)? What level?
5. Describe your teaching context in Ireland.
6. What are the main differences between the two contexts?

C. Use of L1 in the classroom

7. Think of a particular teaching context you taught/teach in in (Spain / China etc.). Are there times when you would use/allow students to use the L1 in the classroom in this context? Why/why not? When? How?
8. How do you feel about using the L1 at these times?
9. Think of your teaching context in Ireland. Are there times when you would use / allow students to use the L1 in the classroom? Why/why not? When? How?
10. How do you feel about using the L1 at these times?

D. Overall attitude to the use of the L1 in the two contexts.

11. What are your views on using the L1 of the students in the ESOL classroom?
12. Does your approach to this vary depending on whether you are teaching in ... (Spain / China etc.) or Ireland?
13. Teacher training – what was the view on the use of L1 in the classroom? Did the teacher training affect / shape your views on this?

E. The classroom as a bilingual space?

14. How do you see your learners and your classroom? When you see your students and your classroom in front of you, do you see it as a language learning space and your students as language learners or are you more likely to see it as a bilingual or a multilingual space and your students as bilinguals or potential bilinguals?

Chapter Five: Publication Three

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents Publication Three: Gallagher, F. and Geraghty, C. (2021) ‘Exploring mono/multilingual practices on the CELTA course: What trainers say’, *Language Teaching Research* (online).

The prestigious journal, *Language Teaching Research* (LTR), was successfully targeted for Publication Three. The aims and scope of this journal were highly relevant to the study. LTR is described as:

a peer-reviewed journal that publishes research within the area of second or foreign language teaching. Although articles are written in English, the journal welcomes studies dealing with the teaching of languages other than English as well. The journal is a venue for studies that demonstrate sound research methods and which report findings that have clear pedagogical implications.

(*Language Teaching Research: aims and scope*, no date)

LTR covers “a wide range of topics in the area of language teaching ... including: programme, syllabus, materials design, methodology and the teaching of specific skills and language for specific purposes” (*LTR: aims and scope*, no date). The focus on studies with explicit pedagogic implications for language teaching fitted well with the objectives of Publication Three, which explored ways in which the use of the L1 as a pedagogic tool were addressed on the CELTA language teacher education programme. Although EFL-related studies are very well represented in this journal, its readership goes far beyond the TESOL community. As was the case for Publications One and Two, this was an important consideration as it was felt that the findings related to the teaching of foreign languages in general, and not only EFL.

In addition, it was felt that the excellent reputation of this publication among members of the EFL and LTE communities as a leading journal in this field would facilitate and enhance the dissemination of findings. LTR is published by Sage and is ranked 20 out

of 819 on Scimago Journal Rankings (SJR) for Language and Linguistics journals in 2020 (SJR, no date).

Section 5.2 presents Publication Three as the ‘final accepted manuscript’ for the LTR submission. Pagination is again in sequence with the rest of the thesis, but formatting and referencing within the publication follow the requirements of the journal. As for Publications One and Two (Chapters Three and Four), the abstract is included here for convenience and ease of reading.

5.2 Publication Three

Exploring mono/multilingual practices on the CELTA course: What trainers say

Language Teacher Research (2021 online)

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Abstract

This paper examines mono- and bi/multilingual practices on the University of Cambridge CELTA (Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) course. This course is generally considered to be one of the most popular and widely-recognised initial teacher education programmes in English language teaching worldwide. The paper describes a small research project which explored the views of seventy-seven CELTA trainers in relation to the use of the L1 in English language teaching and centred on how this issue is addressed on the teacher training courses they worked on. The study included trainers who use English either as an L1 or as an L2 and both monolingual and bi/multilingual participants. Respondents worked in shared-L1 (where learners share a common language other than English) and in multilingual teaching and training contexts. The need to develop a theoretical framework in relation to L1 use in English language teaching and for a more explicit and considered focus on this issue on the CELTA course was identified, so that both trainers and trainee-teachers can make informed pedagogic decisions around L1 use in their teaching and professional practices. Findings also point to the need for wider discussion within the CELTA community on issues relating to the traditionally monolingual and one-size-fits-all orientation of the course and to the potential added-value of language teachers and educators who bring bilingual skills and perspectives to the classroom, particularly non-native English speakers.

Keywords: bilingual skills, CELTA, English language teaching, L1 use, monolingual principle, multi-competence, native speaker, NNEST, teacher education, TESOL

1. INTRODUCTION

The “monolingual principle” (Howatt, 1984, p.135), long considered a basic tenet of second language teaching, involves the belief that the use of the L1 (first language) of the learner has no place in the L2 classroom and in fact interferes with the successful acquisition of the new language. This belief became almost axiomatic during the 20th century, to the extent that teaching manuals rarely mentioned the use of the L1 at all except in terms of ways to avoid using it in class (Cummins, 2009; Ellis and Shintani, 2014). In more recent years, this premise has been challenged, and approaches which exploit the L1 of the learners have been encouraged (Shin, 2018; Lee and Lo, 2017). However, TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) remains largely monolingual in orientation (Jenkins, 2017; Leung 2014) and until very recently the ‘multilingual turn’ (May, 2014) in Applied Linguistics has not featured strongly in mainstream research and practices in TESOL (Cenoz and Gorter, 2020). According to Ortega (2018, p. 433-4), “a pending disciplinary challenge is to overcome the monolingual bias and nativespeakerism that inadvertently have seeped into much SLA research”, notwithstanding that “some progress seems to be on the horizon”. Many scholars have called for more research into classroom practices and teacher beliefs in this area (García et al., 2017; Molway et al., 2020).

The study described below focuses on the extent to which this multilingual turn has permeated into the University of Cambridge CELTA (Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) course, which is one of the most widely-taken and recognised initial teacher education programmes in TESOL worldwide. In particular, it sought to explore the views and practices of teacher-trainers on the course regarding the use of the L1 in language learning and teaching and how this issue is addressed on CELTA programmes. The study included trainers who use English either as an L1 or as

an L2⁷ and both monolingual and bi/multilingual participants. The research is important because, although there have been inconsistent findings in relation to the influence of teacher training programmes on teacher beliefs and cognitions (Anderson, 2020; Borg, 2011), it seems likely that the views of trainers working on CELTA programmes may have considerable bearing in terms of raising awareness and influencing practices in this area. Johnson and Golombek (2020) have highlighted both the lack of research in relation to the views and beliefs of teacher-trainers themselves and the importance of this, given the potential influence of teacher educators on future teachers and learners. It is hoped that this paper will contribute to the debate around the use of the L1 in TESOL and highlight important considerations for the design and delivery of teacher training programmes.

2. BACKGROUND LITERATURE

2.1 Move towards bi/multilingual perspectives

A profound paradigm shift has taken place in the fields of Applied Linguistics and SLA which has challenged the monolingual orientation of much of the research in the field and changed our perceptions of how people acquire additional languages (Conboy, 2010; Li, 2016; Ortega, 2018). This has profound implications for language teaching and TESOL (Cenoz and Gorter, 2020; Saville-Troike and Barto, 2017; Swain and Lapkin, 2013). Until the beginning of the 21st century, the view that total avoidance of the L1 in language teaching led to a superior form of learning remained relatively unchallenged in TESOL (Cummins, 2009; Cook, 2001; Ellis and Shintani, 2014).

⁷ The term L2 is used throughout to denote an additional language which is not the L1 of the user. It is understood that this language may in fact be a third, fourth etc. language for the user.

However, in more recent years, this view has been questioned (Canagarajah, 2017; Cenoz and Gorter, 2013; Cook, 2016a). There is in fact little evidence to support the monolingual principle as the most effective way to learn additional languages and it is now associated with how monolinguals learn their L1 and not grounded in how most bilingual speakers in the world acquire their languages (Cook 2016b; Creese and Blackledge, 2010; McMillan and Turnbull, 2009). According to Shin (2018, p. 127), “[i]nstructional assumptions that insist on a strict separation of two languages simply do not reflect the linguistic realities of bilingual students.” Research has demonstrated that bilinguals do not separate their different languages in their brain (Hoshino and Thierry, 2011; Kharkhurin and Li, 2015; Lewis et al., 2012), or de-activate one language while using the other (García, 2009; Schmitt, 2008; Shin, 2018). For so long seen as an inferior form of language practice, codeswitching, defined here as “the alternate use of two languages, that is, the speaker makes a complete shift to another language for a word, phrase, or sentence and then reverts back to the base language” (Grosjean, 2010, pp. 51 – 55), is now regarded as a highly sophisticated form of language use (Deuchar et al., 2007; Grosjean, 2010; Reyes and Ervin-Tripp, 2010) and a normal part of the natural discourses of skilled bi/multilinguals (Hornberger and Link, 2012; Lin and Li, 2012; Turnbull and Dailey-O’Cain, 2009). Just as all proficient language users can adjust their tone, syntactic and lexical choices according to the appropriate context, audience and genre, bilingual users have an additional way of doing this if they are with other bilinguals who share their languages, utilising a highly sophisticated language skillset which is unavailable to monolinguals (Blackledge et al., 2014; Block, 2014; García and Li, 2014). Disparaging terms such as Singlish, Tex-Mex, Spanglish or Franglais reflect the negative ways in which many monolingual English speakers view bilingual speech, seeing it as an inferior, lazy form of language use. These pejorative

terms have been replaced in more recent years by other terms such as ‘translanguaging’ (García, 2009), ‘translingual practices’ (Canagarajah, 2014), ‘metrolingualism’ (Makoni and Pennycook, 2012) and ‘flexible bilingualism’ (Creese and Blackledge, 2010), which celebrate the highly developed, flexible and complex language practices of fluent bi/multilinguals.

The ability to shuttle between languages has become more and more important when navigating the increasingly complex linguistic spaces of the modern world (Blackledge and Creese, 2018; Horner and Weber, 2018; Kramsch, 2014) where bi- and multilingual practices have intensified in many social, professional and educational interactions (Laing 2019; Martin-Jones et al., 2012; Saville-Troike and Barto, 2017). Canagarajah (2015, p. 47) describes the “translingual competence” of skilled multilinguals as a complex language awareness that includes “intercultural competence, sociolinguistic sensitivity, pragmatic understanding and critical thinking” and which is used “to negotiate the unpredictable mix of language resources in any given context”. The benefits of such ‘multi-competence’ (Cook, 2016a) are demonstrated in the workplace and in the provision of services (Duchene and Heller, 2012; Hewitt, 2012; Li, 2016) as well as in popular culture and in increasingly diverse neighbourhoods and urban spaces (García and Li, 2014; Martin-Jones et al., 2012). Increasingly, written codeswitching and switching between different orthographies for various effects are found in multilingual practices on social media and on the Internet (Horner and Weber, 2018; Leppänen and Peuronen, 2012; Shin, 2018).

2.2 Implications for English language teaching

Many suggest that the foreign language classroom is an ideal space in which to develop multi-competence and bi/multilingual skills (Bruen and Kelly, 2016; Hall and Cook, 2012; Turnbull, 2018). In particular, classroom activities involving codeswitching, translation and other translanguaging practices have been identified as a way to promote these skills (Anderson, 2018; Cenoz and Gorter, 2013; Pintado-Gutiérrez, 2018), even in contexts where the teacher is monolingual or does not share all the languages of the learners (García et al., 2017; Wang, 2019). Within foreign-language teaching contexts where meaningful input and communicative interaction and practice in the target language remains a central tenet, many point to the ways in which the judicious, systematic and targeted use of the L1 may be exploited as a linguistic tool to enhance L2 learning (Lee and Lo, 2017; Scott, 2016; Swain and Lapkin, 2013). For example, Gallagher and Colohan (2017) describe a dual-language “twisted dictation” technique, used with a group of Italian secondary school students, which provided a framework for ‘noticing’ the typical word order of English adverbials. Several of the students who participated in this study also commented positively on the real-life interpreting element of the activity. However, the monolingual orientation of much English language teaching materials, such as textbooks and teaching manuals, has been raised by several researchers (Ellis and Shintani, 2014; Hall and Cook, 2012; Kiczowski et al., 2016), particularly in reference to mainstream ELT publishing houses (Anderson, 2020; Freeman, 2020; Leung, 2014). As Cook (2016b, p. 181) puts it: “Looking at most EFL and modern language coursebooks, you get the distinct impression that all of them are written by monolinguals who have no idea of the lives lived by L2 users.”

The multilingual turn in SLA has profound implications for English language teaching, challenging not just the bias towards monolingual practices of most English language classrooms (Cook, 2016a; Leung, 2014; Ortega, 2018), but also what many regard as unachievable native-speaker-like learning goals (Freeman, 2020; Ortega, 2016; Scott, 2016). Competent L2 use and multi-competence are seen as more realistic goals for language learners and users (Cook, 2016b; Freeman, 2020; Scott, 2016).

In addition, the successful language learning experiences and bilingual skills which bilingual and non-native-English-speaker teachers (NNESTs⁸) may have in their teaching toolkit have begun to be validated in a more powerful way and seen as an asset in teaching (Anderson, 2018; Cook, 2016a; Hall and Cook 2012). Many scholars (e.g. Cooke and Simpson, 2012; May, 2014; Scott, 2016) question the use of terms such as ‘native-speaker’ and ‘non-native-speaker’ teachers, reflecting as they do the monolingual orientation of TESOL and the power structures inherent in native-speakerism (Ilieva and Ravindran, 2018; Kiczowski et al., 2016; Ortega, 2016). Freeman (2020, p. 9) describes the concept of the ‘native-speaker’ as “arguably ELT’s version of whiteness”.

However, this multilingual turn has not been readily adopted among many language teaching practitioners and policy makers on the ground (Hawkins and Cannon, 2017; Dailey-O’Cain and Liebscher, 2015; Vallejo and Dooly, 2020) and in particular in foreign language teaching contexts (Anderson, 2018; Kramsch, 2014; Turnbull, 2018). The monolingual principle is a deeply embedded one, generating strong resistance to change (Li, 2016; Vallejo and Dooly, 2020; Cooke and Simpson, 2012), even among

⁸ Although it is accepted by the authors that the use of the terms non-native-English-speaker-teachers [NNESTs] and native-English-speaker-teachers [NESTs] can contribute to discriminatory practices and ‘native-speakerism’ in the ELT profession, these terms are used in this paper for ease of reading and because an important focus of the study involves comparing the views of NEST and NNEST trainers.

NNESTs (Hall and Cook, 2012; Kiczowski et al., 2016). Nevertheless, the most recent CELTA syllabus suggests that change is happening, albeit very slowly. It includes a topic sub-heading: “Multilingualism and the role of first languages” (2018, p. 4 section 1.6), which is clarified as understanding “the kinds of language backgrounds that learners may come from (e.g. multilingual/monolingual; different varieties of English) and how a learner’s language background might influence the learning of English” (2018, p. 6 section 1.6). While this is far from an endorsement of the judicious use of the L1 in the classroom or advocacy for the adoption of a bi/multilingual stance by the teacher, it is a welcome addition to the syllabus and points to the possibility of real change ahead in relation to the monolingual orientation of EFL.

Researchers have found considerable variation in the practices of teachers in relation to the use of the L1 in the classroom (Ellis and Shintani, 2014; Macaro, 2009, 2014; Wach and Monroy, 2019), although a consistent finding has been that using the L1 in class is often accompanied by feelings of guilt among teachers (Cook, 2016b; Kirkpatrick, 2014). Gallagher (2020) found the particular teaching context to be an important factor in terms of teachers’ views on the use of the L1 in class, particularly whether teaching took place in shared-L1⁹ (i.e. learners sharing the same L1) or multilingual EFL contexts. The need for a theoretical framework against which teachers could apply pedagogic choices in relation to the use of the L1 in the classroom has been identified as important (Dailey-O’Cain and Liebscher, 2015; Macaro, 2014; Lee and Lo, 2017).

⁹ The term ‘shared-L1’ is used here, although it is understood that the shared language may not be the L1 for all.

2.3 The CELTA course

Teacher training may be an important way to address some of these issues. The CELTA is one of the most popular pre-service English teaching courses in the world (Anderson, 2020; Harrison, 2018; King, 2016). Each year, approximately 12,000 candidates take the course in 370 approved centres in over 80 countries (Cambridge English CELTA website, 2020; Cambridge English CELTA brochure, n.d). It is typically a short (4-5 week), intensive course, designed to provide novice teachers with an essential starter-pack for any future EFL teaching context (Hobbs, 2013; Mackensie, 2019). Although initially intended as a pre-service course mainly for native-English-speakers working in the private sector (Anderson, 2020; Hobbs, 2013; King, 2016), over the years the profile of candidates has changed. The percentage of NNEST candidates on the CELTA has risen from 26% in 2005 to 46% in 2018 (Anderson, 2020); increasingly, many candidates are already experienced teachers (Harrison, 2018); and the contexts where they teach after the course have become extremely varied (Hobbs, 2013; King, 2016). Therefore, what many perceive as the one-size-fits-all approach to teaching which is associated with the course may no longer be valid for many local teaching contexts (King, 2016; Laing, 2019; Mackensie, 2019). However, Harrison (2018) reports little appetite for change given the popularity and high satisfaction rates among both trainers and candidates on courses and the high regard in which it is held by the ELT community.

There have been inconsistent findings on the impact of teacher training courses on the beliefs and practices of teachers (Borg, 2011; Horii, 2015; Molway et al., 2020), but many researchers have associated change in this area with courses which foster critical reflection and the articulation of beliefs which can promote agency, challenge native-

speakerism and explore teacher identity (Ilieva, 2010; Scott, 2016), particularly among NNEST trainees (Ilieva and Ravindran, 2018; Kiczowski et al., 2016). Although designed as a teacher preparation course, for many English language teachers, the CELTA remains their *only* teaching qualification (Hobbs, 2013), which makes a focus on developing techniques to cultivate critical examination of beliefs and practices all the more important on the course. Given the short and intensive nature of the CELTA, several researchers have suggested including an explicit focus on adapting to different teaching contexts as a way to include a deeper element of critical reflection in the later stages of the course (Anderson, 2020; Mackensie, 2019). Laing (2019) and King (2016) posit that this reflection and a certain amount of ‘unlearning’ may also be required on the part of CELTA trainers themselves, not least in relation to the paradigm shift away from what many scholars (e.g. Anderson, 2020, Hobbs, 2013; Kiczowski et al., 2016) have identified as the native-speaker bias and monolingual orientation of courses such as the CELTA. According to Johnson and Golombek (2020 p.117), although there has been extensive research into teacher education and training in general, more focus is needed on the beliefs and practices of the teacher educators themselves, who often exert a powerful influence on and shape the practices of “the teachers with whom they work and the students their teachers eventually teach”. The study described below attempts to bring such a focus to the views and attitudes of CELTA trainers in relation to the use of the L1 in English language teaching and on CELTA courses.

3. METHODOLOGY

The study is based on a small-scale qualitative research project which centred on the mono- and bi/multilingual practices of trainers on the CELTA course. The Research Questions were:

- 1. To what extent and in what ways is the use of the language learners' L1 addressed on CELTA training courses?¹⁰**
- 2. What are the views of CELTA trainers towards the use of the L1 in English language teaching?**
- 3. To what extent and in what ways are the views of trainers for whom English is an L1 different to those for whom English is an L2?**

Recruitment was through a Facebook forum for freelance CELTA trainers and through the Cambridge English Teaching Qualification mailing list for CELTA practitioners (permission granted by the Cambridge English list moderator). Ethical approval was granted by Dublin City University Research Ethics committee. Seventy-seven trainers who use English either as an L1 (55 participants) or as an L2 (22 participants) completed an anonymous online questionnaire via Google Forms, which elicited their practices around and attitudes to the use of the L1 on the CELTA courses they taught on and in English language teaching more generally. The survey consisted of two sets of questions. A set of closed questions concerned the background of the participants in relation to language(s) they use and know and the contexts they teach / have taught in. The second set of open-ended questions elicited the views and practices of the

¹⁰ Data has been drawn from participants' own perceptions of and beliefs about their practices on CELTA courses and not from classroom observations undertaken by the researchers.

participants in relation to the use of the L1 in language teaching and on CELTA courses. Table 1 provides a profile of the respondents:

Table 1: Profile of respondents

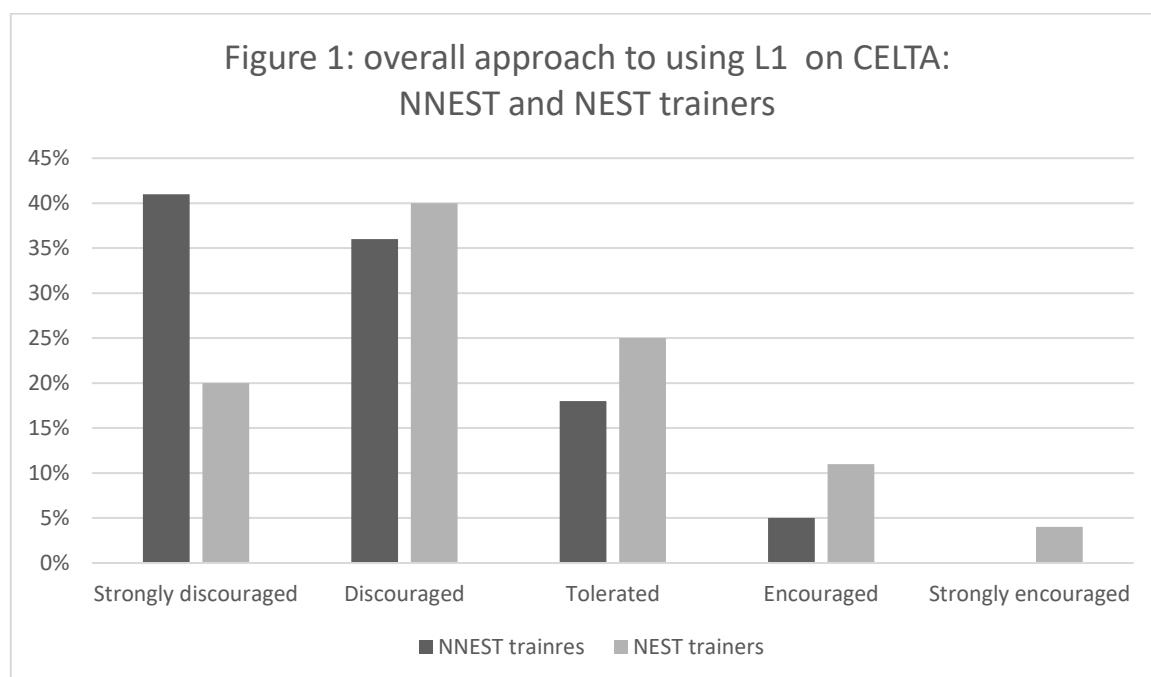
	NEST trainers (55)	NNEST trainers (22)
More than 5 years' experience in CELTA	39	11
Less than 5 years' experience in CELTA	16	11
Experience in multilingual contexts only (CELTA)	13	1
Experience in shared-L1 contexts only (CELTA)	11	5
Experience in both contexts (CELTA)	31	16
Experience in multilingual contexts only (teaching)	5	1
Experience in shared-L1 contexts only (teaching)	9	9
Experience in both contexts (teaching)	40*	12
Has additional language at B2 or above	26 **	All
No additional language higher than B1	25	0
	* one respondent appeared to have no teaching experience outside of CELTA training	
	** 4 respondents did not indicate their level of proficiency in the additional language(s) they listed	

The data was qualitatively coded and analysed using Thematic Analysis procedures (Braun & Clarke, 2006). First, the responses were read closely. Each item in the data was manually tagged in order to generate initial descriptive codes for the data. These were then organised to identify broad patterns and groupings across the data. Using NVivo software, the entire data set was then systematically collated and categorised according to these ‘parent’ codes. An NVivo interrater comparison test based on 10 of the 77 questionnaires was conducted, resulting in an IRC score of .83. The completed questionnaires were then re-read to ensure the codes accurately reflected what the respondents had written. The data within each code was then analysed in order to identify overarching themes in the data in relation to the research questions. See Appendix two for the set of thematic codes and sub-codes used in the analysis. Braun & Clarke’s 15-point checklist of criteria for good thematic analysis (2013, p.287) was adhered to in order to ensure the trustworthiness and dependability of the research.

It is important to note that it is common practice on CELTA programmes for trainers themselves to teach ‘live’ lessons which are observed by trainee-teachers as part of the course. Respondents refer to their roles as teacher-trainer and ‘model’ teacher in their responses. The respondents frequently used the acronyms TP (Teaching Practice) or TL (Target Language) in their responses. Each respondent has been allocated a number (e.g. R2, R49) and an asterisk has been added to denote NNEST respondents. (e.g. R5*; R33*).

4. RESULTS

A large majority of trainers either strongly discourage or discourage the use of the L1 in teaching during CELTA courses. Discouragement of the L1 was more prevalent with NNEST trainers. Of the twenty-two NNEST respondents, nine said they strongly discouraged and eight said that they discouraged the use of the L1 in teaching. Of the fifty-five NEST trainers who responded, eleven indicated that they strongly discouraged and twenty-two said that they discouraged the use of the L1 in teaching. Only one NNEST trainer indicated that they would encourage the use of the L1 in teaching. This rose to eight of the fifty-five NEST trainers, of which six said that they encouraged and two said that they strongly encouraged the use of the L1. The remaining trainers (four out of twenty-two NNEST trainers and fourteen out of fifty-five NEST trainers) indicated that they were tolerant towards the use of the L1, without encouraging it. See Figure 1.



4.1 How L1 use is addressed on the CELTA

Trainees generally are expected to use English at all times on the CELTA course and in their teaching practice. This is often explained to trainees at interview, at orientation or in the course handbook, where trainees are explicitly informed that they must use English only on the course. Most trainers added that it rarely needs to be mentioned again.

R32: I have never had to address translation in feedback or tutorials. I find it is hardly used at all.

R18: Never had an issue.

A very common approach is to deal with the use of the L1 in a more implicit way. Many respondents explained that the use of the L1 was not addressed explicitly on the CELTA course at all.

R66: I think it's not overtly stated but it's implicit.*

R64: We normally do not say this explicitly, but they 'get' it somehow because the course is delivered fully in English, the tutors only speak English to the trainees, the demos are in English, etc.*

This idea of the trainees just 'getting it' came up frequently.

R70: I never need to [explicitly tell them]. They seem to know this.

One respondent found this to be especially the case with NNEST trainee-teachers:

R53: Usually native English candidates ask [about using the L1] if they know the local language; the non-native English candidates don't tend to ask, they just don't use L1. So yeah, I guess it's just understood mostly?*

Some respondents mentioned that trainees often worried that they would be penalised for inadvertently using the L1 during practice lessons:

R64: Sometimes trainees are even afraid of using L1 during teaching practice, and if it accidentally happens, they are worried that they will be penalized for that.*

R32: Some trainees are dead against use of L1, as they fear being dragged into it by their students.

When the L1 is addressed, the focus tends to be on ways to avoid it. Many trainers mentioned 'the foreign language lesson', delivered to trainees in an unfamiliar language, as the central way the issue was addressed on the course:

R37: We do one Foreign Language Lesson to show them how to teach exclusively in L2 [...].

R32: I do a foreign language lesson in early week 4. [...] they get the point about the possibility of teaching absolute beginners without using L1 at all, TL only.

One respondent referred to this as the CELTA way:

R39: I include a foreign language session to expose trainees to techniques and also to help them see the 'CELTA way' can be very effective.

Some trainers also mentioned particular input sessions (such as sessions on classroom management, vocabulary teaching and concept checking) where issues around the use of the L1 sometimes came up and where teaching techniques which focused on how to avoid the L1 were highlighted. Again, this was usually done using an unfamiliar foreign language.

R53: I use Slovenian to show them how difficult excessive TTT [teacher-talking-time] can be, and why it's better to model and demonstrate activities rather than explain instructions.*

In the main, the focus on L1 use in the classroom appears to entail a rather ad hoc approach, whereby the issue is dealt with only if it arises, especially in Teaching-Practice feedback:

R14: It often comes up naturally in TP FB [Feedback] and usually because trainees are 'complaining' about L1 use in the class and so we look at why they're using it, rather

than simply banning it.

R43: More experienced trainees may naturally bring in their existing knowledge of students' L1s. This may or may not be addressed in feedback depending on the reason for doing so / effect it had.

Only a small number of respondents said they designated a particular time on the course to an explicit focus on L1 use, where beliefs and practices around the issue was explored in a considered way. This usually involves discussion of criteria for/against using the L1 in class and how choices might be affected by different factors and contexts.

R39: There is a designated session asking candidates to consider the role of L1 in their practice [...] trainees are asked to reflect on whether the use of L1 helped or hindered their students' learning if used, and whether it would have helped if not used.

R10: I encourage participants to build a set of criteria about when and why we might choose to use or encourage learners to use L1.

Three respondents explained that they demonstrated how to use the L1 effectively in teaching on the course. For example:

R28: We have L1 times when they are encouraged to use L1 e.g. to discuss difficult lexis or grammar between themselves or to do some contrastive analysis if a monolingual class. If multilingual, I hope to find pairs or groups that speak the same language for these discussions [...] I divide teaching times in only L1 or only L2 moments and encourage trainees to do the same. Obviously there will be more English in the classroom overall.

R38: There's no time on a CELTA to go into details, but by demonstrating [...] how my plurilingual resources can be called upon to help convey certain ideas, candidates may have a chance to be exposed to potential beneficial effects, hopefully!

Some felt this should be done more:

R14: I think it has a place alongside other tools and techniques. Just today I found myself 'defending' its use with a trainee who couldn't see a place for any translation in class and I was giving a few simple techniques for exploiting it in classes. It made me think that I should be more up front about its use, rather than just dealing with it when trainees complain about TP students using it.

A minority of trainers talked about judicious use of the L1; one identified this as “*principled*” [R42] use of the L1. These trainers spoke about identifying when, how much and in what ways the L1 might be used, and usually stressed the need to find a balance in order to encourage communication in English:

R64: I think at lower levels discouraging L1 may create unnecessary tension [...] Also, it is often much faster to explain a word in L1 [...] so if translation is economical, I translate. But I tell my students that only I can do it [...] Otherwise, they tend to switch to Russian, and the English environment in the classroom is 'gone'. In general, I think we should try to find the right balance because I do find that using L1 in explanations may lead to better learning and save time.*

R50: L1 can be an extremely useful tool. I encourage trainees to implement contrastive analysis or translation activities, or provide support for learners who are struggling to keep up with the classroom instructions in English. I also encourage them to understand when it's useful for learners to use L1 in pair and group work. However, I also make it very clear to them when L1 use is not productive, and see one of my main roles as a trainer as raising trainees' awareness of when it is useful to use/allow it and when not.

Such responses point to a perceived need among a number of trainers for further discussion on this issue within the CELTA community so that informed choices in relation to the use of the L1 in teaching can be made:

R79: I think it is the most important tool learners have and we haven't figured out how to best use it to their benefit.*

R39: Discussion and being informed about the role L1 can play in supporting and or hindering learner development is of vital importance so that that both learners and teachers can make informed choices about their use/non-use of it. Plus, as a teacher, it gives me an opportunity justify my own use/non-use of learners' L1 in the classroom.

4.2 Shared L1 and multilingual contexts

A recurring theme was the distinction between multilingual and shared-L1 teaching contexts. Most respondents who mentioned this identified a potential role for the L1 in shared-L1 contexts (with provisos often given such as not to overuse it or use it as a crutch). However, in general, it was felt that use of the L1 was not relevant to

multilingual settings. This was often presented as a given; adjectives such as *not possible* [R24, R48], *inappropriate* [R63] or *illogical* [R12] were used to describe using the L1 in multilingual contexts. One trainer saw it as a form of bullying when the L1 was used in multilingual contexts.

R15: I'd discourage it in multilingual classes for fear of excluding others who don't speak the other language. It can be considered a form of bullying if a group excludes other(s) by speaking a different language from the common language of communication.

Although emerging as an important factor in relation to many trainers' beliefs and practices around L1 use in the classroom, it is interesting that most respondents do not appear to differentiate between different teaching contexts when dealing with the issue of L1 use in teaching during the CELTA course itself. It was felt that by introducing and developing monolingual skills and techniques which involve the teacher avoiding the L1, trainee-teachers could go on to teach in any context:

R57: I believe the L1 can be useful in a monolingual environment, but that if we are preparing teachers to teach in any part of the world, they should learn not to rely on it as a teaching tool.*

R54: I always say that CELTA is an international qualification and they can find themselves teaching English in a country where they won't have the same L1 with their students, so it would be helpful to practise how to manage a class using their L2. That's why during their TPs they are expected to use L2.*

4.3 Knowledge of learners' L1

The overwhelming response to the question regarding whether trainers themselves used the L1 on CELTA courses was 'No' or 'Never'. Sometimes respondents used all upper-case letters for 'NO' or added an exclamation mark 'No!' for emphasis. However, despite rarely using the L1 themselves, almost all feel that knowing the L1 of the learners could be useful when teaching; many referred to it as a valuable part of a

teacher's tool-kit. By far the most commonly mentioned reason for this by both NEST and NNEST trainers related to anticipating errors and identifying strategies for dealing with them.

R50: Without doubt. If you have a knowledge of their language, then it is a lot easier to anticipate problems they might experience when learning English and provide practical solutions for them.

Many trainers also referred to useful efficiencies in terms of quick translations and checking of vocabulary and instructions, especially for students who might be struggling. This was sometimes prefaced by 'as a last resort' or 'resorting to' the L1. Trainers also mentioned comparative analysis techniques to highlight linguistic differences for learners. Some trainers also mentioned using the L1 for rapport building and to show respect for the cultural and linguistic backgrounds of learners.

R32: It is useful, for sure. It helps anticipate problems. You will recognise false friends. You will recognise L1 interference. You will be able to translate for the class when needed, and through contrastive analysis you can explore similarities and differences between languages. There is also the issue of showing respect for learners' L1.

A distinction between the teacher and learners using the L1 in class came up several times. Several respondents allowed L1 use in lessons if for example they heard one learner translating a word for another learner. One respondent said the teacher could nod confirmation without resorting to the L1 him/herself:

R3: Yes, for example-while teaching, Students might come up with good translation or while microteaching they might use translation of TL and with the approval by nodding from a teacher they would know that they are right.*

4.4 Trainers' language learning skills

Several respondents, both NEST and NNEST, spoke about their own language learning. Perhaps here it is more useful to explore the views of respondents in terms of the

monolingual or bilingual skills of teachers rather than in terms of NEST or NNEST trainers. All NNESTs are bi/multilingual; some NESTs are. Some bi/multilingual respondents mentioned that having learnt another language themselves gave them insights into and empathy for their learners' language learning processes. Several felt that teachers did not need to be proficient themselves in a particular language in order to be able to focus on the learners' L1 in a constructive way, that linguistic knowledge of language per se was what was useful.

R79: I think knowledge of the learners' L1 is an absolutely useful skill; proficiency would be an additional plus but not necessary, in my opinion. Those of us who came to this profession from a linguistic background are well equipped [...] to unpack the mechanics of a language. This cannot but inform us positively when planning and teaching a lesson.*

A small number of respondents mentioned their own monolingualism. Of these, several hinted at this as a deficit:

R36: [not using the L1] may be because of my embarrassing lack of ability to do so.

R29: since I cannot understand it, it might be a problem with assessing how effective teaching is.

A more typical view was that knowing the learners' L1 was not essential or necessary at all:

R2: However, I have taught for over 15 years with only English in my toolkit of language and it's been fine!!

R35: a class can progress equally well with some teachers who lack L1 but compensate with further resources.

Indeed, a number of respondents, both NEST and NNEST, highlighted potential disadvantages when the teacher knows the L1 of the learners and suggested that it was in fact more advantageous if the teacher did not know the L1. For example:

R14: Sometimes teachers not knowing students' L1 can encourage real communication as students really try to use English.

R68: It can also be a hindrance as learners depend on you and don't use English as much as they could.

R3: I think it is good that the trainees are discouraged to use L1 during the course. If they are not discouraged, they might know students' native language and use their L1 while conveying meaning especially if the learners are stuck.*

The implication is conveyed that L1 use can obstruct effective learning and that monolingual techniques which involve creative 'thinking on your feet' are superior.

R9: we [...] encourage them to think on their feet from the outset about how to deal with language breakdowns and not rely too heavily on their own language.

4.5 The L1 as a language learning resource for learners

A number of respondents identified clear benefits for the learners of using their L1, seeing it as an important and natural part of the language learning process and as a resource for learners to exploit and build on. The point was made that not allowing learners to use or refer to their L1 was doing them a disservice.

R51: It is part of learners' linguistic resources, and as such can facilitate learning and communication.

R75: Students' L1s can be used effectively in classrooms to connect their L1 to English [...] connect their "background knowledge" of language (their ability to speak one or more other languages). If the teacher knows the L1 of the students and the classroom primarily comprises students with common languages, avoiding their L1 is doing them a disservice.

A very small number of trainers mentioned how the L1 could be used as a way to develop the bi/plurilingual skills of language learners.

R10: A highly valuable tool to help raise awareness of language similarity and difference. An increasingly important skill in terms of the contexts learners will be using English and their other languages in.

R24: during speaking activities, students may feel very passionate about a discussion point and be unable to express it in English - hence the human element of allowing them to express their thoughts [...].

However, a far more common theme among respondents was the strong sense that English-only classroom practices provide the most effective way to learn.

R72: in order to truly grasp meaning, monolingual teaching and learning is essential.

R56: in my experience, once you turn to L1, it's very difficult to encourage students to try and use L2 in class. Also, I'm not convinced translating everything is in fact helpful.*

R47: If TP students are multilingual then [using the L1] really is a 'no' but in a monolingual setting, it could be acceptable to slip in the occasional L1 translation of an obscure item of vocabulary.

It is interesting that the views on the role played by the L1 in language learning do not tend to correlate strongly with the bilingual skills and language learning success of the respondents. For example, this monolingual trainer had strong views on the best way to learn a language:

R72: If you are bilingual you understand the difference in connotations but otherwise translation will always lose some meaning, therefore I don't encourage the use of L1 at any point.

Similar views were shared by bilingual trainers:

R76: I don't use L1 in my classroom. My students are happy because they start "thinking in English".*

R62 [bilingual English and Hindi]: It is more useful to teach English in English.

Other respondents, both bilingual and monolingual trainers, had very different views on the language learning process.

R73: When learning, our brain compares a foreign language to mother tongue, it is a fact. So we should ask Students to compare/contrast L1 and English. Teachers can use L1 in class as it sometimes aids learning.*

R55[B1 highest level for another language]: It's an essential and natural part of a language learning process that learners use anyway and so should be encouraged as a tool on the CELTA where appropriate. Avoiding L1 is a throwback to when native English speakers could barely speak or learn foreign languages.

R36[B1 highest level for another language]: I think it is natural that English language

learning passes through the filter of L1. As an English teacher, I try to encourage the use of English in lessons but, at the same time, recall needing to translate when I was trying to learn another language.

Similarly, no firm correlation emerged between bilingual trainers and their views in relation to the use of the L1 on the CELTA, although bilingual NEST trainers tended to be more tolerant and encouraging of this than either monolingual NESTs or NNESTs. It is also interesting to note that some of those who expressed the view that the L1 played a role in language learning were often the same respondents who discouraged or strongly discouraged the use of the L1 on CELTA courses. For a small number, there appeared to be a degree of tension between their beliefs about the language learning process and the approach to the L1 taken on the CELTA courses they taught on. This was true of both NEST and NNEST trainers, but appeared to be the case more often with NNEST trainers.

For example, the following NNEST respondents chose *Discouraged* or *Strongly discouraged L1 use* in the questionnaire:

R8: L1 has a role to play in English teaching: it has been shown to help both with the cognitive and emotional developments of the learners.*

R74: It plays its role anyway, even if teachers prohibit students to use it. Human brain makes automatic comparisons anyway.*

R64: I used to believe that it is better to keep your classroom an 'English only zone', but I have been re-evaluating this view over the last few years based on my observation of what actually happens in the classroom when it is an 'English only zone'.*

This tension was rarely articulated. However, one NNEST trainer explained that when he had first trained as an EFL teacher, he had aligned his teaching and later his training to what he considered to be the CELTA way, but was coming to the belief that this was not necessarily in tune with his own beliefs and language learning experiences:

R79: I will shamelessly admit that when I learned English [...], we used to learn it in conjunction to Greek - very Grammar translation, I know. However, coming from a*

grammar heavy language (and a learning background where grammar is taught in a very explicit and rule-based manner), this really helped me understand the language in depth. So, when I trained up as a CELTA tutor, of course (!), I started training teachers against grammar translation methods. I tried to make them focus on the learners' communicative skills in a manner that really ignored any of the merits of the methods used by my own teachers when I was a learner. However, as I get more experienced and confident as a trainer, I have started re-examining the role of L1 in the classroom and I now encourage my trainees to use it.

This is the voice of the only NNEST who answered *Encouraged L1 use in teaching* on the questionnaire.

In response to the question on whether knowledge of and proficiency in the learners' L1 was useful in English language teaching (Q.17), another NNEST trainer, who had answered *Strongly Discouraged L1 use* in the questionnaire, responded:

R60: I had never thought of that. However, knowing L1 always helps.*

Responses such as these suggest that the bilingual skills and experiences of many trainers are being under-valued and under-utilized on CELTA courses and in ELT more generally, not least by bilingual and NNEST trainers themselves, and point all the more to the need for further reflection on the issue and the development of guidelines for trainers to base their practice on.

5. DISCUSSION

The study identified four important findings. These should be considered both in light of the limitations of the online questionnaire format as a research instrument, which does not allow for further clarification or exploration of responses, and in light of the self-reported nature of the data.

Firstly, findings point clearly to a continuing monolingual orientation on the CELTA course. Although there are signs of changing attitudes among a small number of

CELTA trainers and in the CELTA syllabus (2018) itself, research which has focused on the linguistic practices of bilinguals (e.g. Hornberger and Link, 2012; Shin, 2018) and the development of multi-competence in learners (e.g. Canagarajah, 2014; Cook, 2016a) does not appear to have made strong inroads into the CELTA course in any real way. The use of the L1 continues to be discouraged and the dominance of traditional monolingual practices persists. When addressed, the focus remains on techniques to avoid using the L1.

A second finding relates to the way the use of the L1 is addressed on CELTA courses. On some courses, the English-only policy is made explicit to trainees. However, on many courses, the issue is not explicitly raised at all, although trainee-teachers clearly understand that L1 use is discouraged. In general, the issue of L1 use does not arise frequently on courses and is often handled in a rather ad hoc fashion, usually in response to a question or during Teaching-Practice-feedback. A designated slot to consider the issue of L1 use in teaching is rarely provided. The need expressed by some trainers to develop clear guidelines around using the L1 in certain circumstances while at the same time ensuring that the practice of and exposure to English remains a key goal and emphasis of their teaching aligns with the findings of Macaro (2014) and Lee and Lo (2017).

Similarly to the findings of Gallagher (2020), many CELTA trainers in this study feel L1 use may sometimes be justified and even beneficial in shared-L1 teaching contexts, but generally see it as irrelevant to multilingual contexts. Despite this distinction, adapting L1 classroom practices to different contexts does not appear to be addressed on the CELTA course itself. As found by Hobbs (2013) and King (2016), most trainers see the CELTA as a basic training skill, a one-size-fits-all toolkit. Therefore, because using the L1 is seen as inappropriate in multilingual teaching contexts, most trainers believe it

is best to focus on monolingual teaching and learning practices only during the course. Contrary to the conclusions of scholars such as García and Li (2014) and Wang (2019) who identified ways in which the L1 can be exploited in multilingual teaching settings, most trainers who participated in this study do not question the assumption that the use of the L1 is not applicable to these contexts.

Finally, the bi/multilingual skills and background of trainers seems to be an untapped resource in TESOL training and remains largely unexplored within the CELTA community. Although trainers identify certain benefits to knowing the L1 of the learners, particularly in relation to predicting errors and difficulties for learners, in general they rarely use the L1 of learners or trainees themselves on the CELTA course or in their teaching. The fact that many trainers are monolingual and therefore unable to use the learners' L1 or tap into their own multilingual skills as a teaching resource was rarely mentioned and does not appear to be something which is explored much within the CELTA community. Indeed, similarly to what was found by Hall and Cook (2012) and Kiczowski et al. (2016), the strong discouragement of L1 use as a tenet of language teaching appears to be more pronounced among the bi/multilingual NNEST trainers. At times there seems to be a, perhaps unconscious, tension between what a number of trainers believe about the role of the L1 in language learning and the monolingual focus of the CELTA course. Again, this appears to be particularly but not exclusively the case for NNEST trainers, a number of whom articulated ways in which the L1 plays a part in second language acquisition while at the same time strongly recommending monolingual approaches as best practice. However, overall a strong correlation between trainers' beliefs in relation to the role of the L1 in successful second language acquisition and their own language learning experiences was not found in this

study. There are many reasons why this may be the case and is an interesting area for further research.

6. IMPLICATIONS FOR CELTA AND TESOL

These findings point to a number of considerations which have implications for TESOL and for the CELTA in particular.

Firstly, given the challenges to the monolingual principle in SLA research (Freeman, 2020; Ortega, 2018), it appears clear wider discussion must now take place within the CELTA community in relation to the goals and processes of language learning and the nature of emerging bilingualism and multi-competence in the intensified globalisation of the modern world. This calls for awareness raising and exploration of long-held assumptions around monolingual practices and L1 use in the classroom. In particular, beliefs around the inappropriateness of L1 use in multilingual teaching contexts could be re-examined, especially in light of the assessment by several scholars (e.g. Anderson, 2018; Shin, 2018) that the emerging bilingual skills of learners can be exploited and built on in multilingual as well as in shared-L1 settings.

This reflection within the CELTA community could also include a stronger focus on the added-value which bilingual trainers and teachers, especially NNESTs, can bring to the ELT profession and pose the question as to why NNEST trainers might discourage the use of the L1 on the CELTA more than NEST trainers. Discussion around developing the bi/multilingual skills of learners, skills which many ELT practitioners do not themselves have, could be used to consider the relative skillsets of NNEST, bilingual and monolingual educators and to address the underlying tension which sometimes

exists between what some bilingual trainers, particularly NNESTs, believe about the role of the L1 in their own language learning experiences and the monolingual focus of the CELTA course. As suggested by Ilieva and Ravindran (2018) and Scott (2016), the language-teacher-identity and multi-competence of NNESTs needs to be considered more in teacher development programmes.

Secondly, in terms of the CELTA course itself, it is perhaps time to find space on the course to address L1 use in language teaching in a more considered and explicit way. There is a clear need to develop a theoretical framework and find consensus around a set of criteria for use on CELTA programmes which will allow both trainers and trainee-teachers to make informed and considered pedagogic decisions about L1 use in their professional practices, without compromising beliefs in relation to communicative and task-based approaches to language teaching and learning. As suggested by Anderson (2020) and Mackensie (2019), a focus on adapting to different teaching contexts could be used as a way to promote critical reflective practices on the part of trainee-teachers. Focus on the use of the L1 in different contexts is one such way this could be done.

Finally, there are implications for the development of techniques and resources designed to exploit and enhance the bi/multilingual skills of learners. Respondents with positive views towards the use of the L1 in teaching who participated in this study articulated ways in which this could be demonstrated on CELTA programmes, even in multilingual contexts and in cases where the teacher is monolingual. Suggestions for classroom practice provided by scholars such as Cenoz and Gorter (2013) and García et al. (2017) can be built on to provide resources for teachers and learners to draw from which exploit the L1 and emerging multi-competence of learners and which utilise the English language classroom as a bi/multilingual space. Such harnessing of the emerging

bilingual skills of language learners in the classroom is surely a future direction for materials designers and writers in this field. At present, there is a strong monolingual focus to much of the commercially published ELT materials (Ellis and Shintani, 2014; Leung, 2014). However, the ELT profession has an excellent track record in terms of creative and innovative materials and approaches for language learning and teaching and the CELTA community is very well placed to bring practitioners and particularly publishing houses which specialise in ELT on board.

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Appendix One: Questionnaire

1. How long have you worked as a CELTA trainer?

Less than 1 year

Between 1 and 2 years

Between 2 and 5 years

Between 5 and 10 years

More than 10 years

2. Have you worked as a CELTA trainer in places where teaching practice occurs in 'multilingual' contexts in which learners do not generally share a common language other than English (e.g. in English speaking areas)?

YES - please answer question 3

NO - go straight to question 4

3. For how long?

Less than a year

Between 1 and 2 years

Between 2 and 5 years

Between 5 and 10 years

More than 10 years

4. Have you worked as a CELTA trainer in places where teaching practice occurs in contexts in which learners generally share a common language other than English (e.g. in non-English speaking areas)?

YES - please answer question 5

NO - go straight to question 6

5. How long for?

Less than a year

Between 1 and 2 years

Between 2 and 5 years

Between 5 and 10 years

More than 10 years

6. Have you taught English in contexts where language learners share a common language other than English?

YES - please answer question 7

NO - go straight to question 8

7. How long for?

Less than a year

Between 1 and 2 years

Between 2 and 5 years

Between 5 and 10 years

More than 10 years

8. Have you taught English in multilingual contexts in primarily English-speaking areas?

YES - please answer question 9

NO - go straight to question 10

9. How long for?

Less than a year

Between 1 and 2 years

Between 2 and 5 years

Between 5 and 10 years

More than 10 years

10. Is English your L1?

YES - please go straight to question 12

NO - please answer question 11

11. What is your L1 (if you were raised with more than one language, please list them both/all)?

Your answer

12. Please list all the languages you speak and at what level (A1 - C2)

Your answer

13. On the CELTA course(s) on which you teach, to what extent are the trainee teachers encouraged to use / discouraged from using the language learners' L1 in language teaching? Please tick your preferred answer.

Strongly discouraged ____

Discouraged ____

Tolerated ____

Encouraged ____

Strongly encouraged _____

For the final four questions, please give more detailed answers if possible.

14. With reference to Question 13, please give details and examples of how this is conveyed to trainee teachers e.g. during sessions, feedback, tutorials, etc.

Your answer

15. On the CELTA course/s on which you teach, are there times when you use a language other than English with the trainee teachers? e.g. during sessions, feedback, tutorials, etc. If so, please give details and examples

Your answer

16. What are your views on the role of the L1 (if any) in English language teaching and learning? Please explain and elaborate below.

Your answer

17. In your opinion, is knowledge of and proficiency in the learners' L1 useful in English language teaching? Please elaborate on your views below.

Your answer

Appendix Two: Map of thematic codes and sub-codes

CODE A: Cognitive and emotional development of the learner	CODE F: NEST or NNEST
• age and level etc.	• advantage; disadvantage
• context	○ at a disadvantage
• disadvantages	○ at an advantage
• judicious use	○ multilingual skills
• useful teaching tool	○ proficiency of NNESTs
○ anticipating problems	• feelings of NNESTs
○ comparative purposes	• monolingual orientation
○ efficiency, checking, instructions etc.	• NESTs using the L1 for rapport etc.
○ insight into learner	CODE G: Teacher knowledge of L1
○ positive using it in class	• benefits
➤ emotional etc. support	• context
➤ highlighting language	• how much knowledge
➤ Ls using it	• Inclusion Exclusion
➤ translation	• knowing and using L1 distinction
○ useful in toolkit	○ not used by teacher
CODE B: context - multilingual or shared L1	○ used by teacher
• multilingual context	• language learning experience
• shared L1 context	• not essential
• varied contexts	• slippery slope etc.
CODE C: explicit focus	CODE H: used on CELTA
• explicit focus	• misc.
○ feedback	• support for trainees

○ foreign language lesson	○ acknowledgement of L1
○ future careers	○ individual communication
○ L1 not allowed	○ language awareness
○ reflection on awareness raising	○ techniques
○ telling trainees	• trainees
• implicit	○ illicit; guilt
CODE D: misc.	○ multilingual or shared L1
• CELTA course	○ not allowed or allowed
• Changing trends in EFL	○ slippery slope
CODE E: multilingual competence; bilingual skills	• used by trainer
• changing world	○ Yes
• introduce onto CELTA	CODE I: views of trainees
• language learning experience	CODE J: views of trainers
	• experience - lack of experience
	• more recently trained
	• own language learning experiences
	• perception of role in fostering an English environment
	• views of NESTs or NNESTs
	• zealous - gatekeepers

Chapter Six: Conclusions and implications

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the research findings and explores their implications for language teaching, particularly EFL. The chapter is divided into five parts. First, the research aims, themes and findings of each publication are briefly summarised. Next, a number of important limitations to the research are outlined. This is followed by a focus on the overarching objectives of the research as a whole, and how the three publications together address these. The implications of these findings for EFL teaching and learning and for language teacher education are explored in the next section. Finally, consideration is given to the contribution of this research to the body of literature on the monolingual turn and language teacher cognition in EFL contexts as well as to potential areas for future research and study.

6.2 Overview of the three publications

This PhD project involved an exploration of the multilingual turn (Conteh and Meier, 2014; May, 2014) in ELT with a central focus on the attitudes and beliefs around mono- and bi/multilingual practices in EFL contexts. Together, the three publications investigated the use of the students' L1 in EFL teaching contexts from a number of perspectives: firstly, from a CLIL classroom perspective where a particular bilingual instructional technique was introduced to the students; secondly, from a teaching perspective where the attitudes, beliefs and practices of EFL teachers were examined; and, thirdly, from a teacher education perspective, where attention was focused on the beliefs and practices of teacher educators working on the CELTA programme. The table below provides an overview of the three publications, highlighting the focus, themes, and findings of each study.

Table 6: Overview of findings of Publications One, Two and Three

	Publication one	Publication two	Publication three
Purpose	To explore the effectiveness (or otherwise) of using the emerging bilingual skills of the students as a teaching and learning tool in a Geography through English CLIL classroom	To explore the views and practices of EFL teachers in relation to codeswitching and the use of the L1 in the classroom and the extent to which their particular teaching context plays a role in this	To explore the views of CELTA trainers in relation to the use of the L1 in English language teaching and how this issue is addressed on the teacher training courses they worked on
Research Questions	Is the use of codeswitching/translanguaging between the native language and the language of instruction during content-related tasks a useful technique for drawing students' attention to particular linguistic features of the CLIL vehicular language?	<p>1. To what extent and in what ways do EFL teachers use or allow the learners to use their L1 in their classes?</p> <p>2. What are the attitudes and beliefs of EFL teachers regarding the use of the L1 and the emerging bi-/multilingual skills of learners in the language classroom?</p> <p>3. To what extent and in what ways do these practices and beliefs vary depending on whether the teaching takes place in shared-L1 or multilingual contexts?</p>	<p>1. To what extent and in what ways is the use of the language learners' L1 addressed on CELTA training courses?</p> <p>2. What are the views of CELTA trainers towards the use of the L1 in English language teaching?</p> <p>3. To what extent and in what ways are the views of trainers for whom English is an L1 different to those for whom English is an L2?</p>
Sample population	58 students (aged 14 to 15 years) of mixed ability and mixed gender in a bilingual (CLIL) Geography through English stream in a secondary school in Italy	24 teachers who teach or have taught English in both (1) multilingual contexts in which the learners typically do not share a common L1 and (2) contexts in which the learners typically share an L1 other than English	77 CELTA trainers who use English either as an L1 or as an L2

Themes identified in the data	<p>Student reactions to the translation task</p> <p>What students noticed about the language</p> <p>Words they didn't know in the L1</p>	<p>The nature of the teaching and learning space in each context</p> <p>Looking at the teaching environment through a bilingual lens</p> <p>The role of the particular context in their overall approach and practices</p>	<p>How L1 use is addressed on the CELT</p> <p>Shared L1 and multilingual contexts</p> <p>Knowledge of learners' L1</p> <p>Trainers' language learning skills</p> <p>The L1 as a language learning resource for learners</p>
Main findings	<p>*Benefits of planned bilingual instructional techniques as a means of both drawing students' attention to particular linguistic forms and of developing an enriched bilingual vocabulary.</p> <p>*Mainly positive reaction of students towards using bilingual instructional techniques in class</p>	<p>*Largely flexible, fluid and mixed views of EFL teachers</p> <p>*Context an important factor</p> <p>*Need for a more explicit focus on this area in teacher development and training.</p> <p>*Benefits of taking a bilingual stance to critically examine teachers' practices and beliefs in relation to L1 use in teaching</p>	<p>*Predominantly monolingual orientation of CELTA</p> <p>*Underlying tension between beliefs and approach taken on CELTA for some trainers</p> <p>*Bi/multilingual skills of teachers a largely unexplored resource in EFL</p> <p>*Need for a more explicit and considered focus on this issue on the CELTA course</p> <p>*Need for wider discussion within the CELTA community on issues raised</p>

6.3 Limitations of the analysis

Taking the three publications together, a number of overall findings can be identified. Before discussing these, it is important to consider the limitations of the studies. In addition to the subjective character of qualitative research and the relatively small-scale nature of the three studies, there are several other significant limitations to the research as a whole. The first relates to the intrinsic difficulty of attempting to access and/or measure the ‘inner lives’ of participants. This limitation is commonly associated with research which explores language teacher cognition in general and teachers’ beliefs in particular (Borg, 2018; Kubanyiova and Feryok, 2015). The conscious and stated views of the teachers and teacher educators in relation to their attitudes and beliefs about the use of the L1 in their professional lives were the focus of Publications Two and Three. Triangulation techniques, where the topic is approached from different perspectives using different data collection methods, were used, partly to offset this limitation to research on teachers’ beliefs and cognitions as recommended by Song (2015). However, although attempts were made to ‘go beneath the surface’ to try to elicit their ‘enacted’ beliefs and to distinguish between their ‘core’ and ‘peripheral’ beliefs (Phipps and Borg, 2009; Zhu and Shu, 2017), these beliefs are not directly observable and may not be consciously held by the participants themselves. Similarly, data relating to the practices of the participants relied on their self-reported accounts; classroom observations did not take place. It is possible that the surveys and interviews did not always fully or accurately capture the day-to-day pedagogic behaviours of the respondents. Finally, the voice of the teacher is at the forefront of this research. While Publication One also examined students’ reactions to a particular bilingual instructional task, it did not focus on their overall views on and experiences of using their L1 as a language learning tool. Such an additional focus was beyond the scope of this PhD, but would have further strengthened the conclusions drawn and should be an important element of future research in this area. The findings discussed below should be considered with these limitations in mind.

6.4. Overall objectives of the research

The project addressed four overarching research objectives:

[1] to explore the attitudes, beliefs and cognitions of educators in EFL towards using the L1 of the learners in language teaching;

[2] to identify the extent to which EFL practitioners view their students as (emerging) bilinguals and the classroom as a bilingual space;

[3] to consider the role of the teaching context in pedagogic decisions around using the L1 in the classroom; and

[4] to examine the potential role of bilingual instructional perspectives and techniques to enhance language learning.

In the following sections (6.4.1 to 6.4.4), the findings of the three publications are summarised with reference to these overarching research objectives.

6.4.1 Overall findings in relation to Objective one: To explore the attitudes, beliefs and cognitions of educators in EFL towards using the L1 of the learners in language teaching

The attitudes and beliefs of teachers and teacher educators were explored in Publications Two and Three. Findings suggest that EFL educators hold a variety of complex views on the role of the L1 in language teaching. Although in general teachers believe in ‘the monolingual principle’ and see their primary role as being to maximise both exposure to and opportunities to practise the target language in a meaningful way, they nevertheless hold largely fluid and flexible views in relation to the use of the L1 in the classroom, rarely adhering to a rigid ‘virtual’ position (Macaro, 2009; 2014).

Indeed, there was evidence of mixed, conflicting and often contradictory views among many of the participants in both studies. For example, stated beliefs about the best way to learn a foreign language were sometimes in conflict with beliefs influenced by their own language learning experiences; beliefs around efficient and effective classroom management strategies were sometimes at variance with beliefs around the exclusive use of English in class. This aligns with many studies (e.g. Oranje & Smith, 2018;

Burns, Freeman and Edwards, 2015; Borg and Alshumaimeri, 2019) on the nature of the belief systems and cognitions of teachers which hold that tensions often exist between core and peripheral beliefs and between stated and enacted beliefs on the part of teachers. What seems clear, however, is that teachers and teacher educators are unused to examining their views and beliefs in relation to the use of the L1 in their professional practices. Reflection on the role of the L1 as a teaching and learning tool does not appear to occur in a considered way in teacher development and education programmes, even among teacher educators themselves. This means that teachers tend to base their pedagogic decision-making in relation to this on commonly held and unquestioned assumptions about the ‘monolingual principle’ as best practice alongside what seems instinctive and natural to them in the classroom. Their practices are often accompanied by feelings of guilt, unease and unprofessionalism. Several respondents identified a need for pedagogic guidelines and criteria for best practice in relation to the use of the L1 in teaching and learning so that their beliefs and practices might be informed by theoretical knowledge. It seems clear that space for considered reflection on this area is rarely provided on teacher education programmes such as the CELTA course, where ‘English-only’ practices continue to be promoted, but without an explicit focus on this issue during the course.

6.4.2 Overall findings in relation to objective two: To identify the extent to which EFL practitioners view their students as (emerging) bilinguals and the classroom as a bilingual space

Themes relating to bi/multilingualism were identified in all three publications to varying degrees. In Publication Two, interviewees were directly asked to what extent they viewed learners as emerging bilinguals and the language classroom as a bilingual space. Their responses strongly imply that most teachers are unused to looking at their professional practices and their students in these terms. Many of the respondents were surprised by the question itself, although they often seemed very open to the idea once it had been raised. In addition, the teacher educators in Publication Three were, for the most part, also unaccustomed to considering the ‘added value’ which bilingual teachers might bring to the classroom, in fact often viewing knowledge of the learners’ L1 as a distinct disadvantage. This was true of both bilingual (NEST and NNEST) and

monolingual trainers and undoubtedly reflects the native-speakerism prevalent in EFL and TESOL generally. Many participants identified providing a good model of the target language as a key element of their role, but few referred to providing a model of the successful bilingual in the same terms.

Only a small number of practitioners appeared to regard the goals of EFL teaching as going beyond the development of communicative competence in the target language in a way that would support and enhance the bi/multi/plurilingual repertoires and translingual competences of the students. At the same time, many respondents in both studies described difficulties and frustrations around maintaining an ‘English-only’ environment in the classroom, particularly in shared-L1 contexts. They tended to see switching between languages by learners as a failure on their part and did not seem to consider this as ‘what bilinguals do’ and, therefore, the normal practice of emerging bilinguals. Moreover, the idea that classroom activities which, for example, focus on the ability to codeswitch, translate and interpret could underpin important ‘real-life’ communication skills and potential employment prospects for successful learners in the increasingly globalised and multilingual world was rarely referred to. Of interest in this regard are the positive reactions of the Italian teenagers to the ‘twisted’ dictation used in Publication One, several of whom referred to enjoying the real-world skill of interpreting in their feedback sheets. These responses suggest that the dual-language technique used in that study enhanced their sense of themselves as developing bilinguals.

6.4.3 Overall findings in relation to objective three: To consider the role of the teaching context in pedagogic decisions around using the L1 in the classroom

Context proved to be an extremely important factor for teachers in their decision-making around the use of the L1 in the classroom. Two important distinctions exist within the general context of TEFL: whether the teaching takes place in shared-L1 or in multilingual contexts. The former usually occurs in non-English speaking regions, where students share a common language other than English, usually, but not necessarily, the L1 of the students. This context also includes CLIL settings, where students learn a school subject through English. Multilingual EFL contexts usually

occur in English-speaking countries, which students visit for the purpose of learning English. Students in these classrooms come from a range of different linguistic and cultural backgrounds so that English tends to be the only shared language. A key theme of Publication Two related to intrinsic differences in the nature of these two contexts, particularly in terms of the ‘buzz’ of the multicultural setting and the motivation levels and role of English as a means of communication in each.

Almost all respondents in Publications Two and Three were much more tolerant towards codeswitching behaviours in shared-L1 contexts than in multilingual ones. Many identified clear benefits to referring to and using the students’ L1, such as rapport building, contrastive analysis exercises and explanations of difficult lexis or grammar, which they felt were appropriate in shared-L1 but not applicable to multilingual contexts. Many respondents expressed surprise at their own behaviour around this, realising that these practices did not fully correlate with their stated beliefs around optimum conditions for language learning and around maximising opportunities for learners to encounter and practise the target language. Other factors seemed to come into play here such as dislike of being the ‘L1 policeman’ and the urge to provide support for students who were struggling. They also tended to view L1 use among the students themselves in shared-L1 contexts as inevitable and natural (although rarely from the perspective of normal bilingual behaviour). Core beliefs around inclusive practices in the classroom and ‘good manners’ (where it is considered rude and impolite to use a language which some students might not understand) reinforced practices around L1 use in multilingual contexts, especially when the teacher herself might be familiar with the L1 of some students but not others. Many respondents felt that the use of the L1 in such situations was completely inappropriate. However, a small number of teachers felt that there was a place for the L1 even in multilingual settings. Some spoke of the enhanced translingual and communicative skills involved in meaning-making and engaging with others in multilingual contexts; others spoke about highlighting features of language ‘per se’ and comparing practices across a range of languages (without focusing on a particular language other than English).

Despite the very different teaching contexts within EFL, teacher education in TESOL tends to take a one-size-fits-all approach to the use of the L1 in teaching and learning. The CELTA course does not generally distinguish among the diverse experiences for both teachers and learners associated with different EFL contexts. Although several

trainers were alive to these distinctions, they tended to consider methods and approaches in which the teacher was unfamiliar with the students' L1 as the 'default' position, which could then be applied to all EFL contexts. In this setting, using the L1 as a teaching and learning tool was generally considered to be unsuitable and impractical.

6.4.4 Overall findings in relation to objective four: To examine the potential role of bilingual instructional perspectives and techniques to enhance language learning

The three publications identified a number of strategies and techniques where the L1 could be utilized to support learning, particularly in shared-L1 EFL contexts. Publication One introduced students to a dual language 'twisted' dictation activity, which was designed to highlight the word order of adverbial phrases in English in a meaningful and targeted way. Findings suggest such bilingual activities could prove extremely useful as a way to help students 'notice' particular linguistic forms in English and deepen their bilingual repertoires. Although used in a shared-L1 CLIL setting for Publication One, such an activity could just as easily be used in other non-CLIL EFL contexts, including multilingual contexts. The 'noticing' on the part of students happened as they translated sentences into their L1; there is no particular need for the teacher to 'check' these translations or refer explicitly to the learners' L1 in follow-on stages or activities. In addition, a number of participants in Publications Two and Three identified different ways that the students' L1 could be exploited to enhance learning in shared-L1 and, to a lesser extent, in multilingual contexts. These include: organising small groups according to their L1 for certain activities; highlighting similarities and differences between the L1 and English; allowing students to discuss difficult lexis in their L1; translation exercises; using their L1(s) to demonstrate respect for the language and culture of the students; and as a way of establishing rapport with learners and an environment conducive to learning through jokes and banter in their L1.

In general, when teachers described their classroom practices in relation to L1 use in Publications Two and Three, the activities they identified were often unplanned and ad hoc in nature. Respondents spoke frequently about quick explanations, checking instructions, allowing one student to translate for another, helping when a student was

‘stuck’. They described planned and pre-prepared strategies and activities which utilised the L1 much less frequently. This is interesting in light of Basturkman’s (2012) finding that the stated beliefs of teachers are more likely to correspond to planned classroom activities. Given the unchallenged assumption held by many EFL educators that exclusive use of the target language leads to a superior form of learning and the feelings of guilt and unprofessionalism which often accompany using the L1 in class, it is perhaps unsurprising that teachers do not tend to build such practices into their lesson planning, even though they might simultaneously hold other beliefs which recognise the benefits for learners of exploiting their L1 and tapping into their bilingual resources as a teaching and learning tool. In some cases, these beliefs have been influenced by the participants’ own language learning experiences. A number of educators expressed the view that their L1 had been a useful frame of reference and resource while learning another language; however, not all the respondents identified this as important or useful, perhaps reflecting the different learning styles and preferences of students in general.

Participants who expressed positive views towards the use of the L1 in language teaching and learning did not see this in opposition to or as undermining communicative, meaning-focused and task-based approaches to language teaching and learning. Likewise, the ‘twisted’ dictation activity used in Publication One was envisaged as a pedagogic tool to be used in a targeted and systematic way to support learning within an approach which embraces extensive exposure to and meaningful practice in the target language.

6.5 Implications for EFL contexts

These findings have important implications for TESOL and EFL in particular which have been highlighted in the three publications. These include the need for wider discussion and reflection around the challenges posed by the multilingual turn to some of the central tenets of EFL teaching and learning; the development of clearer guidelines and consensus around the use of the L1 as a teaching and learning tool in the EFL classroom; greater focus on different language teaching contexts in teacher education programmes such as the CELTA course; and the need to develop pedagogies and materials which support the emerging bilingual practices of students.

Leung and Valdés (2019) note that the term ‘translanguaging’ does not appear to have a strong presence in the ELT literature. Monolingual approaches are clearly very deeply embedded in the beliefs and practices of EFL practitioners and strong resistance to the profound paradigm shift associated with change in this area is inevitable. However, although concepts such as ‘translanguaging’ (García, 2009) and ‘translingual practices’ (Canagarajah, 2014) have developed and gained traction in a relatively short space of time among researchers, the resulting debates about the nature of language(s), the nature of monolingual and bilingual language use and the appropriate goals of foreign language teaching do not appear to have penetrated far into the EFL community. Here, it seems clear that reflection and consideration of issues around the multilingual turn in language teaching have not yet taken hold. My findings suggest that, for the most part, practitioners on the ground have not begun to consider their professional practices in these terms. It is not only that they are sceptical of these developments in applied linguistics and SLA, as suggested by Ortega (2019), but that they are to a large extent unaware of them. Opening up the EFL and CELTA communities to wider debates on these issues seems an important first step in any move away from the monolingual orientation, the focus on elite bilingualism and the native-speakerism which remains prevalent in TESOL (Cook, 2016b; Anderson, 2018; Cenoz and Gorter, 2020; Freeman, 2020).

Many scholars have pointed to the link between language teacher cognition and curricular reform (Barnard and Burns, 2012; Borg and Alshumaimeri, 2019; Sun, Wei and Young, 2020; Zhu and Shu, 2017). Discussion and focused reflection around teachers’ beliefs, attitudes and practices in relation to the use of the L1 in the classroom as well as around their identities as monolingual or bi/multilingual teachers seems a good starting point for change in this area, perhaps as part of pre- and in-service teacher education and development programmes and also in the selection of papers and panel discussions for EFL and TESOL conferences and seminars such as the IATEFL conference and the TESOL International Association convention, both of which, in my experience, tend to be extremely well attended by TESOL professionals on the ground as well as academics and researchers in the field. This chimes with a key aspiration included in the DFG position paper on SLA in a multilingual world: to “foster more collaborative forms of engagement between teachers and researchers” and to avoid the “positioning [of] SLA researchers as ‘telling’ language teachers what to do or how to

think about who, what, and how they are to teach, thereby potentially leaving out their voices, their worlds, or their work” (DFG, 2016, p. 22).

Findings also point to a clear need for a theoretical framework and consensus around a set of criteria for the use of the L1 as a teaching and learning tool in the EFL classroom, which would allow EFL professionals to make informed and considered pedagogic decisions in relation to this. In addition, wider discussion within the EFL community in relation to the benefits and practicality of bi/multilingual approaches in different EFL teaching and learning contexts is needed, focusing on multilingual as well as on shared-L1 contexts and on contexts where the teacher is familiar with the L1(s) of the students as well as on contexts where s/he is not. The added-value in relation to the insights and translingual skills which bi/multilingual EFL teachers, especially NNESTs, could bring to the EFL classroom is another important area to be explored.

In order to facilitate a paradigm shift away from predominantly monolingual approaches in EFL, it will undoubtedly be important to find ways for teachers to embrace a bilingual stance in their classrooms without compromising their deeply held beliefs about the value of communicative and task-based approaches to language teaching and the need to maximise opportunities for learners to encounter authentic language in use and to practise the target language. In this regard, Cenoz and Gorter’s (2017) distinction between ‘spontaneous’ and ‘pedagogic’ translanguaging may be particularly useful. They suggest ways in which pedagogic translanguaging could be used for a variety of classroom activities and behaviours, which would exploit the L1 of the learners and promote the complex linguistic practices of bi/multilingual speakers while, at the same time, recognising the distinct features of foreign language teaching, where the main focus is on the development of a particular ‘separate’ language. Such an approach might help address some of the tensions experienced by many foreign language teachers in relation to the destabilisation of what had previously been regarded as the self-evident goals of foreign language teaching (Kramsch, 2014; Kramsch and Yin, 2018). Although conceived as a way to support vulnerable languages such as Basque, the idea of “breathing spaces” for language(s) within a translanguaging approach posited by Cenoz and Gorter (2017, p. 909) could be adapted to other foreign language contexts as a way to provide monolingual practice in the target language at particular times. Ortega (2019) posits that although translanguaging pedagogies may not have all the answers in relation to foreign language teaching in the increasingly

globalised and multilingual spaces of the modern world, serious consideration needs to be given to such approaches. She advocates for “giving translanguaging a chance” (Ortega, 2019, p. 31).

An important element of a move towards bi/multilingual approaches in foreign language teaching relates to the need for guidance and support for EFL teachers in adapting to new pedagogies which promote learners’ multicompetence and multilingual communicative repertoires (Freeman, 2020; Meier, 2017; Vallejo & Dooly, 2020). Several studies have investigated the use of translanguaging pedagogies in multilingual school contexts in which students from a migration background access the curriculum through a second language. However, there is a need to explore ways in which the multilingual turn in SLA can be transformed into pedagogic practices for foreign language teachers in particular. The need for a range of resources, materials and techniques which would support teachers in taking a bilingual stance in their classrooms has been identified (Anderson, 2018; Cook, 2016b; Leung and Valdés, 2019). The ‘twisted’ dictation used in Publication One provides an example of one such technique. Other dual-language and multilingual instructional techniques, activities and strategies, designed to highlight particular linguistic features of language(s) or to practise using the emerging bilingual skills and competences of students (e.g. interpreting; contrastive analysis of language(s); writing subtitles), could be included in EFL course books, teacher handbooks and in professional development workshops. This would not only give teachers “absolution” for using the L1 in class as advocated by Cook (2001, p. 410) but also help to identify ways in which such resources could be used in a planned and systematic way to support language learning in EFL contexts. In addition, such an approach would encourage and endorse the normal codeswitching and translanguaging practices of “grassroots” bi/multilinguals (Ortega, 2019, p. 27) and counter the monolingual ideologies and native-speakerism prevalent in TESOL.

6.6 Concluding remarks and future directions

The three publications underpinning this PhD project explored attitudes towards using the students’ L1 in various English language teaching contexts. The findings described above point to the continued dominance of the monolingual principle among ELT

professionals and the need to re-visit some of the taken-for-granted assumptions about best practice in relation to this in language teaching. They also demonstrate the flexible and often inconsistent positions taken by EFL practitioners in relation to L1 use in language teaching, the influence of the particular teaching context on pedagogic practices, and the value of exploiting the bi/multilingual skills of both teachers and students to facilitate learning.

Cumulatively, the publications add to the body of literature on the multilingual turn in SLA and it is hoped will contribute to future debates on language teacher education and foreign language teaching pedagogy. Specifically, Publication One demonstrates how bilingual instructional practices can be used to enhance foreign language learning in a planned, systematic and targeted way; concrete examples of how this might be done in EFL teaching contexts continue to be rare. Publications Two and Three both explore the use of the L1 in shared-L1 and in multilingual contexts. This distinction between two major EFL contexts has not been a strong focus of either teacher education programmes or of research in the field of ELT; the research presented in this dissertation demonstrates that comparing and contrasting bi/multilingual practices and stances in these different contexts provides fertile ground for the exploration of multilingual pedagogies. Furthermore, the findings presented in this dissertation provide insights into the beliefs and practices of EFL professionals in relation to the use of the L1 as a teaching and learning tool and to their conceptualisations of students as emerging bilinguals. Exploring such cognitions is an important element of teacher development and education. Of particular importance in this respect is the focus provided by Publication Three on the voices of teacher educators themselves. As Johnson and Golombek (2020) have pointed out, very little research has been carried out on the cognitions of language teacher educators, who undoubtedly have an important role to play in facilitating reflection on the part of teachers and in enacting change in professional practices. Exploring the cognitions, beliefs and practices of EFL professionals, including those of language teacher educators, in relation to the use of the L1 in teaching and learning could be an important first step in a move towards a more multilingual approach to EFL.

Further research on the “rich linguistic histories” (de Costa and Norton, 2017, p. 11) and language teaching identities of bi/multilingual teachers, particularly NNESTs, and on

the views and experiences of (emerging) bilingual learners in relation to translanguaging practices in the classroom are important next steps. The potential for constructive bi/multilingual practices exploited in one teaching context to inform other contexts is another fruitful area of investigation. Most importantly, there is a need to further develop new language teaching pedagogies and approaches which are suited to the increasingly globalised and multilingual spaces of the modern world and which foster translingual competencies and multilingual repertoires in learners. As Leung and Valdés (2019, p. 366) explain: “[t]he notion of translanguaging is both challenging and exciting: challenging because it forces us to examine our previous perspectives on language itself, and exciting because it suggests new possibilities and outcomes for the teaching and learning of additional languages”.

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Appendix A: Publication One

Appendix A1: DCU REC approval letter

Dublin City University
Ollscoil Chathair Bhaile Átha Cliath



Ms. Fiona Gallagher
SALIS

30th March 2012

REC Reference: DCUREC/2012/061

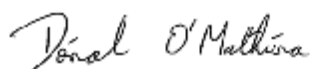
Proposal Title: Using bilingual instructional techniques in the CLIL classroom

Applicants: Ms. Fiona Gallagher

Dear Fiona

This research proposal qualifies under our Notification Procedure, as a low risk social research project. Therefore, the DCU Research Ethics Committee approves this research proposal. Materials used to recruit participants should note that ethical approval for this project has been obtained from the Dublin City University Research Ethics Committee. Should substantial modifications to the research protocol be required at a later stage, a further submission should be made to the REC.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, reading 'Donal O'Mathuna'.

Dr. Donal O'Mathuna
Chair
DCU Research Ethics Committee

Office of the Vice-President
for Research
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Appendix A2: Sample feedback sheets Group F (control group)

F 9

Feedback on the task we used today

Circle the number which most corresponds to your opinion in relation to the following statements

[1 is lowest level of agreement with the statement and 5 is highest]

You can write in the boxes if you like to say something more about each statement

1. I found this task useful

1 2 3 4 5

It helped me a lot to understand the task we had

2. I found this task difficult to do

1 2 3 4 5

Not difficult. I liked it a lot

3. I found this task helped me with the Geography part of the lesson

1 2 3 4 5

I've understood a lot

4. I found this task helped me with the English language part of the lesson

1 2 3 4 5

Some words I've already know, but it was interesting know other new words.

5. I liked doing this task

1 2 3 4 5

It was very interesting

Write about the task in the following boxes:

6. Things I liked about this task:

Everything, above all the focus on tropical rainforests, there were things that I don't know before.

I liked it very much.

7. Things I didn't like about this task:

nothing

Thank you very much for telling me your opinions about the task we used in today's lesson

When I had listened I had thinked in English without ask myself "what is it's grammar" "what does it mean?" I had thinked in English, not in italian, so I didn't thinked to the question like that. I don't have any question about that [sic]

F17

Feedback on the task we used today

Circle the number which most corresponds to your opinion in relation to the following statements

[1 is lowest level of agreement with the statement and 5 is highest]

You can write in the boxes if you like to say something more about each statement

1. I found this task useful

1 2 3 4 5

I think this task was useful because I understood many new words

2. I found this task difficult to do

1 2 3 4 5

Sometimes it was difficult to understand what words mean

3. I found this task helped me with the Geography part of the lesson

1 2 3 4 5

Since geography is a subject that used many specific words, I prefer if it is explained in Italian

4. I found this task helped me with the English language part of the lesson

1 2 3 4 5

The task helped me to learn specific vocabulary which can be useful for my future

5. I liked doing this task

1 2 3 4 5

Honestly sometimes I found it a bit boring, but also useful for my English

Write about the task in the following boxes:

6. Things I liked about this task:

I liked doing some lessons with G.

I liked learning new words

I liked writing something in English

I liked that nobody judged me

7. Things I didn't like about this task:

I didn't like that sometimes sentences are difficult to understand

I didn't like the part about how winds blow from the sea

Thank you very much for telling me your opinions about the task we used in today's lesson

It was very interesting the way that G. pronounced some words. I didn't know how some words are pronounced in English. There are words about geographical features I can explain in English, but in Italian I need much more words to explain what I'm thinking. I didn't always know the meaning of words and phrases. I needed a vocabulary [sic DICTIONARY] to explain them. Some words that I didn't know made the topics more difficult. I knew most of the grammar structures but some were brand-new to me.

F28

Feedback on the task we used today

Circle the number which most corresponds to your opinion in relation to the following statements

[1 is lowest level of agreement with the statement and 5 is highest]

You can write in the boxes if you like to say something more about each statement

1. I found this task useful

1 2 3 4 5

I think that this task I could also did during a normal lesson but is was also useful because I did this task with another teacher

2. I found this task difficult to do

1 2 3 4 5

No, not too much because it wasn't a difficult topic

3. I found this task helped me with the Geography part of the lesson

1 2 3 4 5

Yes, I learn new things about the climate and the places in the world.

4. I found this task helped me with the English language part of the lesson

1 2 3 4 5

Yes, because first to do this task I didn't know some words that now, fortunately, I know!

5. I liked doing this task

1

2

3

4

5

Yes, I like the geography! And to study it in English was nice and also useful!

Write about the task in the following boxes:

6. Things I liked about this task:

Work in pairs

Study interesting things about the world

Learn the topics

7. Things I didn't like about this task:

I must remain at school more time!!

Thank you very much for telling me your opinions about the task we used in today's lesson

I think that the language used in the Geography is a little difficult because the words used are specific and they are more difficult to learn than those used during a normal conversation, but there are also words that looks like those in Italian.

Appendix A3: Sample feedback sheets Group G (treatment Group)

G6

Feedback on the task we used today

Circle the number which most corresponds to your opinion in relation to the following statements

[1 is lowest level of agreement with the statement and 5 is highest]

You can write in the boxes if you like to say something more about each statement

1. I found this task useful

1 2 3 4 5

2. I found this task difficult to do

1 2 3 4 5

It was not so easy

3. I found this task helped me with the Geography part of the lesson

1 2 3 4 5

4. I found this task helped me with the English language part of the lesson

1 2 3 4 5

5. I liked doing this task

1

2

3

4

5

Write about the task in the following boxes:

6. Things I liked about this task:

It was very useful. I liked translate the sentences.

7. Things I didn't like about this task:

Putting the sentences in the correct column [trans]

Thank you very much for telling me your opinions about the task we used in today's lesson

Translating from English into Italian was not very easy. I realised that I didn't know how to say a lot of the words (for example canopy and groundfrost and other words that I can't remember now).

As far as English and the structure of the sentence is concerned, I obviously noticed that it's different from the Italian and generally sentences translated into Italian are longer because they require more words to explain the idea.

This exercise helped us with pronunciation and anyway if I'd written the words in English, it would have been difficult even if I'd known the Italian translation because I often hear these words in English but I don't know how to write them. [trans]

--

G16

Feedback on the task we used today

Circle the number which most corresponds to your opinion in relation to the following statements

[1 is lowest level of agreement with the statement and 5 is highest]

You can write in the boxes if you like to say something more about each statement

1. I found this task useful

1 2 3 4 5

2. I found this task difficult to do

1 2 3 4 5

3. I found this task helped me with the Geography part of the lesson

1 2 3 4 5

4. I found this task helped me with the English language part of the lesson

1 2 3 4 5

5. I liked doing this task

1

2

3

4

5

Write about the task in the following boxes:

6. Things I liked about this task:

It was also a bit amusing because G was dictating words we didn't know and sometimes we translated in a funny way. [trans]

7. Things I didn't like about this task:

I found it a bit difficult to translate while G. was dictating but also a good experience. [trans]

Thank you very much for telling me your opinions about the task we used in today's lesson

For me it was a bit difficult to translate the sentences from English into Italian. There are English words that I don't know how to translate except in a roundabout way. For example, 'canopy' means 'the upper part of the forest' – but how do you say it in Italian? As well as that, I don't know a lot of the words and therefore I guessed, so I felt a bit challenged. In general, I like the idea of this type of test because it's also a way to test yourself and anyway I like English. I felt a bit nervous because I was scared to make stupid mistakes. In general, a positive experience. [trans]

--

G24

Feedback on the task we used today

Circle the number which most corresponds to your opinion in relation to the following statements

[1 is lowest level of agreement with the statement and 5 is highest]

You can write in the boxes if you like to say something more about each statement

1. I found this task useful

1 2 3 4 5

2. I found this task difficult to do

1 2 3 4 5

3. I found this task helped me with the Geography part of the lesson

1 2 3 4 5

4. I found this task helped me with the English language part of the lesson

1 2 3 4 5

5. I liked doing this task

1

2

3

4

5

Write about the task in the following boxes:

6. Things I liked about this task:

It was easy to do and I enjoyed the task.

We used some useful words

It had clear sentences. Great! Interesting! Great idea!

7. Things I didn't like about this task:

The only thing that "annoyed" me was that I had to translate what G. said in Italian while I was writing. But it was cool anyway! Very useful!

Thank you very much for telling me your opinions about the task we used in today's lesson

1)The only thing that I thought it was hard, was to understand the word "canopy". I really don't know what does it mean. For the rest, everything was clear.

2) about the grammar I have to day: nothing new. Everything I heard (about grammar) was something that I already knew

3) the translation has been the hardest but coolest part of the task. After I did it I realised it was my first job as an interpreter. My dream is to become an English interpreter so it has been a great opportunity!

Appendix B Publication Two

Appendix B1: DCU REC approval letter

Ollscoil Chathair Bhaile Átha Cliath
Dublin City University



Ms Fiona Gallagher
School of Applied Language and Intercultural Studies

1st July 2014

REC Reference: DCUREC/2014/148

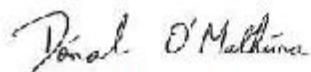
Proposal Title: Translanguaging in monolingual and multilingual ESOL classrooms

Applicants: Ms Fiona Gallagher

Dear Fiona,

This research proposal qualifies under our Notification Procedure, as a low risk social research project. Therefore, the DCU Research Ethics Committee approves this research proposal. Materials used to recruit participants should state that ethical approval for this project has been obtained from the Dublin City University Research Ethics Committee. Should substantial modifications to the research protocol be required at a later stage, a further submission should be made to the REC.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, reading 'Donal O'Mathuna'.

Dr. Donal O'Mathuna
Chairperson
DCU Research Ethics Committee



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Interview six: Denise

A. Background

1. Tell me a little bit about your background as an ESOL/EFL teacher. (How long an ESOL teacher? Where? Which teacher training course taken? etc.)

25 years more or less in EFL contexts because before that I did a little bit of secondary school teaching so that only amounted to about 2 or 3 years and then yeah so I've been working in Ireland and overseas [...] Turkey for two years and then have done very short term interactions and assignments in a range of places, from the middle east to South Brazil to north America to Africa everywhere ...

Interviewer: did you have training and then started to teach?

training was first... I did a short TEFL course back years ago and then did the Diploma and that gave me much more confidence because you knew you were doing things the right way

Interviewer: and I know you've gone on to do a Masters and what not since then

yeah

2. Do you speak any languages other than English?

a bit of French some... say B1 in French and A2 maybe in Turkish

B. Teaching contexts

3. Describe your teaching context in Turkey

in Turkey two situations there, two. One of them was in the [XX] university which was industrial engineering cohorts and then very quickly they seconded us to a school [...] It was a state secondary school so I was teaching English language and literature to secondary school students aged between about 14 to 16 ... teenagers [...] I did teach adults at night in the university so double jobbing as it were yeah and I was also doing some additional work there which was teaching in the commercial... you know teaching Business English to the shipping companies over there ... so three different groups yeah

4. Do you speak Turkish? What level?

[Already answered]

5. Describe your teaching context in Ireland?

I suppose the most recent is [xx]. I was teaching a General English class there recently [...] mixed nationalities and levels ... general English, adults [...]

6. What are the main differences between the two contexts?

well I suppose the class size. There were fifty in the secondary school because it was a state school, so very large class sizes. Implementing then the communicative approach in that because I believed in it [...] and then in this one [Ireland] a small class of some twelve or thirteen, and slightly older. Well, they weren't that older and there was still a lot of motivation issues with them because they were 18 to 21

Interviewer: so the motivation was with the students here?

a bit ... There was a bit of difficulty with that cos it was a summer group. It was... you know they were here for holidays maybe and not all of them were that motivated

Interviewer: motivation comes up every time I ask

Yeah yeah

C. Use of L1 in the classroom

7. Are there times when you would use/allow students to use the L1 in the classroom in Turkey? Why/why not? When? How?

They did anyway. They did anyway. So I mean if you got about half a dozen of them using English in the class it was fine. And you know standing proximity and all the rest as classroom management just to ensure that they did and used some English. But once they reported back in English, that was acceptable

Interviewer: so they might do a task or something and use their own language but then there'd be times you'd insist they use it

yeah yeah yeah and sometimes as I got to learn it [Turkish] a bit you know you could translate the odd word like 'friendship' or 'brotherhood' or you know some thing that was difficult like that

Interviewer: ok so it was kind of a help ...

yeah and then of course that gave them great delight and laughter as well because you were getting it wrong. So yeah you'd use it the odd time and certainly I'd tolerate it in the class

8. How do you feel about using the L1 at these times?

yeah well that's interesting because you'd... you were kind of trying... bearing in mind that this is twenty-five years ago. So you were really very much 'this should be in English, an English environment' and so on. You quickly realized that wasn't achievable and so you went with the line of least resistance cos they weren't going to tell one another or speak in English to their friends. No they don't do it. So I was a bit annoyed in the beginning particularly because I couldn't understand them. Then as you got to understand and learn it and you got to say something to them "that isn't nice" or whatever and they'd chat back [into English]

9. Are there times when you would use / allow students to use the L1 in the classroom in Ireland? Why/why not? When? How?

perhaps not because when... I'm just thinking about the profiles, French speakers, two Turkish actually, and two or three South Americans if I recall correctly. There wasn't really... it didn't come up no, no

Interviewer: you'd just use English is it

you'd just use English yeah

Interviewer: and so it was an 'absolutely not' kind of situation from what you describe ...

Yeah I mean if I could have. but it didn't really...

Interviewer: do you mean 'if I could have' ... do you mean you didn't have the language yourself?

yeah if I needed to... but again these were Upper-Intermediate. They didn't really need it. They'd access... also you know the technology accessibility so they could check something online very quickly

Interviewer: and you didn't mind that kind of thing?

no no no

Interviewer: so from what you're saying the higher level you felt so you'd be more inclined to ...

tolerate it at a lower level. Yeah although those guys [in Turkey] were at Upper Intermediate as well. I think it was because it was a very large monolingual group [in Turkey]

Interviewer: This is now in Ireland?

No, sorry with the Turks. I'm just comparing it

Interviewer: so the size of the group in turkey was a factor?

it certainly was. Yeah certainly

Interviewer: do you mean it was harder for classroom management purposes and you just felt ...

Yeah, whereas with these ones [in Ireland] you know they did. And you can make... you know with older learners perhaps you can make 'the English only' rule as well can't you? and say "this is the one that..."

Interviewer: so you kind of had 'an English only' rule that everybody understood in the class?

yeah yeah yeah

Interviewer: and slippage not so much

no no no

10. How do you feel about using the L1 at these times?

it didn't really happen [...]

D. Overall attitude to the use of the L1 in the two contexts.

11. What are your views on using the L1 of the students in the ESOL classroom?

yeah ... my belief has probably changed over the years very much as well because you do look at what's the way that you can maximize interaction. And if it means that they're going to speak amongst themselves in the L1 and report back in the target language, I don't mind. If you can increase it and get them to say a bit more well and good, but it's... it doesn't sit so naturally with them and you're sometimes trying to shoehorn them into something they're not pleased with. So I tolerate it ... Maybe... I don't

know maybe they should use it more but there's only so much you can do. So no I'm quite tolerant of them translating backwards and forwards. Does it damage their learning skills? I don't think so. There was a time when I used to believe you know that this has to be in English only and I you know that *you should discourage any use* [strong voice] of their own language but why...? You know when you think about it why were we doing that? It was just a popular impression at the time so no I don't mind them using it and in fact they do anyway don't they? because you can't stop them so ...

Interviewer: and do you think age or motivation or level are factors?

definitely yeah. But ... yeah definitely age is a factor because I think older students will... so called adults you know, over 25s let's say, will be less embarrassed about using another language whereas those perhaps at a lower, younger age group feel strange enough trying to speak English to their friends. I think that's certainly one and then the other is perhaps they just get teased anyway if they do for their accent or whatever and they're afraid to risk the errors or the focus on them ... so yeah

12. Does your approach to this vary depending on whether you are teaching in Spain / China etc. or Ireland?

probably yeah probably ... and I think as well that... let me think now ... you're trying to get through... you've got a shorter time frame for your classes [in Turkey], you were trying to get through a unit or whatever in your forty-five minutes. You were aiming for you know getting it done as quickly as possible and there was enough other things to discipline them about in addition to use of English

Interviewer: right so efficiency sometimes ...

yeah yeah it was a class management issue yeah

Interviewer so it would be slightly different anyway

13. Teacher training – what was the view on the use of L1 in the classroom? Did the teacher training affect / shape your views on this?

do you know what, it wasn't so much the training as the attitudes of fellow teachers. I don't know if you know if my students were speaking in the corridor, other teachers got annoyed about that [laughs]

Interviewer: so it was the community and practice that ...

yeah yeah ... that was prevalent

Interviewer: it was considered

it was considered bad practice exactly. And then you aimed not to have any and an English only environment

Interviewer: and did that shape your view then?

possibly for a while yeah yeah ... and then I suppose another thing that would shape your view is if you couldn't understand them because you felt a degree of exclusion. And ... yeah ... and then I suppose with experience and with the ... also the added-value of being able to sit at the back of the class [in Teacher Training contexts as a tutor] and see that when they didn't genuinely understand something, that communication was a priority and so when they [the teacher] had to clarify it it was... enabled them to get on with doing the class

Interviewer: so the training and the community of practice in particular ... you felt 'Oooh I better and not allow them to talk' or whatever but with the more experience ... I'm trying to not misrepresent you ... so as you became more experienced your view

The experience yeah

Interviewer: and you became more tolerant?

changed yeah yeah yeah yeah yes yes

14. Language learning of bi-/multilingual space? How do you view your learners / your classroom – as language learners of English in a classroom or bilinguals improving their English – the classroom as a bi-/multilingual space?

Interviewer: when you look at a group of learners in front of you in your class and they are ready to be taught ... do you look at them and then ... there's my group of you know EFL students and I'm going to teach them ... or do you think ... this is a bilingual ... these are bilinguals and this is a kind of bilingual space ... or is it much more this is a classroom and I'm teaching them English

mmmm mmmmm [long pause] goodness em I suppose [pause] I hadn't thought about the bilingual space but it's a very... much more appealing perspective than 'I'm going to teach them' [laughs] because you know that what you do is 'present a few rules' or whatever and they take it or leave it. But I hadn't identified it as a bilingual space but... until you've articulated it. I've suddenly bought into that idea. [laughs] It's a nicer idea

Interview fourteen: Martin

A. Background

1. Tell me a little bit about your background as an ESOL/EFL teacher. (How long an ESOL teacher? Where? Which teacher training course taken? etc.)

so I started about four and a half years ago after studying a double Honours language degree in [XX], French and Spanish

Interviewer: so you speak French and Spanish do you?

I do yes ... and I kind of just fell into it to be honest. Initially when I started [...] I just wanted to travel with it and then I trained with [XX] and after I trained I worked in a primary school as a resource teacher for about four or five months in Ireland, in a primary school in [XX] and after that [XX] had offered me work in April so when I finished up in the primary school I started in [XX] and then I worked with [XX] for about just over a year I think and then I went to Germany to Berlin and I worked for myself mostly and stuff and freelancing and then I had kind of stable employment with one of the schools there. So over there I did some language teaching, some translating and some editing work [...] for just over a year [...] .and then I came back and lucky enough got my old job back and I've been here since... just over two years now

Interviewer: did you have any German when you taught there

I didn't have any German, no. Just Spanish and French. I had a bit of German before I went. I did a Beginners course and stuff but I kind of picked it up as I went along over there. Now my German wouldn't be... It would be I guess Pre-intermediate is what you'd say but I can survive, I can survive

Interviewer: you never taught in Spain or France

[...] no but I hadn't done anything with CELTA when I was... I was lived in France and Spain when I was in college but I didn't do any teaching

2. Do you speak any languages other than English?

French and Spanish, and a bit of German and a bit of Irish as well

B. Teaching contexts

3. Describe your teaching context in Germany

School and freelancing, editing [...] It was mostly Business [...] all adults I didn't have any kids [...] all levels and all different types of business contexts

4. Do you speak German? What level?

[already answered intermediate learnt it there already fluent French and Spanish speaker]

5. Describe your teaching context in Ireland?

all levels, exam classes and multilingual [...] all adults

6. What are the main differences between the two contexts?

well in Berlin it was much more focused so what I was teaching was for very very specific purposes so they had to do I don't know presentations or emails and they to... they had a short time to improve and then I suppose it was much more pointed and much more no... excuse my French but 'no bullshit' really. Kind of 'to the point'

Interviewer: you had the hour and they expected you to cover...

Exactly yeah and that was it. You had to do... and here I suppose well if it's a general English class it's more about improving over a longer time and you know taking your time with it and moving up slowly, much more slowly

Interviewer: you'd have longer, four hours a day

Exactly yeah yeah

Interviewer: yes I remember it being quite leisurely

Yeah yeah [...] the exam classes here are much... like the last exam class I had was for eight weeks. It was an FCE course and I felt as a teacher it was... I was kind of... there was a lot in it to do in eight weeks, to prepare a class in eight weeks for an FCE. It was difficult so if it's an exam class its more pointed, more structured

Interviewer: so it would be more similar to your context in Germany?

yeah exactly yeah yeah. Well a little bit I suppose yeah yeah yeah

C. Use of L1 in the classroom

7. Are there times when you would use/allow students to use the L1 in the classroom in Germany? Why/why not? When? How?

well I suppose as regards encouraging students, no, because I'm a big believer in the communicative method and I think it's best to use the language that you're trying to learn as much as possible

Interviewer: and you feel the L1 would be wouldn't work with the communicative or a task based sort of approach?

well it kind of... it depends. I mean I wouldn't encourage them to be speaking it in class. However if it was the case where I knew the German for something that they really didn't understand I would... if they didn't get it in English first of all then I'd probably give in I suppose and help them a little bit in German

Interviewer: so a kind of efficiency ... it's interesting you use the term 'give in' is that how you felt that you were kind of giving in?

well I don't know. I suppose its drummed into us here that like you know 'don't... try not to use their L1 if you can. Everything should be through English' so yeah I suppose it was... I did feel a little bit guilty I suppose that I was kind of breaking a rule or something, that I shouldn't do that but... if I can talk about my own experience of learning a language?

Interviewer: yes ... yes interesting

sometimes when you're learning a language and you just don't get something, it's really useful to have somebody there who can say "well this is what it is in your language". "This is a similar idea" or "this is a similar structure". I remember doing subjunctives, learning about subjunctives in Spanish and I found it really really difficult and it was nice that our lecturer would tell us in English what the ideas... how the ideas... how they were expressed in English so that you could kind of compare and contrast. But having said that, since I've been an EFL teacher I don't necessarily know if that now is a good thing or not because I think it's good for somebody to figure it out step by step, by themselves, and it's ok if you don't get it straight away or it's ok if you don't get it you know right away or after two weeks or three weeks. I mean it takes a long time for you to accumulate the language. Language acquisition takes a long time so I think it's probably better to only communicate in the L2

8. How do you feel about using the L1 at these times ... from what you've said you kind of do it as a last resort but that there would be a certain amount of guilt or feeling or this isn't the best practice?

yes exactly. Or another time I might do it is, even here or in Germany, would be if I were stuck for time. I mean if somebody really wasn't getting something and it was important and they just really needed to have that phrase and they just really needed to understand, I'd just tell them. "Look this is this in German" or even here I'd say "this is a word in Spanish or in French"

Interviewer: do you think if you were teaching in Spain or France you might do it more? That's very hypothetical I mean you don't have to answer that one

to be honest... well if I'm really honest with you probably yes, but I don't know if it would be for the students' sake or my own sake of wanting to practise Spanish or French like you know so *[laughter]* I suppose that happens sometimes here as well. You kind of want to get... to slip in a little bit of practice. *[laughter]* I would imagine I would do it more yeah. I would imagine I would do it more just because of the... I'm so familiar with the languages

9. Are there times when you would use / allow students to use the L1 in the classroom in Ireland? Why/why not? When? How?

well I suppose as regards me using it ... again if I'm stuck for time or if I see a student is really struggling, probably... I'll use the word 'give in' again. I probably would let them [...] especially at lower levels I think yeah. At higher levels no

Interviewer: why not?

higher levels? because I think they have enough language that they can... I think it's better to explain a concept or an idea rather than just say "oh well

this is what it is” because it encourages translation from L1 to L2 all the time and for the higher levels what you’re trying to get them to do is to think in English and get out of this habit of translating and also because at higher levels in English there... sometimes there isn’t an exact phrase or an exact translation for them so I think it’s a bad habit to be in and it impedes fluency and things like that so yeah but at the lower levels yeah I mean Beginner, pre-Int... if I really think they’re struggling or they just don’t get something I’ll give them a bit of a help if

Interviewer: a sort of a crutch?

yeah but then also I sort of feel guilty about that sometimes because if it’s a mix an L1 mix, that’s not really fair if I have an Arabic student over here and a Spanish student over here and I’m like “oh well this is what it is in Spanish, in Arabic I’ve no idea” so it’s not really fair yeah

Interviewer: so you’d be very sensitive to that issue?

yeah

D. Overall attitude to the use of the L1 in the two contexts.

11. What are your views on using the L1 of the students in the ESOL classroom?

well I would say... in general I would say that I don’t... I try not to use it and I would discourage... well certainly myself or other teachers and probably students as well. At lower levels maybe its ok to use it a little bit, to talk among themselves if they want but I try to discourage it. I think it’s best to use English as much as possible

Interviewer: but you would let them talk among themselves that might be ...?

a little bit. I mean I know some teachers are really strict about if students are speaking in Spanish to each other in the class say... they go crazy and they're like "no you must speak English" whatever... but sometimes I think that's ok if they want to kind of concrete the ideas in their head 'what's that in Spanish?' or 'how do you say that?' I mean well that's ok

Interviewer: you allow that:

yeah a little bit, a little bit. But certainly in open class I don't allow it at all and I try...

Interviewer: so just if they were in groups and they were discussing something that was focused on a grammar point that you'd allow them discuss the grammar point in their language ...?

yes but very briefly, very briefly. I mean I wouldn't encourage... if it was a group with a mixture of L1s, then I'd definitely discourage it because it's unfair as I said

Interviewer: it's only when they're discussing a grammar point or something?

yeah 'what's the exact meaning of it?'

12. Does your approach to this vary depending on whether you are teaching in Spain / China etc. or Ireland?

I think definitely my approach would be different. I think probably... I might be likely to use their L1 if I was teaching a group of Spanish or a group of French or a group of Germans and... as I said if they were struggling or something then I probably would and also I think I would make comparisons myself as in if I taught something and they'd got the idea and after I'd concept checked and all of that stuff, well maybe I might say "oh well this is... this is how you would say it" or "it's similar to this in your language"

Interviewer: you might even plan that into your lesson?

exactly yes and also

Interviewer: so this kind of comparative, linguistic comparison?

yes because I think it is... it can be useful yeah

Interviewer: you mentioned that you found it useful yourself when you were learning Spanish?

Yeah yeah I did. Yes I suppose that's where it comes from. I found it useful so I presume that they would as well. And then I suppose even culturally I'd have a different approach because I know a lot about Spanish culture. I know a lot about the mistakes or linguistically the mistakes they're likely to make, the pitfalls they have. Same with French, same with German so I'd be more aware of that and be willing to... listening out for it and be wary of it and you know give them pointers if they're making those mistakes and say "well this is why you're making that mistake. In German this is the way it works but English it doesn't exactly work like that. It's slightly different and this is why"

Interviewer: and you'd be looking out for examples that you could pick up on?

yes exactly yeah yeah

13. Teacher training – what was the view on the use of L1 in the classroom? Did the teacher training affect / shape your views on this?

that's a good question. Yes I would. I think the training we got here was excellent, really really amazing but yeah I mean as I said to you I'm studying the DELTA at the moment and I'm actually currently looking at lots of different approaches, and I have to say we definitely have this idea of PPP which is really really strongly engrained here and also I guess yeah noticing is this new thing and em but I'm studying the lexical approach at the moment and you know we were told parts of that when we were training [CELTA] but we were never really told that it was a complete approach [...] and I'm actually finding it really interesting to say that wow there's this whole other way of teaching which is based on L1 acquisition and you know it's really really really interesting. But yes I suppose initially I would have been very influenced... certainly when I came off

CELTA first, definitely. I mean we were just following the frameworks and stuff . Reading, you pre teach stuff

Interviewer: and there was nearly a ban on the L1 sort of thing. Is that what you mean?

Yeah yeah. Well it was certainly... we were told to discourage it [the L1] yeah yeah

Interviewer: and would you say then if you hadn't done a CELTA your view might have been a bit different about it?

I hadn't taught before the CLETA. I would imagine, yes. I would imagine I would have relied much more heavily if I was teaching Spanish or French students that I would have relied very heavily on my knowledge of French or Spanish, yeah much more

14. Language learning of bi/multilingual space? How do you view your learners / your classroom – as language learners of English in a classroom or bilinguals improving their English – the classroom as a bi-/multilingual space?

Interviewer: when you see your students in front of you and your classroom the language space in front of you do you see it as a language learning space and your students as language learners or are you more likely to see it as a bilingual or a multilingual space and your students as bilinguals? How do you see your students?

mmmm that's a good question ... I suppose it depends on the type of lesson I'm teaching. It depends on the particular class and... for example if I'm teaching a grammar point, I'd probably be much more likely to see them and it as a language learning environment and their focusing in on

something specific. However if I'm teaching a speaking class so for general fluency, well then I guess it's kind of more multicultural, multilingual, you know sometimes if it's lower levels they don't have the language that they want and I view my role as helping them to express what they want to say in the best way possible or developing their ideas or upgrading the language that they already have. So I guess it just depends

Interviewer: and you mentioned the class do you mean the level or ... what do you mean there?

I mean both, both ... level and also class dynamics because I do find sometimes that in some classes or some nationalities don't like you using their language or they feel if you use their language or you know if you're referring to one particular culture or something too much that they get maybe a little bit annoyed and they feel like "oh I'm here to learn English. Why are we not talking about English cultures. We're not here to learn about Spanish culture"

Interviewer: are you talking about where you're talking about other cultures in the class or their own?

other cultures like

Interviewer: so if I'm a German I don't really want to talk about what they do in Spain ...

Yeah, yeah, yeah, yeah So it kind of depends on what the classroom dynamics are between students and how they get along and stuff like that

Interviewer: anything to add?

well it's interesting that you asked about my approach and was it influenced by the training, the initial training and I'd say... yeah like I said I'd have to strongly agree with that. It was yeah yeah and like I said there are so many other approaches that you can take

[added a bit after the tape turned off so turned it back on]

I was going to say that it would be useful to use L1 for teaching cognates because often in Romance languages you have very very very similar words coming from French into English which would really really help the students. So I suppose actually I didn't mention that earlier but I would do that a lot actually. I would do that as a technique I suppose. I would mention "oh this is the same in your language" or "what language does this come from? It comes from French"

Interview: Going at it at cognate level?

Yeah absolutely yeah yeah yeah. Especially with French speakers or Spanish speakers yeah and then by proxy Portuguese speakers or Italian speakers because more or less it's you know the same kind of ideas yeah. So that just popped into my head there.

Appendix B4: Publication 2: collated extracts for Planned / Ad hoc activities
under Parent Node: Teacher Practices (from NVivo)

[<Files\\interviews\\Final Alan Interview transcript>](#) - § 4 references coded [17.26% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 6.30% Coverage

I think if you're able to to allow it to a degree, then they respect more when you're saying "I'd really you know, this is not the time or the place", but I think it's that thing of classroom management. There's thirteen or twelve or fifteen of them; there's one of you. They're going to use their language at some point, even if it's just you know... I think it's up to the teacher to what extent you try and... allow it, you allow it and then use it to your advantage as well

Interviewer: how do you mean use it to your advantage?

well I kind of more mean allow them at certain points to discuss things and... you know treat them as adults, you know they're not... they are adults, the ones I've... I haven't had any... you know so I would yeah I would kind of allow them to kind of do that and then... so that when you really want them to speak in English, when you really want them to stop using their L1, they kind of see the point

Interviewer: and they take it more seriously because you're sort of saying "now for this one I really don't want to use Italian or Arabic or whatever?" Is that what you mean?

yeah yeah

Interviewer: I understand

Reference 2 - 3.36% Coverage

you mentioned that in the other context it was kind of inevitable ... do you feel the same way in the monolingual group?

I mean eh I think always some degree of it is going to be inevitable and you're going to have to do some kind of classroom management with it but no it's not... I think with the monolingual group it is inevitable. With another language group, as long as you've kind of explained the reasons why, and you're really respectful of the fact that they're going to use it outside of class, when the class is finished, then generally it's easier. I mean you're always going to get one or two [laughs]

Reference 3 - 2.68% Coverage

a huge amount of experience. And I always encouraged them. Like with the Chinese group, it was a constant encouragement. But I think there was... there comes a point where you realize that you are making too much of an issue out of it, at which point it becomes difficult. So as a teacher, it affects the teaching because as a teacher you're almost program- you're always focusing on that as opposed to just letting it go and trying to bring them back to doing something in English so yeah

Reference 4 - 4.92% Coverage

did have an Italian group last week of teenagers, for one week only, and there would have been no way. I would have spent... I mean they were a particularly difficult group in some ways, just in terms of their attention and what they were able to do. I've never done teenagers before and I never want to do them again [laughs] but there would have been... the whole of my week would have been...

Interviewer: policing that?

yeah

Interviewer: so you kind of let it slide a little?

you had to yeah yeah ... you absolutely had to

Interviewer: with the proviso that I think you mentioned that sometimes you kind of said just for this activity ...

yeah well in English yeah. And then the fact that you're allowing them to use Italian you're not going... you're not coming down on them, then I think they you know generally speaking they respected it

[<Files\\interviews\\Final Amy Interview transcript>](#) - § 2 references coded [8.02% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 4.86% Coverage

I do highlight other languages when I'm trying to teach present perfect for example, or... and the fact that it is different in their language, again with a one-to-one setting where it's just only one language that you're working with so to highlight the differences rather than similarities so ... yeah

Interviewer: but do you think it could only be done if you spoke the other language?

not really ... I think if you've got enough experience to know what the false friends are, then you can mention that

Interviewer: even you can do it about a Japanese word, it doesn't matter that you don't speak Japanese?

yeah yeah

Reference 2 - 3.16% Coverage

Interviewer: but you feel that's letting it slide as opposed to something you would actively plan to do in your lesson?

I would consider if the word is similar in their language, and bring that up if they are similar, but em

Interviewer: would you ever build it into your plan?

only things that I'm anticipating that they'll have problems with because they're false friends, but that's the only way

[<Files\\interviews\\Final Ana transcription>](#) - § 1 reference coded [3.45% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 3.45% Coverage

Interviewer: and would you build it into your plan or would it just be something random or ... how would that work?

sometimes if it was grammar though... if it was a grammar topic, it would be in my class, my idea of my planning [...] or I would give them one example of a sentence in Portuguese like for example the past perfect. It's a lot easier to actually make students and say and so "do you see that sentence here in Portuguese? why do you use this word in Portuguese here and not that?" and they go like "I don't know, it just makes sense" so yeah so "here is one thing that you use without realizing in Portuguese"

Interviewer: so you would use the Portuguese as a starting point to explore ... English?

sometimes yeah

[<Files\\interviews\\Final Arthur Interview transcript>](#) - § 1 reference coded [1.08% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 1.08% Coverage

so do you think there would be a sort of a focus when you do that or would that just be a random ...?

no there would definitely have to be a focus. There would definitely have to be something like register or context or some for me some reason for doing it

[<Files\\interviews\\Final Emma transcript>](#) - § 2 references coded [3.34% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 2.50% Coverage

and you mentioned discipline early on ... was that just because of their age then

yeah just because of their age [...] like they'd have their 'off' days and you'd... you know if you'd tell them to... just like teaching them to say 'thank you', 'to line up', things like that that. you'd have to just... cos they'd be a bit mad or like you know they don't feel like eating their lunch so you'd have to....

Reference 2 - 0.84% Coverage

as well it's empathetic towards the student. I know that's how they're feeling about it and to try to make it as simple as you can ...

[<Files\\interviews\\Final Jane transcript>](#) - § 1 reference coded [5.12% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 5.12% Coverage

But then there were maybe a group of Italians, maybe a group of Spaniards. So I remember reading 'what would you do with monolingual groups to try and prevent them' and at times... well it was an idea that I tried out. It worked with some groups but with others it didn't. You'd have an Italian corner and a Spanish corner and a French corner and so you'd say "ok this is the French corner, Italian corner, Spanish corner, and put a flag or whatever and explain that you understood that they needed to vent and if they needed to vent they could go to the corner and vent all they liked but they had to go actually physically get up and go over to the corner yeah [...] Yeah I did, I tried it. It worked with some groups but with other groups it just fell flat you know [...] no they just you know... depending on the group you know some of them used it really well and ...

Interviewer: and what age group was that with?

I've done that mostly... I've never done it with adults no ... no I've never done it with adults. Teenagers and young children yeah.

[<Files\\interviews\\Final Linda transcript>](#) - § 1 reference coded [2.85% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 2.85% Coverage

Interviewer: it sounds to me from what you're saying it's quite targeted ... anytime you would use the L1 it would be for a particular reason ...

I don't use it in general like I don't see the point. I think the best learning is through immersion. I really do feel that from my own experience [...] but if I do it's always for a reason. I never use it to teach [...] I do in a sense for that... to show them the pointlessness of translation

[<Files\\interviews\\final Magda transcript>](#) - § 1 reference coded [5.09% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 5.09% Coverage

Interviewer: would you ever compare Polish and English

yes

Interviewer: how would you do that?

very often you know doing grammatical structures, putting things in context [...] I wouldn't use Polish. I wouldn't write in Polish on the board. I wouldn't, It was always English on the board. I wanted them to mentally memorize the structure of English ... but sometimes like you know they thought that something was very complex and difficult. Ok I would say "right translate the sentence into Polish. It's the same structure"

Interviewer: so sometimes you would say "do it in Polish and you'll see ..."

"and you'll see it's the same structures. Just see it in your mind. It's the same thing"

Interviewer: so you would compare the two languages sometimes as an explanation

yes yes yes

Interviewer: would you ever plan to do that or would that just happen

no that's just you know if I was stuck

Interviewer: you'd never use that as a starting point

no no

[<Files\\interviews\\final Martin transcript>](#) - § 2 references coded [2.36% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.46% Coverage

Interviewer: you might even plan that into your lesson?

exactly yes and also

Reference 2 - 1.91% Coverage

Interviewer: so this kind of comparative, linguistic comparison?

yes because I think it is... it can be useful yeah

Interviewer: you mentioned that you found it useful yourself when you were learning Spanish?

Yeah yeah I did. Yes I suppose that's where it comes from. I found it useful so I presume that they would as well

[<Files\\interviews\\Final Mary Interview transcript>](#) - § 3 references coded [11.62% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 3.84% Coverage

Why is English like this? Why can't I say X?" and I'd say "well you know English is not peculiar in that way. Spanish is equally formed along those rules and natural use"

Interviewer: and did you find that you used to plan that into your lessons or did these just come up kind of randomly ... or randomly is the wrong word but ...

I can't really remember. I imagine at first it sort of came up and I became aware of it as I was teaching and probably thought 'ok I'll remember that for the next time' because I know now that they're going to question it and I know now that they're going to sort of find this difficult but... and then I started to plan it or at least have it ready to say ... em ...

Reference 2 - 3.03% Coverage

How do you feel about using the L1 at these times?

well I think because I didn't use it to sort of translate or to give instructions and I was keeping it I think fairly minimal, apart from that awareness building, I you know... I felt it actually was a choice I was making, an educational choice and that it didn't distract from the use of the

English at all so ... and I wasn't really ever tempted to kind of... as my Spanish got better I was never really tempted to use more Spanish in class in terms of 'I'll translate that for you'. I avoided that

Reference 3 - 4.74% Coverage

teachers have come to me and sort of... maybe when they're teaching junior groups and they'd say just "we just deal with it. They're talking in Italian all the time" ... em ... that would be maybe when we have monolingual groups but within Ireland, and I'd say "look...". One of the things I've suggested sometimes is that you have a 'ok ... we're going to have a five minute L1 period' within that four hours, ok, and you sort of set up the rules "ok in the next twenty minutes, we're going to do this all in English, but if you do it all in English, then you can have five minutes to talk to each other and chat about whatever for five minutes", but it was more of a kind of a release rather than continuing in class

Interviewer: and clearly delineated ... from what you're saying you'd set aside times rather than just randomly having it ...?

yesyes yes

[<Files\\interviews\\Final Niall transcript>](#) - § 2 references coded [2.40% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.69% Coverage

Interviewer: did you ever build it into your planning to have to use a bit of Kurdish?

never to be honest with you. No it was on the fly

Reference 2 - 1.71% Coverage

Interviewer: the cultural bridge and that ... but that with teenagers you can't really allow it much because they go crazy as you said with the Italian

I mean you have to... I think you have to accept that there will be a lot of it [...] you know if I had really tried to clamp down 100% with them, I know I would have lost my mind you know

[<Files\\interviews\\Final Paul transcription>](#) - § 1 reference coded [2.55% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 2.55% Coverage

Are there times when you would use / allow students to use the L1 in the classroom in Ireland? Why/why not? When? How?

it was a shock because I came from a monolingual teaching background where the language, Spanish became a support for me, a kind of a crutch so it became a great bridge between them. So I was always able to translate words or concepts in an emergency like, but I didn't do it. It was them asking me and often they'd ask me in Spanish and I was able to reply or do something in English so I didn't actually use it to ...

Interviewer: so did you encourage them to do that or did that sort of just happen?

that happened. That happened.

[<Files\\interviews\\Final Peter Interview transcript>](#) - § 1 reference coded [7.07% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 7.07% Coverage

We talk about maybe idioms and there could be a similar idiom in someone's language and you might have students from Europe who use Spanish or Portuguese. Other students understand it and there would be a quick little interchange thing, what it is in my language or just like...

Interviewer: and would that be instigated by the students kind of they would or ...?

ehh sometimes ... and sometimes they would ask... because once you get used to it you ask "is there anything similar in your language?" and then it becomes easier for them to grasp

Interviewer: would you ever plan to do that in the class or are these just incidental ?

em sometimes I would bring it up, yeah, again maybe not getting them to say it in their own language but just asking if there's something similar
yeah yeah

[<Files\\interviews\\Final Rose Interview transcript>](#) - § 1 reference coded [2.23% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 2.23% Coverage

Interviewer: but when you were doing that translation exercise ... that was something you had planned

yeah yeah ... and I would only do that with a class that I could trust wouldn't speak in Spanish to each other, because we have a lot of classes where every chance they get, they just revert into Spanish. I would only do it with a class that I could trust that if I turned to this, they wouldn't just start chatting in Spanish ... yeah yeah

[<Files\\interviews\\Final Sally transcript>](#) - § 1 reference coded [0.16% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.16% Coverage

Interviewer: would you plan that into your lessons

no no no no ...

[<Files\\interviews\\Sarah Final transcript>](#) - § 1 reference coded [1.52% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 1.52% Coverage

After a while I developed a bank of common false friends of things that I had noticed caused misunderstanding before so that when it came to the old "oh it's the same in Czech" I'd know that it actually wasn't, so I could start using some CCQs [concept check questions]

(QSR NVivo, 2018)

Appendix B5: NVivo codebook L1 use in EFL contexts

Codebook: L1 use in EFL contexts

Name	Description	Files	References
bilingual space	students as bilinguals; transferable skills; translation; definition of bilingual; multilingualism	24	133
‘Language’ and language learning	expanding knowledge about language per se and communication and about language learning. role of language (school subject??)	15	33
Classroom	2 or many languages; acknowledgement permission to speak L1 / monolingual space; pretending not to understand or speak L1; group dynamics; Inclusion / exclusion; communication; bilingual space; affirmation; functional role /school subject to learn	20	84
2 or many languages;		17	53
acknowledgement permission to speak L1 monolingual space		12	24
communication competences affirmation		10	19
functional role school subject to learn educational value		9	19
group dynamics Inclusion exclusion		15	31

Name	Description	Files	References
pretending not to understand or speak L1		7	10
Learners as bilingual	level; multilingual; persona/identity; language learners primarily; affirmation	21	32
affirmation acknowledgement of L1		7	9
focus of lesson		3	3
identity persona		9	11
language learners primarily		7	8
level		8	9
multilingual		6	6
misc.		9	13
Practices	heading for broad practices. Monolingual practices; Bilingual practices / competence (2 languages in mind; codeswitching etc.	19	63
bilingual practices		19	63
monolingual practices		6	12
Teacher	monolingual / bilingual my job	14	31
exclusion inclusion		8	12
misc.		5	7
monolingual or bilingual teacher		11	20
my job my role	describing their role and their job in relation to bilingual space bilingual students etc.	13	24

Name	Description	Files	References
Response to Q	initial response to q on view of learners as learners or bilinguals and classroom as a bilingual space	13	16
Factors	factors which influence teachers' view of whether to use / allow L1 use in the classroom	24	232
age	whether students are teenagers, children, adults etc.	17	34
adult		4	5
misc.		1	1
motivation		10	10
speaking English with peers		10	16
embarrassment		4	4
speak English speak English		8	12
spiral out of control		6	9
ways to manage it		9	14
teenager		12	16
young children		8	13
context apart from monolingual or not	are they an exam class; summer school; are they learning with their boss in the room; is English a school subject on their curriculum; how much time is available for learning English; how large is the class	17	46
expectations of school and students	to what extent the school has a policy in relation to L1 use in the classroom or school? what are the expectations of the students?	13	21

Name	Description	Files	References
individual student or group of students	learning styles; it depends on the student(s) etc.; culture of learning, loss of face, self-consciousness with peers	14	20
Level	are students Beginner, Intermediate, Advanced etc.	17	35
misc.		18	36
monolingual or multilingual group	dynamics of multilingual group; not fair, manners, exclusion of students	23	85
common frame of reference		5	5
dynamic of multilingual class		12	20
easier more difficult		7	9
is mono or multi context a factor for teachers		14	19
manners courtesy		10	16
motivation		6	9
natural to use the L1 with peers		8	15
speaking in the L1		10	13
motivation	how motivated are the group; is attention flagging	17	29
task type	focus of the lesson (e.g. fluency speaking exercise; grammar exercise etc.) are students just chit chatting or are they using the L1 in a productive way	18	35
teacher knowledge of the L1	how well does the teacher speak the L1 of the students? are students aware that the teacher can speak their L1	23	68

Name	Description	Files	References
couldn't use the L1		10	17
exclusion		15	35
letting students know you have the L1		10	14
liked using it		3	4
multilingual context		6	9
students feeling about teacher having the L1		5	8
useful or not		17	28
what are students talking about in the L1		10	18
would use it if I could		7	10
misc.	can't think where to put these items	4	4
Purposes	Why teachers use / allow L1 to be used; what reasons they have for using the L1	24	160
awareness raising	comparative analysis; discussions about language; language per se; etc. translation as a skill;	14	41
all languages		11	17
comparing		12	29
limitations of translation		4	6
noticing		9	16

Name	Description	Files	References
students teaching the teacher		2	3
talking about language through English		10	17
clarification and checking	checking students have understood; feedback	13	22
classroom atmosphere	providing comfort, break from intensity of language learning in L2; flagging attention; release; overwhelmed, joking and humour; socialising	21	59
bilingual space		10	15
encouragement		3	4
immersion in English		11	16
jokes		3	5
natural		6	8
release		5	8
self-conscious		2	2
support or crutch		14	23
Teacher attitude		17	36
teacher role to create a good atmosphere		7	9
teacher using the L1		7	12
trust or out of control		8	15
we're here to learn English		4	6

Name	Description	Files	References
classroom management	for instructions and general classroom language; discipline; classroom management etc.	12	22
concrete the idea	previous learning experiences; fixing the idea in your mind; cognitive analysis in L1 helpful	1	2
explanations and teaching	vocabulary, complex grammar, pronunciation, predicting error types,	18	47
a ha moment		5	5
a last resort		7	13
a quick explanation		6	7
abstract and difficult language		5	12
easier		6	8
English first then the L1		3	3
incidental language		4	4
students explaining to another student		14	22
vocabulary or grammar		4	4
misc.		11	13
speed and efficiency	easy, quick, then "move on", one student is struggling	17	22
students as bilinguals	teaching teacher; trying out techniques etc. on teacher; cultural affirmation; brainstorming; classroom as a bilingual space	12	20
translation		14	23
Teacher beliefs	what teachers believe about language learning and language teaching; what they	24	234

Name	Description	Files	References
	consider best practice; what they believe about students		
Best practice	exposure to English; maximising L2 use; cognitive engagement through L2	24	113
can't do it for all languages		4	4
exposure to English; native speaker is best		1	2
it works; no need for L1		9	12
maximise L2 use; provide opportunities to speak and use English		2	4
use of L1 as lesser option	strong feeling by some that L1 is the lazy / easy option; need to work it out for themselves through L2; pushing learners; L1 hinders this cognitive engagement	11	21
guilt and discomfort using L1	feelings of guilt; shouldn't do it; a sign of boredom; a sign of a failure to motivate and engage the learners; feelings of discomfort about allowing students to use L1 or when they use the L1 and teacher doesn't understand	17	44
discomfort	when students use the L1 (eg.teacher doesn't understand or feels it is a sign of failure on their part)	1	1
failure		6	8
lack of engagement	L1 use can be sign of boredom; lack of motivation; lack of engagement	3	3
shouldn't do it or allow it		1	2

Name	Description	Files	References
misc.		7	12
own language learning experiences	teachers as previous language learners; reflecting on their learning styles and experiences	14	26
role of teacher	provide an English language environment; to facilitate learning; they've come all this way; they've paid	20	43
facilitate learning		6	6
provides English speaking environment		0	0
they've come all this way; they've paid		7	10
Students using L1	natural; inevitable; slippery slope; bad habits; Teacher as policeman	21	59
motivation and relevance		5	7
natural and inevitable		6	6
slippery slope		6	6
teacher as policeman of L1	dislike for role of policeman; broken record syndrome	11	16
teacher training and reflection		24	71
CELTA	influence of CELTA; was it raised or discussed during course; aspects of the course etc.	19	23
DELTA	influence of DELTA; was it raised or discussed ; deeper analysis etc.	5	7
formulating thoughts on it		3	5

Name	Description	Files	References
growing confidence and experience		11	15
journals and workshops		5	5
other teachers	influence of other teachers on views; is it discussed; culture of the school etc.	12	14
zealot or flexible	Teachers describe their views in terms of how black and white they are on the issue; kinds of language teachers use to describe their views on this; contradictory statements; hadn't thought of it	24	170
contradictory views		4	7
hadn't thought of it before		3	3
L1 as a possible tool		4	4
might have a different answer tomorrow		0	0
monolingual or multilingual context		13	19
strong views		3	4
Teacher practices How L1 used or not used	what teachers do in the classroom; ways they use L1/ discourage L1 etc.; activities and tasks	24	181
dancing drawing etc.	teachers dancing around drawing on board etc. trying to explain language	8	14
encouragement	encouraging students; winning students' over	24	63
planned or ad hoc	targeted use of the L1; planning; ad hoc use; incidental; clear delineation between when can and cannot be used	16	25

Name	Description	Files	References
resources	L1 on the board; textbooks and materials; phones; dictionaries	11	18
sequencing initiation amount of L1 use and by whom	L1 or L2 first; who initiates use of L1; how much time; when to stop etc.; who uses the L1 - teacher or student?	11	15
strategies and activities using L1	ideas, activities where teachers use / allow L1 to be used; strategies to avoid using L1	12	35

(QSR NVivo, 2018)

Appendix C: Publication Three

Appendix C1 DCU REC approval letter

Ollscoil Chathair Bhaile Átha Cliath
Dublin City University



Ms Fiona Gallagher
School of Applied Languages and Intellectual Studies

22nd March 2019

REC Reference: DCUREC/2019/047
Proposal Title: Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes
Applicant(s): Ms Fiona Gallagher

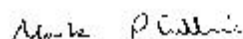
Dear Fiona,

This research proposal qualifies under our Notification Procedure, as a low risk social research project. Therefore, the DCU Research Ethics Committee approves this project.

Materials used to recruit participants should state that ethical approval for this project has been obtained from the Dublin City University Research Ethics Committee.

Should substantial modifications to the research protocol be required at a later stage, a further amendment submission should be made to the REC.

Yours sincerely,



Dr Mark Philbin
Interim Chairperson
DCU Research Ethics Committee



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Appendix C2: Sample Survey Response 1 ((Please note: words containing –fi- have not downloaded accurately into NVivo from Google forms.)



Consent to Participate

In order to start the survey, you will need to complete the following [this is the standard Dublin City University consent form for research participants]:

Information about the research *

Yes

I have read the Plain Language Statement.



I understand the information provided in the Plain Language Statement



I have had an opportunity to ask questions and discuss this study.



Voluntary participation *

Yes

I am aware that involvement in this study is voluntary.



I am aware that I can withdraw from the study at any point up to submission of the online survey



Arrangements to protect confidentiality of data *

Yes

I am aware that the information I provide in this study will be stored securely.



I am aware that the information I provide will be used by the research team only.



I am aware that the information I provide will be used for research purposes only and my identity will be protected.



I am aware that my completed survey will be destroyed five years after completion of the research



I am aware that the confidentiality of the information I provide is subject to legal limitations and that it is possible for data to be subject to subpoena, freedom of information claim or mandated reporting by some professions.



Consent *

Yes

I consent to participate in this survey



Questionnaire

1-How long have you worked as a CELTA trainer? *

- ☐ Less than 1 year
- ☐ Between 1 and 2 years
- ☒ Between 2 and 5 years
- ☐ Between 5 and 10 years
- ☐ More than 10 years

2. Have you worked as a CELTA trainer in places where teaching practice occurs in 'multilingual' contexts in which learners do not generally share a common language other than English (e.g. in English speaking areas) * YES - please answer question 3

- ☒
- ☐ NO - go straight to question 4

3- For how long?

- ☒ Less than a year
- ☐ Between 1 and 2 years
- ☐ Between 2 and 5 years
- ☐ Between 5 and 10 years
- ☐ More than 10 years

4. Have you worked as a CELTA trainer in places where teaching practice occurs in contexts in which learners generally share a common language other than English (e.g. in non-English speaking areas)*

- ☒ YES - please answer question 5
- ☐ NO - go straight to question 6

5-How long for?

- ☐ Less than a year
- ☐ Between 1 and 2 years
- ☒ Between 2 and 5 years
- ☐ Between 5 and 10 years
- ☐ More than 10 years

6- Have you taught English in contexts where language learners share a common language other than English?*

- ☒ YES - please answer question 7
- ☐ NO - go straight to question 8

7-How long for?

- ☐ Less than a year
- ☐ Between 1 and 2 years
- ☒ Between 2 and 5 years
- ☐ Between 5 and 10 years
- ☐ More than 10 years

8-Have you taught English in multilingual contexts in primarily English speaking areas? *

- ☒ YES - please answer question 9
- ☐ NO - go straight to question 10

9-How long for?

- ☐ Less than a year
- ☒ Between 1 and 2 years
- ☐ Between 2 and 5 years
- ☐ Between 5 and 10 years
- ☐ More than 10 years

10-Is English your L1? *

- ☒ YES - please go straight to question 12
- ☐ NO - please answer question 11

11-What is your L1 (if you were raised with more than one language, please list them both/all).

.....

12-Please list all the languages you speak and at what level (A1 - C2) *

Italian C1, Norwegian C1, German A2

.....

13-On the CELTA course(s) on which you teach, to what extent are the trainee teachers encouraged to use / discouraged from using the language learners' L1 in language teaching? Please tick your preferred answer. *

☐ Strongly discouraged

☐ Discouraged

☒ Tolerated

☐ Encouraged

☐ Strongly encouraged

For the next four questions, please give more detailed answers if possible

14-With reference to Q.13, please give details and examples of how this is conveyed to trainee teachers e.g. during sessions, feedback, tutorials, etc. *

Emphasize that it can be useful to highlight misconceptions in monolingual groups. Don't rely on it as a crutch, as celta suggests you can teach all over the world.

15-On the CELTA course/s on which you teach, are there times when you use a language other than English with the trainee teachers? e.g. during sessions, feedback, tutorials, etc. If so, please give details and examples *

No

16-What are your views on the role of the L1 (if any) in English language teaching and learning? Please explain and elaborate below. *

I think it's useful for highlighting misconceptions, and I think translation is a useful realworld skill. Until the criterion changed, I'd say to trainees to try to avoid it for the reasons given above, but once they started teaching it was something they should certainly experiment with.

17-In your opinion, is knowledge of and proficiency in the learners' L1 useful in English language teaching? Please elaborate on your views below. *

Yes, absolutely. It helps to identify misconceptions, which helps when clarifying language and giving feedback. Also potentially useful with young learners and low levels, as a backup if you need to communicate about something important, for example if a child is upset or a student is struggling to keep up.

(Google forms This form was created inside Dublin City University.)

Appendix C3: Sample Survey Response 2 (Please note: words containing –fi- have not downloaded accurately into NVivo from Google forms.)

Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes

Plain Language Statement

We are Fiona Gallagher and Catherine Geraghty and are both lecturers in ESOL in the School of Applied Language and Intercultural Studies (SALIS) in Dublin City University (DCU).

Fiona Gallagher was a CELTA trainer for many years in Ireland, Australia and Portugal.

Catherine Geraghty has been a CELTA trainer since 1986 and has worked in over 30 countries.

We are very interested in the views of CELTA trainers in relation to the use of the L1 in language teaching and learning and on CELTA programmes and are conducting a small research project entitled: L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes. We are inviting CELTA trainers to complete an anonymous questionnaire online which will explore their views in relation to this. We are interested in the views of CELTA trainers (a) for whom English is an L1 and (b) for whom English is an L2.

Taking part in this study is completely anonymous and involves answering a short survey online via Google Forms. This will take approximately 10 - 15 minutes. The survey consists of 17 questions: a set of 13 closed questions about the teaching contexts and language(s) of CELTA trainers and a set of 4 open-ended questions about the views and practices of CELTA trainers in relation to the use of the L1 in language teaching and learning and with trainees on CELTA programmes. There are no right or wrong answers and participants are invited to write freely about their views.

The questionnaire is anonymous; participants will not be identified or asked to provide personal information such as names, contact details etc. If any information is provided in the responses which might identify the participant or a particular CELTA centre, this information will not be used and will be anonymised in the data. The survey is completely voluntary and participation can be withdrawn at any time before final submission of the survey online. This can be done by simply exiting the online survey. It is not possible to withdraw once the survey has been submitted online because online submissions of the survey are anonymous. Completed surveys will be securely stored on the researchers' password-protected computer on DCU campus. They will be kept for five years after the completion of this research. They will then be permanently deleted.

It is hoped that the research will lead to conference presentations and academic publications such as journal articles. Please note, one of the researchers, Fiona Gallagher, is currently undertaking her PhD by Publication and it is hoped that a co-written journal article resulting from the survey will be included in her portfolio of publications. Her supervisor and PhD examiners may ask to see participants' surveys for the purpose of better monitoring the conduct and quality of the research study.

Surveys will be treated with the utmost confidentiality. Please be aware that confidentiality can only be protected within the limitations of the law – it is possible for information to be subject to subpoena, freedom of information claim or mandated reporting

If you have any questions about this research study, please contact Fiona Gallagher (fiona.gallagher@dcu.ie; tel:

+353 1 7005794) or Catherine Geraghty (Catherine.geraghty@dcu.ie). We will be pleased to answer any questions about the research study.

This research study has been approved by Dublin City University Research Ethics Committee (REC reference number: DCUREC/ 2019_047).

If participants have concerns about this study and wish to contact an independent person, please contact:

The Secretary, Dublin City University Research Ethics Committee, c/o Research and Innovation Support, Dublin City University, Dublin 9.

Consent to Participate

In order to start the survey, you will need to complete the following [this is the standard Dublin City University consent form for research participants]:

Information about the research *

Yes

I have read the Plain Language Statement.

☒

I understand the information provided in the Plain Language Statement

☒

I have had an opportunity to ask questions and discuss this study.

☒

Voluntary participation *

Yes

I am aware that involvement in this study is voluntary.

☒

I am aware that I can withdraw from the study at any point up to submission of the online survey

☒

Arrangements to protect confidentiality of data *

Yes

I am aware that the information I provide in this study will be stored securely.

☒

I am aware that the information I provide will be used by the research team only.

☒

I am aware that the information I provide will be used for research purposes only and my identity will be protected.

☒

I am aware that my completed survey will be destroyed five years after completion of the research

☒

I am aware that the confidentiality of the information I provide is subject to legal limitations and that it is possible for data to be subject to subpoena, freedom of information claim or mandated reporting by some professions.

☒

Consent *

Yes

I consent to participate in this survey



Questionnaire

1-How long have you worked as a CELTA trainer? *

- ☐ Less than 1 year
- ☒ Between 1 and 2 years
- ☐ Between 2 and 5 years
- ☐ Between 5 and 10 years
- ☐ More than 10 years

2. Have you worked as a CELTA trainer in places where teaching practice occurs in 'multilingual' contexts in which learners do not generally share a common language other than English (e.g. in English speaking areas) * YES - please answer question 3

- ☒
- ☐ NO - go straight to question 4

3- For how long?

- ☐ Less than a year
- ☒ Between 1 and 2 years
- ☐ Between 2 and 5 years
- ☐ Between 5 and 10 years
- ☐ More than 10 years

4. Have you worked as a CELTA trainer in places where teaching practice occurs in contexts in which learners generally share a common language other than English (e.g. in non-English speaking areas)*

- ☒ YES - please answer question 5
- ☐ NO - go straight to question 6

5-How long for?

- ☐ Less than a year
- ☒ Between 1 and 2 years
- ☐ Between 2 and 5 years
- ☐ Between 5 and 10 years
- ☐ More than 10 years

6- Have you taught English in contexts where language learners share a common language other than English?*

- ☒ YES - please answer question 7
- ☐ NO - go straight to question 8

7-How long for?

- ☐ Less than a year
- ☐ Between 1 and 2 years
- ☐ Between 2 and 5 years
- ☐ Between 5 and 10 years
- ☒ More than 10 years

8-Have you taught English in multilingual contexts in primarily English speaking areas? *

- ☒ YES - please answer question 9
- ☐ NO - go straight to question 10

9-How long for?

- ☐ Less than a year
- ☒ Between 1 and 2 years
- ☐ Between 2 and 5 years
- ☐ Between 5 and 10 years
- ☐ More than 10 years

10-Is English your L1? *

- ☐ YES - please go straight to question 12
- ☒ NO - please answer question 11

11-What is your L1 (if you were raised with more than one language, please list them both/all).

Russian

12-Please list all the languages you speak and at what level (A1 - C2) *

French (C1), English (C2), Italian (A1), Russian (L1)

13-On the CELTA course(s) on which you teach, to what extent are the trainee teachers encouraged to use / discouraged from using the language learners' L1 in language teaching? Please tick your preferred answer. *

☐ Strongly discouraged

☒ Discouraged

☐ Tolerated

☐ Encouraged

☐ Strongly encouraged

For the next four questions, please give more detailed answers if possible

14-With reference to Q.13, please give details and examples of how this is conveyed to trainee teachers e.g. during sessions, feedback, tutorials, etc. *

The trainees are advised against using L1 in their TP lessons during input sessions only.

15-On the CELTA course/s on which you teach, are there times when you use a language other than English with the trainee teachers? e.g. during sessions, feedback, tutorials, etc. If so, please give details and examples *

Hardly ever - only on rare occasions when there's a more comprehensive term for some concept in the trainees' L1 (Russian) we use this terms to help them better grasp the concept (again, very rarely); another instance would be giving examples of some vocabulary items that would be difficult to convey (or to pronounce) - again, this happens extremely rarely.

16-What are your views on the role of the L1 (if any) in English language teaching and learning? Please explain and elaborate below. *

I believe that L1 can be used to save time, e.g. - when there's a need to convey some very complex or abstract concept, it sometimes makes more sense to give the L1 equivalent rather than try to convey the meaning using other ways (especially with some types of learners); and when clarifying grammar - when there's a similar grammatical concept in the learners' L1, it makes it easier to present it in comparison to their L1.

17-In your opinion, is knowledge of and proficiency in the learners' L1 useful in English language teaching? Please elaborate on your views below. *

Yes, for the reasons listed above: to be able to better help learners understand vocabulary and grammar, and also to deal with their mistakes more efficiently (by predicting the most common ones that result from L1 interference)

Appendix C4: CELTA tutors: collated extracts for Multilingual contexts under Parent Node: multilingual or shared-L1 contexts (from NVivo) ((Please note: words containing –fi- have not downloaded accurately into NVivo from Google forms.)

[<Files\R12 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms>](#) - § 1 reference coded [0.47% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.47% Coverage

No. This would be illogical since we have very multinational/multilingual groups of trainees.

[<Files\R15 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms>](#) - § 1 reference coded [2.30% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 2.30% Coverage

I believe it can be a useful tool / skill for teachers. It's expedient for clarification in monolingual classes. I'd discourage it in multilingual classes for fear of excluding others who don't speak the other lang. It can be considered a form of bullying if a group excludes other(s) by speaking a different language from the common language of communication. Having said that I am much more tolerant the lower the level, sometimes the students can really help each other

[<Files\R24 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms>](#) - § 1 reference coded [0.69% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.69% Coverage

Classes are multi lingual and very often the trainees do not speak the students' ~rst language. Therefore it is often not possible for them to use L1.

[<Files\R25 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms>](#) - § 1 reference coded [0.65% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.65% Coverage

Reminding them that a) they might not always have su~cient grasp of students' L1, b) they may be teaching in multi-lingual situations,

[<Files\R27 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms>](#) - § 1 reference coded [1.02% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 1.02% Coverage

I encourage it but I work on courses in the UK where the learners are multi-lingual and there isn't much opportunity to talk about it. Course participants also often don;t have a second language to offer.

[<Files\\R28 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms>](#) - § 1 reference coded [1.27% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 1.27% Coverage

We have L1 times when they are encouraged to use L1 e.g. to discuss difficult lexis or grammar between themselves or to do some contrastive analysis if a monolingual class. If multilingual, I hope to find pairs or groups that speak the same language for these discussions

[<Files\\R32 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms>](#) - § 1 reference coded [2.95% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 2.95% Coverage

Some trainees are dead against use of L1, as they fear being dragged into it by their students (NB, in situations where the trainees and sts share L1, the trainees are mostly already experienced teachers.) I try to convey that yes it has dangers (another being that meanings may only approximate), but can be a time saver, and so should be a part of the teacher's repertoire. I also say that this is really only the case where a language is genuinely in common, either as L1 or at least as a lingua franca (eg Algerian Arabic in Algiers, where some students may be Berber speakers who know Algerian Arabic). It is usually impractical in a multilingual situation (something most of these trainees will never face).

[<Files\\R34 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms>](#) - § 1 reference coded [1.01% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 1.01% Coverage

Still preferable to use English in multi-lingual groups; Where teacher is one language speaker and groups are mono lingual other language speakers, preferable to use their L1 for some methodology

[<Files\\R36 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms>](#) - § 1 reference coded [0.93% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.93% Coverage

'If you can't translate for all your students, you can't translate for any of them!' This rather blunt statement is usually made in feedback after one of the trainees has translated/confirmed an answer in L1.

[<Files\\R37 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms>](#) - § 1 reference coded [0.80% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.80% Coverage

With a mono-lingual context, your action was effective. But in a multilingual context, how could you have responded differently instead of resorting to L1?

[<Files\\R38 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms>](#) - § 1 reference coded [0.66% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.66% Coverage

At my centre in Toronto this issue doesn't come up often. Our TP classes are multilingual, while most of our candidates are L1 English speakers.

[<Files\\R41 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms>](#) - § 1 reference coded [0.20% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.20% Coverage

No, we have mixed nationality trainees

[<Files\\R46 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms>](#) - § 1 reference coded [1.10% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 1.10% Coverage

If one is in a multilingual classroom then English becomes the lingua franca. Speaking or explaining language features in another language could confuse or annoy some other learners who may not understand what is being said.

[<Files\\R47 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms>](#) - § 1 reference coded [0.94% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.94% Coverage

If TP students are multilingual then it really is a 'no' but in a monolingual setting it could be acceptable to slip in the occasional L1 translation of an obscure item of vocabulary

[<Files\\R48 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms>](#) - § 1 reference coded [0.33% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.33% Coverage

Yes but not always possible especially in multilingual contexts

[<Files\\R63 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms>](#) - § 1 reference coded [0.81% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.81% Coverage

For multi-lingual classroom, I feel it is inappropriate because it gives an unfair advantage over others students. However, in EFL contexts, it is appropriate.

[<Files\\R65 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms>](#) - § 1 reference coded [0.31% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.31% Coverage

I teach in mostly multilingual situations so cannot comment.

[<Files\\R75 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms>](#) - § 1 reference

coded [2.37% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 2.37% Coverage

English-Only approach is ethnocentric and does not demonstrated the value of students' L1s and their cultural identities. Students' L1s can be used effectively in classrooms to connect their L1 to English - translate words as a CCQ, give instructions to very low level students, connect their "background knowledge" of language (their ability to speak one or more other languages). If the teacher knows the L1 of the students and the classroom primarily comprises students with common languages, avoiding their L1 is doing them a disservice.

[<Files\R77 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms>](#) - § 1 reference coded [0.91% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0.91% Coverage

I teach in the UK in multi-lingual contexts so it's not encouraged but if a trainee shares a language with a TP student and there is a need to use it, it wouldn't be a problem.

[<Files\R79 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms>](#) - § 1 reference coded [1.23% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 1.23% Coverage

With the exception of the Foreign Language Lesson session, I haven't had the chance to really use another language in any of my sessions (or other parts of the course for that matter). This is mainly due to the fact that there has always been at least one person of a different L1 to the rest of my trainees on every course I have worked on.

(QSR NVivo, 2018)

Codebook: CELTA trainers

Name	Description	Files	References
Cognitive and emotional development of the learner		65	99
age and level etc.		17	19
context		14	15
disadvantages		13	14
judicious use		14	14
useful teaching tool		58	84
anticipating problems		41	42
comparative purposes		12	12
efficiency, checking, instructions etc.		21	25
insight into learner		13	14
positive using it in class		24	32
emotional etc. support		11	12
highlighting language		8	8
Ls using it		10	11

Name	Description	Files	References
translation		3	3
useful in toolkit		13	13
context - multilingual or shared L1		36	50
multilingual context		20	20
shared L1 context		27	33
varied contexts		13	15
explicit focus		68	84
explicit focus		52	63
feedback		19	19
foreign language lesson		17	17
future careers		5	6
L1 not allowed		13	13
reflection on awareness raising		12	15
telling trainees		22	22
implicit		20	22
misc.		20	26
CELTA course		11	12
Changing trends in EFL	multilingual competence – varieties of English – . Recent reading MA studies / new knowledge / awareness of trends through	12	13

Name	Description	Files	References
	new literature and changes		
multilingual competence; bilingual skills		41	56
changing world	Future teaching contexts – trainers don't appear to address this explicitly No explicit focus on this in the data... Doesn't come up – not dealt with	3	3
introduce onto CELTA		4	6
language learning experience		14	17
monolingual orientation		20	25
multilingual skills		17	21
NEST or NNEST	how can their knowledge be used to enhance the training process...	20	27
advantage disadvantage		15	18
at a disadvantage		6	7
at an advantage		7	7
multilingual skills		9	10
proficiency of NNESTs		4	5
















Name	Description	Files	References
feelings of NNESTs		6	6
monolingual orientation		10	13
to do NESTs using the L1 for rapport etc.		1	1
Teacher knowledge of L1		52	71
coded elsewhere benefits		24	26
context		8	8
how much knowledge		12	16
Inclusion Exclusion		15	19
knowing and using L1 distinction		9	11
not used by teacher		4	5
used by teacher		6	6
language learning experience		14	16
not essential		24	28
slippery slope etc.		5	5
used on CELTA		75	96
misc.		2	2
support for trainees		18	24
acknowledgement of L1		3	6

Name	Description	Files	References
individual communication		8	9
language awareness		9	9
techniques		6	6
trainees		10	13
illicit guilt		3	4
multilingual or shared L1		4	5
not allowed or allowed		8	8
slippery slope		2	2
used by trainer	used or not? in TPs? ability to use the L1? in feedback? in foreign language lesson? L1 versus foreign language to highlight points (ie unfamiliar to participants)? to whole class or on individual basis? multilingual or shared-L1 group?	71	81
Yes		13	16
views of trainees		8	10
views of trainers		66	90
experience - lack of experience		0	0





























Name	Description	Files	References
more recently trained		0	0
own language learning experiences		0	0
Perception of role in fostering an English only environment		0	0
views of NESTs or NNESTs		0	0
zealous - gatekeepers		0	0

(QSR NVivo, 2018)

Appendix C6: IRR Test FG Vs CG

Code		File	File Folder	File Size	Kappa
Cognitive and emotional development of the learner		R11 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9458 chars)	0.7232
Cognitive and emotional development of the learner		R19 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9629 chars)	0.5
Cognitive and emotional development of the learner		R28 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (10510 chars)	0.5
Cognitive and emotional development of the learner		R3 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (10090 chars)	1
Cognitive and emotional development of the learner		R36 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (11094 chars)	0.5
Cognitive and emotional development of the learner		R44 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9494 chars)	0.7247
Cognitive and emotional development of the learner		R52 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (11517 chars)	0.8865
Cognitive and emotional development of the learner		R60 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9671 chars)	1
Cognitive and emotional development of the learner		R68 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9827 chars)	0.5
Cognitive and emotional development of the learner		R76 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9705 chars)	1
context multilingual or shared L1		R11 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9458 chars)	1
context multilingual or shared L1		R19 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9629 chars)	0.5
context multilingual or shared L1		R28 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (10510 chars)	1
context multilingual or shared L1		R3 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (10090 chars)	1
context multilingual or shared L1		R36 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (11094 chars)	1

context multilingual or shared L1		R44 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9494 chars)	1
context multilingual or shared L1		R52 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (11517 chars)	1
context multilingual or shared L1		R60 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9671 chars)	0.5
context multilingual or shared L1		R68 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9827 chars)	0.5
context multilingual or shared L1		R76 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9705 chars)	1
explicit focus		R11 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9458 chars)	1
explicit focus		R19 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9629 chars)	0.9626
explicit focus		R28 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (10510 chars)	0.5
explicit focus		R3 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (10090 chars)	0.8266
explicit focus		R36 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (11094 chars)	0.5
explicit focus		R44 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9494 chars)	0.5
explicit focus		R52 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (11517 chars)	1
explicit focus		R60 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9671 chars)	0.5
explicit focus		R68 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9827 chars)	1
explicit focus		R76 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9705 chars)	1
misc		R11 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9458 chars)	1
misc		R19 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9629 chars)	0.5
misc		R28 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (10510 chars)	1
misc		R3 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (10090 chars)	1
misc		R36 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (11094 chars)	0.5
misc		R44 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9494 chars)	1
misc		R52 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (11517 chars)	1
misc		R60 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9671 chars)	0.5
misc		R68 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9827 chars)	0.5
misc		R76 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9705 chars)	1
multilingual competence bilingual skills		R11 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9458 chars)	1
multilingual competence bilingual skills		R19 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9629 chars)	1
multilingual competence bilingual skills		R28 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (10510 chars)	0.8628
multilingual competence bilingual skills		R3 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (10090 chars)	0.5
multilingual competence bilingual skills		R36 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (11094 chars)	0.7564
multilingual competence bilingual skills		R44 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9494 chars)	1
multilingual competence bilingual skills		R52 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (11517 chars)	1

multilingual competence bilingual skills		R60 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9671 chars)	0.5
multilingual competence bilingual skills		R68 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9827 chars)	1
multilingual competence bilingual skills		R76 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9705 chars)	1
NEST or NNEST		R11 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9458 chars)	1
NEST or NNEST		R19 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9629 chars)	0.9986
NEST or NNEST		R28 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (10510 chars)	1
NEST or NNEST		R3 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (10090 chars)	0.5
NEST or NNEST		R36 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (11094 chars)	0.5
NEST or NNEST		R44 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9494 chars)	1
NEST or NNEST		R52 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (11517 chars)	1
NEST or NNEST		R60 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9671 chars)	1
NEST or NNEST		R68 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9827 chars)	1
NEST or NNEST		R76 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9705 chars)	1
T knowledge of L1		R11 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9458 chars)	1
T knowledge of L1		R19 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9629 chars)	1
T knowledge of L1		R28 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (10510 chars)	0.7698
T knowledge of L1		R3 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (10090 chars)	0.5
T knowledge of L1		R36 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (11094 chars)	0.904
T knowledge of L1		R44 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9494 chars)	1
T knowledge of L1		R52 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (11517 chars)	0.5
T knowledge of L1		R60 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9671 chars)	0.756
T knowledge of L1		R68 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9827 chars)	0.8623
T knowledge of L1		R76 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9705 chars)	1
used on CELTA		R11 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9458 chars)	1
used on CELTA		R19 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9629 chars)	1
used on CELTA		R28 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (10510 chars)	0.5275
used on CELTA		R3 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (10090 chars)	0.8621
used on CELTA		R36 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (11094 chars)	0.5
used on CELTA		R44 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9494 chars)	0.5768
used on CELTA		R52 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (11517 chars)	0.9979
used on CELTA		R60 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9671 chars)	1
used on CELTA		R68 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9827 chars)	0.5

used on CELTA		R76 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9705 chars)	1
views of trainees		R11 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9458 chars)	1
views of trainees		R19 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9629 chars)	1
views of trainees		R28 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (10510 chars)	1
views of trainees		R3 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (10090 chars)	0.5
views of trainees		R36 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (11094 chars)	1
views of trainees		R44 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9494 chars)	1
views of trainees		R52 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (11517 chars)	1
views of trainees		R60 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9671 chars)	1
views of trainees		R68 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9827 chars)	1
views of trainees		R76 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9705 chars)	1
views of trainers		R11 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9458 chars)	0.5
views of trainers		R19 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9629 chars)	1
views of trainers		R28 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (10510 chars)	1
views of trainers		R3 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (10090 chars)	1
views of trainers		R36 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (11094 chars)	0.5
views of trainers		R44 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9494 chars)	1
views of trainers		R52 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	8 pages (11517 chars)	0.9369
views of trainers		R60 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9671 chars)	0.4947
views of trainers		R68 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9827 chars)	0.5
views of trainers		R76 Using the L1, L2 and English on CELTA programmes - Google Forms	Files	7 pages (9705 chars)	1
					0.83

(QSR NVivo, 2018)

